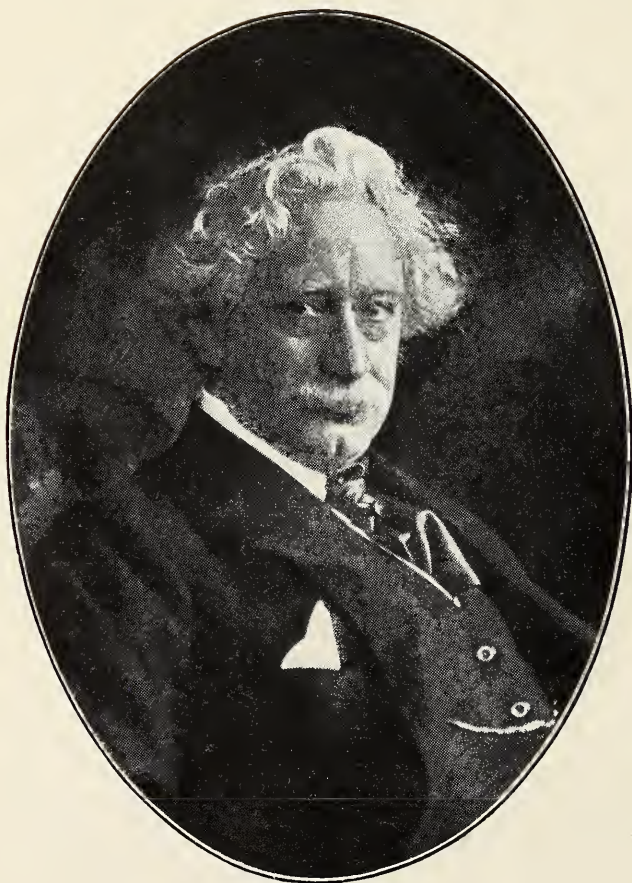




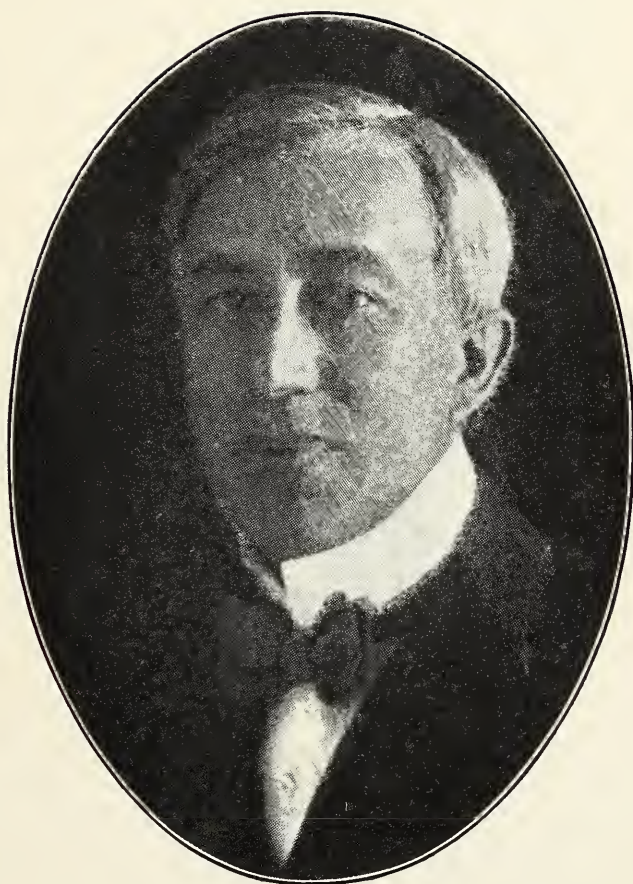
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PROCEEDINGS OF THE WORLD CONFERENCE ON WORK FOR THE BLIND

Under the auspices of the

American Association of Instructors of the Blind
American Association of Workers for the Blind
American Foundation for the Blind, Inc.

With the co-operation of the

American Braille Press
For War and Civilian Blind, Inc.

Editors

Helga Lende
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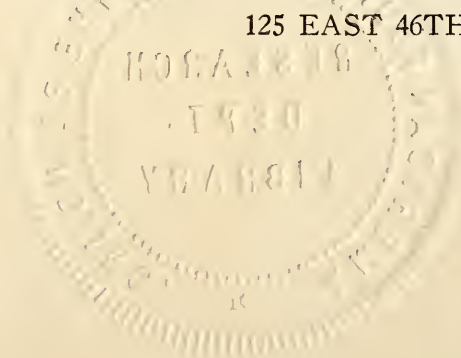


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INTRODUCTION

The World Conference on Work for the Blind held in New York in April, 1931, was attended by delegates from thirty-two countries, and was the most widely representative gathering of workers for the blind ever assembled. The Conference was held under the auspices of the American Foundation for the Blind, the American Association of Instructors of the Blind, and the American Association of Workers for the Blind, in co-operation with the American Braille Press for War and Civilian Blind, and many other Associations throughout the world. The call for the Conference was issued by the President of the United States, Herbert Hoover, in March, 1930, upon the authority of a special resolution of the Congress of the United States.

Prior to this call, however, there had been considerable correspondence with persons interested in the blind in many countries. A representative of the American Foundation for the Blind attended the International Pre-Congress for the Blind in Vienna in July, 1929. This pre-Congress, which met at the call of the Association Internationale des Etudiants Aveugles, was presided over by Dr. Carl Strehl. The purpose of the Vienna meeting was to discuss plans for an international convention of those interested in the blind to be convened somewhere in Europe in 1933. As the European Congress contemplated the gathering of large numbers of blind people and their friends, and since the purpose of those promoting the New York Conference was to assemble a limited number of outstanding professional workers from a large number of countries, it was decided that there was no conflict between the two projects. Accordingly, plans for the New York Conference were announced at the Vienna meeting, and those present were invited to arrange for the sending of delegates from the various countries represented there.

As it was of vital importance that there should be close co-operation between the proposed European Conference and that to be held in New York, and as it was also deemed essential that the program of the New York Conference should be of the widest possible appeal, the Organizing Committee of the New York Conference appointed a Committee on Personnel and Program composed very largely of non-Americans. This Committee contained

in its membership five members of the Executive Committee of the proposed European Conference, and much of the success of the New York Conference was due to the cordial co-operation of these members.

The program of the World Conference on Work for the Blind may be divided into three parts:

April 14-17: the consideration of certain set topics arranged by the Program Committee.

April 19-29: A ten-day tour of representative agencies for the blind in the eastern part of the United States.

April 29-30: a two-day session in which there was a general summing up of the discussions, together with the business meeting and the organization of the World Council for the Blind.

While English was the official language of the Conference, all speeches made from the floor of the Conference chamber in any of the following languages—English, French, German, Italian, and Spanish—were translated simultaneously into the other four tongues named by means of the Filene-Finlay Translator.

The author of each paper was given ten minutes to present a brief summary of his treatment of the subject assigned him. This gave opportunity for considerable free discussion. A complete record was made of everything said on the floor of the convention hall, and submitted in typewritten form to the editors of these *Proceedings*. This material was abridged before printing, in so far as was consistent with a fair presentation of the subject.

Practically all the papers prepared for the Conference were submitted and printed in advance. Owing to the shortness of time, however, only hurried translations could be made before the first printed edition, and most of them had to be re-translated to render them suitable for publication in these *Proceedings*. As those in charge of this undertaking had to carry on this work in connection with other regular duties, there has been some delay in the preparation of this volume.

Many papers not called for on the program were submitted to the Committee at the time the Convention assembled. Several of them contained much valuable information about work for the blind in countries regarding which very little material is available in print in English. These papers have been carefully edited, and are included in this report.

In submitting this volume to those interested in the New York World Conference, I cannot refrain from expressing the gratitude

felt by the Organizing Committee for the valiant service rendered by certain persons, many of whom came into little or no contact with the individual delegates in attendance. Mr. Richard Southgate of the State Department of the United States, and other Government officials, assisted in many ways much appreciated by the delegates. For example, they accelerated action on passport visas, and extended the courtesy of the port to all incoming delegates and guests, so that the usual Custom House inspection and other formalities were dispensed with.

Again, twice during the preparatory stages of the work of the Conference, when it was necessary to make financial commitments prior to our receiving definite assurance as to where the funds would come from, Mr. Harold T. Clark of Cleveland underwrote the amounts necessary so that the Committee could go forward, confident that they would not be personally liable for the funds necessary.

The thanks of the Organizing Committee are also extended to the members of the Hospitality Committees in the various cities visited by the delegates.

Perhaps most of all, the thanks of the Committee are due to those who made the Conference financially possible. It was Mr. M. C. Migel and Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., who made the first gifts to this undertaking, thereby placing upon the venture a stamp of approval which had tremendous weight. Mr. William Nelson Cromwell, fine combination of humanitarian and practical business man that he is, recognized twice during the preparatory period that funds were insufficient to meet the situation adequately, and, entirely unsolicited, contributed liberally to the expenses of the Conference.

Again, it is difficult to see how the Conference could have been carried through without the liberal grants made by the Carnegie Corporation and the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Special mention should also be made of the generous contribution made personally by President Hoover. These gifts also indicate the broad international significance of the Convention. Among the other contributors were such staunch friends of the blind as Mr. William Ziegler, Jr., Mr. Henry Goldman, Mr. Charles Lindsay of Montreal, Mr. Andrew Squire, Mr. Louis Bamberger, Mr. Arthur B. Baer, the New York Foundation, the John Huntington Benevolent Association (through the Cleveland Conference for Educational Co-operation), the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce, Mrs. Lewis S. Chanler, Mrs. Edwin P. Cock-

ran, Miss Mary E. Converse, Miss E. S. Edwards, Mr. H. A. Edwards, Miss Belle Lobenstine, Mrs. J. D. Parsons, Jr., Miss Elizabeth Putnam, and Mrs. George Woodward.

There are many other persons to whom the thanks of the Organizing Committee are due. I hesitate to list them, however, for fear that I shall inadvertently omit some of those rendering the most valuable service.

ROBERT B. IRWIN.

January, 1932.

CONTENTS

PART I—SESSIONS OF THE CONFERENCE

SECTION I.—FORMAL WELCOME TO DELEGATES AND GUESTS

	PAGE
INVOCATION <i>Albert Parker Fitch, D.D.</i>	4
ADDRESSES OF WELCOME..... <i>Harry Edmonds</i>	5
..... <i>M. C. Migel</i>	6
..... <i>John H. Finley</i>	9
..... <i>Helen Keller</i>	11
..... <i>Hon. Thomas P. Gore</i>	12
RESPONSES TO ADDRESSES OF WELCOME..... <i>Ian Fraser</i>	16
..... <i>Alrik Lundberg</i>	19
..... <i>Aurelio Nicolodi</i>	21

SECTION 2.—EDUCATION

✓ PSYCHOLOGICAL PROBLEMS OF THE PRE-SCHOOL BLIND CHILD <i>Siegfried Altmann</i>	25
GENERAL EDUCATION AND SPECIAL TRAINING OF THE YOUNG BLIND FOR A CAREER..... <i>Donatien Lelièvre</i>	41
✓ GENERAL EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING..... <i>Paul Grasemann</i>	52
✓ HIGHER EDUCATION OF THE BLIND AND THEIR CHANCES IN THE PROFESSIONS <i>Carl Strehl</i>	72
THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF THE BLIND..... <i>Augusto Romagnoli</i>	93
✓ THE SPECIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF THE BLIND..... <i>Halvdan Karterud</i>	104

SECTION 3.—EMPLOYMENT

BLIND HOME WORKERS IN SWEDEN..... <i>Ernst Retsler</i>	114
BLIND WORKSHOP OCCUPATIONS..... <i>S. W. Starling</i>	121
WORKSHOP MANAGEMENT..... <i>George Danby</i>	140
MUSIC AS A PROFESSION FOR THE BLIND IN FRANCE..... <i>Pierre Villey</i>	155
✓ EMPLOYMENT OF THE BLIND IN WORK FOR WHICH SIGHT WAS FORMERLY CONSIDERED ESSENTIAL..... <i>E. A. Baker and J. F. Clunk</i>	166
GUIDE DOGS FOR THE BLIND..... <i>Dorothy Harrison Eustis</i>	183
WORK FOR THE BLIND IN ITALY..... <i>Aurelio Nicolodi</i>	192

SECTION 4.—A. TECHNICAL AIDS AND PROVISIONS B. THE FAR EAST

✓ A. MUSEUMS FOR THE BLIND..... <i>Edward E. Allen</i>	197
LIBRARIES FOR THE BLIND..... <i>Lucille A. Goldthwaite</i>	208

SECTION 4 (*Continued*)

	PAGE
TECHNICAL AIDS AND APPLIANCES IN THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND CHILD	<i>Vladimir Dolanski</i> 223
PRINTING FOR THE BLIND.....	<i>Frank C. Bryan</i> 239
CO-OPERATION IN PRINTING FOR THE BLIND IN LATIN-AMERICA	<i>Alejandro Meza</i> 251
B. WORK FOR THE BLIND IN JAPAN.....	<i>Umaji Akiba</i> 254
THE BLIND IN ASIATIC COUNTRIES.....	<i>George B. Fryer</i> 264

SECTION 5.—SOCIAL SERVICES

CAUSES AND PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS.....	<i>Miguel Mérida Nicolich, M.D.</i> 282
✓ PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS AND SIGHT-SAVING.....	<i>Winifred Hathaway</i> 296
HOME VISITING AND HOME TEACHING.....	<i>Judith A. Merivale</i> 312
THE STATE AND THE BLIND.....	<i>Ian Fraser</i> 323
THE RÔLE OF THE STATE IN ASSISTING THE BLIND.....	<i>Paul Guinot</i> 336
PENSIONS—A DIVISION OF WORK FOR THE BLIND	<i>Lothar Gaebler-Knibbe</i> 346

SECTION 6.—ROUND TABLES

	Organizers		
-WAYS AND MEANS IN PLANNING SCHOOL ACTIVITIES.....	<i>O. H. Burritt</i>		360
-PURPOSES IN EDUCATION; FOR LIFE AND FOR A LIVING....	<i>J. T. Hooper</i>		366
-TACTUAL EDUCATION	<i>Harold T. Clark</i>		373
HOME TEACHING	<i>Kate M. Foley</i>		379
-MUSIC	<i>L. W. Rodenberg</i>		383
PREVENTION AND SIGHT SAVING.....	<i>Lewis H. Carris</i>		384
PENSIONS.....	<i>Mary Dranga Campbell and Henry Hedger</i>		389
SOCIAL WELFARE.....	<i>H. M. Immeln and Murray B. Allen</i>		391
THE DEAF-BLIND	<i>Lydia Y. Hayes</i>		394

SECTION 7.—RAPPORTEURS' REPORTS

	Rapporteurs		
EDUCATION	<i>Mary M. R. Garaway</i>		398
EMPLOYMENT	<i>S. C. Swift and Umaji Akiba</i>		403
TECHNICAL AIDS AND PROVISIONS.....	<i>A. C. Ellis</i>		407
SOCIAL SERVICES	<i>W. McG. Eagar</i>		411

SECTION 8.—BUSINESS SESSIONS

	Chairman		
PROPOSALS FOR WORLD COUNCIL ORGANIZATION....	<i>Edward M. Van Cleve</i>		417
AGREEMENT ON WORLD COUNCIL ORGANIZATION....	<i>Edward M. Van Cleve</i>		433

PART II—SUPPLEMENTARY PAPERS

SECTION 1.—WORK FOR THE BLIND IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES

WORK FOR THE BLIND IN ARGENTINA.....	<i>Julian Baquero</i>	445
AUSTRALIA AND ITS BLIND.....	<i>Henry Hedger</i>	448
SCHOOLS AND ORGANIZATION FOR AIDING THE BLIND IN BELGIUM	<i>Gérard Borré</i>	454
THE CARE OF THE BLIND IN BULGARIA.....	<i>Vasil Stephanov</i>	459
WORK FOR THE BLIND IN CHILE.....	<i>Abraham Grimberg Villarroel</i>	462
WORK FOR THE BLIND IN COLOMBIA..... <i>Juan Antonio Pardo Ospina and Francisco Luis Hernandez</i>		465
THE BLIND IN EGYPT.....	<i>Mahmoud Azmy el Kattan, M.D.</i>	470
WORK FOR THE BLIND IN HOLLAND.....	<i>A. H. J. Belzer</i>	473
THE BLIND IN INDIA.....	<i>P. N. V. Rau</i>	477
WORK FOR THE BLIND IN MEXICO..... <i>Ramón Beteta and Alejandro Meza</i>		481
BLIND WELFARE WORK IN NEW ZEALAND.....	<i>Clutha N. Mackenzie</i>	485
THE CARE OF THE BLIND IN SOUTH AFRICA....	<i>Rev. Arthur W. Blaxall</i>	492
THE BLIND IN SPAIN.....	<i>Miguel Mérida Nicolich, M.D.</i>	494
THE BLIND IN SWITZERLAND.....	<i>Margaret Schaffer</i>	500
THE BLIND IN U. S. S. R.....	<i>Vladimir Alexandrovitch Viktoroff</i>	505
THE BLIND IN YUGOSLAVIA.....	<i>Veljko Ramadanovitch</i>	511

SECTION 2.—OTHER SUPPLEMENTARY PAPERS

• VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND PLACEMENT OF THE BLIND	<i>Charles Herodek</i>	517
MASSAGE, ACUPUNCTURE, AND MOXIBUSTION.....	<i>Yoshihiro Tamori</i>	523

PART III—APPENDICES

FINAL RESOLUTIONS ON CREATION OF WORLD COUNCIL.....	529
WORLD COUNCIL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.....	534
FAREWELL MESSAGE TO DELEGATES AND GUESTS.....	<i>M. C. Migel</i> 535
PROGRAM	537
DELEGATES TO THE WORLD CONFERENCE.....	541
GUESTS OF THE WORLD CONFERENCE.....	545
COMMITTEES FOR THE WORLD CONFERENCE.....	546
SPEAKERS AT THE WORLD CONFERENCE.....	548

INDEX

INDEX	555
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PART I

SESSIONS OF THE
CONFERENCE

SECTION 1

FORMAL WELCOME
TO DELEGATES AND GUESTS

International House, April 13

INVOCATION

ALBERT PARKER FITCH, D. D.

Pastor, Park Avenue Presbyterian Church, New York, N. Y.

Eternal Lord and lover of mankind, we gather in the light and comfort of Thy presence to invoke Thy blessing upon this Conference and upon those associations participating in it. Thou art the protector of all who trust in Thee. There is none, whatsoever his creed, color or condition, who turneth unto Thee in vain. Yet art Thou especially near to all in helplessness or distress. We remember before Thee, O God, the estate of the blind throughout the world. Grant to them richly human comradeships and understandings. Make for them wide and lighted inner kingdoms of the spirit which shall become a thousandfold more real than the earth whereon they place their feet. Fulfil in them the prophecy of old that their young men may dream dreams and their old men may see visions.

We commend unto Thy fatherly care all high enterprises which seek to serve humanity as the years and the faces pass and the leaders come and go. May other strong and compassionate men and women be lifted up to perpetuate the works of mercy and of healing until all the halt and the lame, the deaf, the dumb, the blind shall know that they are not forgotten in the earth.

We ask it in His name. Amen!

ADDRESSES OF WELCOME

*Address by HARRY EDMONDS, Founder and
Director, International House, New York.*

I am not here to make an address, but to say a very brief and hearty word of welcome in behalf of International House to you who have come so many miles to participate in this Conference and to your guests. International House is a place of beauty within and without. From its foundation stone to the tip of its flag pole it is seventeen stories in height and is a great mass of brick and stone and steel. But more important than its material, than the fact that it is a beautiful place, is the fact that it is a rendezvous, a crossroads of the world for all people of all nations, of all sects, and of all creeds. Though some of you here have not the means of physical sight, we hope that you may feel the warmth of the welcome and the hospitality and the breadth of view of International House.

Many students from all over the world come here each year and say that the most realistic thing about International House is this spirit of cordiality, of hospitality, of unity, of world brotherhood. So that, of far more importance than being a place is the fact that International House is a *point of view*, a vantage point, and in this very room where we are assembled tonight, there were assembled at the beginning of this academic year representatives of nations which, on roll call, numbered seventy. Seventy nations confined within the four walls of this room! They have been meeting here week after week around candle-lighted tables, coming to know one another, obliterating boundary lines, overcoming prejudice and ignorance in regard to one another, assembling day after day, week after week, without the assistance of any armies or navies or war budgets. There haven't been, I can report to you quite honestly, any casualties.

It is the greatest kind of an inspiration and privilege for the students of International House to have you here this evening as their guests, because they, like you, live in a world that in some respects they can't see. Here we have this great question of armaments and war. Many leaders and statesmen and business men of all nations are in despair as to how it can be overcome. Well, you have overcome obstacles and your presence here will be an inspiration to us because the mass of mankind can't believe that it is possible for the world as yet to be welded into one family. But we of this House, who have lived here, know it can be. We

know that the world is one, that humanity is one, but we have got to go out and work and fight in order that all of the world may see and comprehend what we know and feel.

You and your presence here tonight are an inspiration to us and we hope in some small way that we may be an inspiration to you. International House bids you welcome.

*Address by M. C. MIGEL, Honorary Chairman,
Organizing Committee, World Conference on Work for
the Blind; President, American Foundation for the
Blind, Inc., New York*

Seventeen years have elapsed since the last International Conference for the Blind, held, to be exact, in June, 1914, in London, England. A number of us who are here tonight had a more or less active part in that Conference.

Whilst we were still in London, the calamitous World War had begun. All of us from foreign parts immediately secured passage for home as best we could—and I greatly fear that the benefits that might have accrued from the Conference were lost in the succeeding years of war and turmoil. Only a limited number of nations attended that particular conference.

Previously, an international conference had been held in 1911. We might say, therefore, that practically twenty years have elapsed since the best minds and thought on work for the blind in the various countries throughout the world have foregathered seriously to discuss, analyze, and disseminate information on the numerous problems of the blind—educational, vocational, scientific and preventive—that have arisen during that long period, although, as you all know, tremendous progress in the solution of those problems has been made during these years.

In the field of education many have labored with courage and faithfulness to improve conditions for blind students of all ages; in training teachers; in the curricula of schools; in musical, physical and manual training; as well as in increasing the opportunities for higher education.

Ardent workers have given unstintedly of themselves in the vocational field to improve conditions for the blind in industry—establishing workshops, developing new crafts feasible for the blind, and training the blind in numerous business undertakings and varied professions.

The members of local associations, state commissions for the blind and the national organization of this country, which is the

American Foundation for the Blind, have labored assiduously through research, relief measures, developing and perfecting mechanical appliances and through other channels, toward the constant improvement of conditions that affect the lives of our blind.

Scientists inform us there has been a greater advance in scientific knowledge and invention during the past thirty years than in the preceding two hundred. Some of these have had particular interest for the blind—the dictaphone, the phonograph, the amazing and almost unbelievable radio. Improved equipment and new tools are continually being projected. Only within the last few months, a disc has been perfected which will run continuously for thirty-three minutes on each side, and reproduce about twenty-three pages of an ordinary printed book. A number of these discs for certain purposes may eventually displace braille books (with a resultant saving in cost of production and space) and learning to read may be greatly facilitated thereby.

Also, we are now studying the Printing Visagraph, which duplicates on a roll of aluminum foil in enlarged and raised characters the type of a printed page.

By medical treatment of children at birth, great strides have been made in prevention of blindness; improvements in industrial plants have reduced to a minimum accidents formerly resulting in blindness; large type books and special sight-saving classes have contributed in a very large degree to conservation of vision.

The vast majority of those engaged professionally in work for the blind, both in this country and abroad, are earnest men and women of the highest type, self-sacrificing, seldom considering their own material welfare, cheerful, courageous, optimistic toilers, ever on the alert for what may redound to the advantage of those whose welfare is in their keeping.

“Seek and ye shall find.” In every part of the world, far and wide, these untiring workers have sought, zealously indeed, and they are here to relate to each other what they have found.

In this country—and particularly during the last few years—a spirit of active co-operation has been brought about, and we find our educators, our vocational workers, our associations, our state commissions and our Foundation, all working harmoniously, avoiding duplication of effort, always supplementing each other.

As to the blind themselves, the old mental picture of the blind man, woman or child—weak, helpless, soliciting alms, awakening pity, or otherwise appealing to the emotions for assistance and direction—has practically disappeared. In its place has been created in our minds, and in the mind of the public as a whole, a

realization that the blind man, woman, and child are integral parts of the human family, reputable members of society, qualified mentally for almost any calling, merely carrying a physical handicap that can and is being minimized by proper adjustment, so that the sightless are rapidly securing the "place in the sun" to which they are entitled.

In a great measure, we find in many countries that the mentality and ability of the blind population compares favorably with the seeing population and that, given an equal chance, the percentage of intelligence per capita of the blind is fully up to that of the seeing.

We find blind men and women successfully occupying important posts in all stations of life—in the Senate, in the Chamber of Deputies, in Parliament, among merchants, teachers, lawyers and professionals in varied fields. Tremendous accomplishments for the benefit of all the world can be achieved through international collaboration.

Until a short time ago, it had been impossible to convey to those born blind the beauty and majesty of architectural forms. Today, through the use of the "Richter Blocks," scaled in metric measurements to stones of actual building size, designed by the foremost architects of Germany, a blind person can conceive architectural forms through the sense of touch—he can himself erect a miniature cathedral, thanks to our German friends.

We are confident that many such advantages will be derived from the deliberations of this Conference, not alone to the blind of those countries whose delegates have honored us by being present as our guests, but also to the blind of our own country, who will gain from the vast fund of experience and knowledge that you bring to us.

In addition, it will be brought to your attention later that a movement is well under way to perpetuate for all nations the benefits to be derived from this Conference, by the establishment of an International Bureau for the Blind which will have as its province the 'crystallization' and dissemination of information among the leaders in work for the blind in various countries throughout the world.

At the present conference, the representatives of each nation will be asked to accept in principle this idea of establishing an International Bureau. Later on details as to methods and procedure will be elaborated.

My dear friends, on behalf of the American Foundation for the Blind, the American Association of Instructors of the Blind,

the American Association of Workers for the Blind, I bid you welcome!

We claim no monopoly of knowledge—we still have much to learn; however, all that we do know, all that we have learned, all that we can show you, is freely offered to you.

Our institutions and organizations, our schools, our laboratories, our workshops, are all open to you.

We welcome you with open arms—and as so beautifully expressed in the Spanish language, we say to you, "*Es de Ud, Señor*"—"What we have is yours"—for we feel that when we cease to give, we cease to have.

Let us hope and pray that the spirit of devotion to a common cause and the will to collaborate for the benefit of our fellow-men, which unites us this evening, will spread its beneficent rays to the utmost ends of the earth long after this Conference is but a memory.

*Address by JOHN H. FINLEY, LL. D., President,
New York Association for the Blind, Inc., New York*

Mr. Chairman, Delegates and Guests of the World Conference on Work for the Blind:

I said last night, in welcoming some of you, that the voice of New York was a *basso*. I think Dr. Wise said a *basso profundo*, but you have heard the voice of New York here tonight in the voices of these children.¹ They are the voices not alone of New York, but of America. One of our great writers some years ago likened civilization to the sounds of various musical instruments. Greece was a lyre; Rome was a trumpet; all Ireland, I do not need to tell you, was a harp; Scotland a bagpipe. As I remember, he said Luther was a cathedral organ, and Plato, of course, we know was the music of the spirit.

But America—well, you have heard America tonight. America is a chorus of voices gathered from many lands. You have heard the best welcome that America can give you. I was, nevertheless, stirred by that voice last night as you were who were there, stirred by Dr. Wise's address of welcome in which he spoke of the old and the new attitudes of the world toward the blind. Two thousand or more years ago it was said, "Put no stumbling block in the way of the blind. Give the blind a hand, which is as a light in the darkness."

¹ Address following musical numbers by the chorus of the New York Institute for the Education of the Blind.

But I think of a deeper contrast of which I dare to speak here, a contrast which makes this scene here seem as the coming of the millennium itself. The scene that I have in the far past is of fifteen thousand men defeated in battle, who had their eyes put out in vindictiveness by the conqueror and were sent back home over the mountains in companies of one hundred each, and who, in hideous mockery, were led by a man with only one eye. It is recorded that when this ghastly procession of men with blank, staring faces approached the walls of their home city, the people were stricken with horror and the king himself sank into a stupor and died.

By contrast, a thousand years later the nations of the earth are assembled by delegates to do what they can do to prevent blindness, first of all, and then to help those upon whom it has come, toward the light. You who have come are in a very true sense internationalists. All peoples would be alike to you who are sightless if they only spoke the same language.

I am glad to have an intimation that there is to be a permanent league of the world's workers for the blind and I hope that America is going to enter that league. Justice is pictured as blind in her decisions because they are unprejudiced. We have need for some blind judges in some of our courts. Love that is intense, that is, love of the highest form, is also represented as being blind. So is courage in its most heroic expression. So is charity. It cannot even see the mote in its neighbors' eyes.

So you have in your company the three highest virtues, and so do you give challenge, expression, by your courage which makes us ashamed of our own shortcomings and faint-heartedness in the presence of obstacles. There is one of your number—I think she is soon to appear—who makes a supreme challenge. I shall stop as soon as I can to make way for her. Dr. Henry Van Dyke recently spoke of her as the very spirit of gratitude—Helen Keller. I was broadcasting a few days ago in behalf of national literacy, and I said if Helen Keller, who has been both blind and deaf since childhood, could become literate in the highest range of intellectual exchange, there was no one of good mind (she has a somewhat better mind than a good one) in America, native or foreign born, who had any excuse for remaining illiterate. I said that of course she has a tremendous advantage in her teacher, who is quite as wonderful as Helen Keller herself.

Then Helen Keller has another advantage. She never heard an ungrammatical sentence in her life, or a mispronounced word. Nor has she ever seen, I suppose, a misspelled word, or are words

misspelled in braille? I have brought with me a photograph, a wonderful photograph, of Helen Keller speaking with Tagore, the great Indian poet, and I asked her a few weeks ago to sign it. She has not only done that, but has written in perfect characters, more legible than the writing of most of us, a sentence which I take over with the slightest change as my welcome on behalf of that wonderful institution of which you have spoken so kindly and I think so charitably. I am so sorry Mrs. Mather is not here to represent it.

On their behalf and may I say on behalf of this city, I quote these words which she has written here with only the slightest change: "The invisible circle we have drawn takes you in and all the world."

Address by HELEN KELLER, L. H. D.

Welcome to the United States, dear friends all! You have crossed oceans and continents seeking a new and fairer prospect of life for the blind. Although we have not met together before, yet we are not strangers. Oh no, I have known you by name, some of you for many years, and it is wonderful to be able to give your names a personality. Imperfect as my voice is, will you not graciously take it as the voice of the blind of America?

No doubt since you have landed here you have been saying, "And so, this is the United States! I hope that you will see us as you would like us to see you, with open mind and generous good will. Because this country is rich in material things, superficial critics dwell on our materialism. They say our god is the dollar, and that our ideal is to get rich at any cost to the spirit. But I am confident that as you travel from one great city to another and visit our schools and institutions, you will discover something else besides noise, speed and commercialism.

America stands for the principle that normal people and handicapped alike are part of a great social whole and are dependent one upon another. It is in this spirit that we meet, seeking mutual co-operation. I believe that our deepest desire is world unity. Unless we all join hands internationally, no single nation can do all of which it is capable for the welfare of its people. Here we do not meet as Americans, Germans or Japanese, but as co-workers. Here is an opportunity to found a federation of sympathy and counsel which will bring aid to the blind everywhere.

Furthermore, you hold in your hands a power you cannot measure, the power to give to all peoples that knowledge that shall

prevent unnecessary blindness. Six million human beings are waiting for us in the dark. Only by our united efforts can we reach even a part of them. Only by courage and perseverance shall we succeed in rehabilitating this vast multitude. Now is the time to shake ourselves free from old ideas and traditions. We must no longer look back upon yesterday, but rather go with youth, who ever looks toward tomorrow.

Oh, my friends, a new day is approaching, the day of a nobler humanity. Let us move all together forward, united, resolute and unafraid. I thank you.

*Address by the HON. THOMAS P. GORE, LL. D.
United States Senator*

Mr. Chairman, Friends, Visitors and Guests from over the sea:

I might with truth and with propriety salute you as men and women of the world in the very highest and best sense. I think it a pleasure as well as a duty to take part in these significant ceremonies. I am pleased to join with Miss Keller, who has conquered the powers of darkness, in bidding you welcome not to our city alone, but to our country. I bid you welcome to the United States of America. I wish you to feel sure that the word "welcome" is not only inscribed upon our door mat, but the sentiment is inscribed within our soul.

We refuse to look upon you merely as strangers within our gates. The truth is that our gates swung ajar in order to let you in, and confidentially, we intend to close them only upon your threatened departure.

We greet you as the envoys of humanity. We greet you as the ministers of mercy. We greet you as the accredited ambassadors of international good will. You have come to our shores not as the emissaries of grim war, but you have come upon a mission of peace. You have come upon a pilgrimage of love and not of hate. Your credentials are written upon your hearts.

It is said that in the Land of the Rising Sun all those who break bread together must be friends forever. We have broken bread together and hereafter we shall hold you bound in the sweet bondage of friendship. We shall hold you a little more than kind and a little less than kin. Shakespeare says, "One touch of nature makes the whole world kin." You have come among us as the representatives of all the tongues and the tribes and the kindreds of men. You have come among us knowing that nationalism is not enough; knowing that nationalism is bounded by rivers and

by mountains, that it is hemmed in between narrow seas. You have come knowing that humanity, that the brotherhood of man acknowledges no international boundaries; that it knows neither landmarks nor cornerstones; that it knows neither neutral zones nor hostile zones. If I may say so, like the ocean, its billows roll from pole to pole.

There is another sense in which this meeting might be regarded as a family reunion, as a sort of international family reunion. No matter what land you hail from, we have kidnapped some of your kith and kin. The United States of America, as we love to call it, has been the greatest kidnapper in all the tides of time. We have taken from you, as we believe, many of your bravest, many of your fairest, many of your best. These we have passed into the melting pot and out of the melting pot has come the typical American differing from you all, and yet resembling you all, and resembling you more than differing from you.

No matter what land you hail from, I know that you share our profound admiration for our mighty ancestor dead, whose spirit still rules us. Our Washingtons, our Lincolns, our Jeffersons—these names emblazon the history of our country. But the finest type of American has been the American pioneer. He it was who conquered the continent, who subdued the wilderness, who made this country and this Republic what it is. He it was who made possible such men as Lincoln, Jefferson and Washington. The finest virtues, virtues that characterize the American pioneer, are fortitude, self-reliance, self-respect. With these he conquered his destiny, neither asking nor giving quarter.

And now, just as our own country shows symptoms and as some of your countries show symptoms of adopting policies which rather enervate self-reliance, of adopting policies which rather encourage dependence rather than independence—as we mark these tendencies, you have gathered together here from every quarter of the globe to teach self-reliance to the blind. They already have self-respect. You are assembled here to develop self-reliance and to render self-sustaining our unfortunate fellows. You are seeking ways and means to help those who need help to help themselves. You are seeking ways and means to guide the blind not through the starlight, but through the starless night, seeking ways and means to help the blind that tread their way through the shadows and the night. I commend you to the task.

This meeting is a sort of clearing-house, where all the ideas, all the experiments and all the experience of the earth may be brought together within these walls, in order that the experience

of each may become the experience of all, and that the experience of all may become the experience of each. In the interchange of ideas is to be found the very source of human progress and of human civilization. I make but one suggestion—teach the blind how to do something with their hands and then teach the world that the blind can do something with their heads and their hands, and that is the hardest task that lies ahead of you.

I have often said that if I had any really good advice, I would take it myself and not give it to anybody else, but I intend to give you one word of advice, taking the consequences, even if it be capital punishment. Do not segregate the blind. If the blind make their way, if they live their own lives, if they earn their own bread, they must do so among the sighted people of the world. Accustom both the blind and the seeing to this association. Avoid the isolation of the cloister as you would avoid the valley of the shadow. Do not institutionize the blind. There is no greater tragedy than to bring up a group of blind children to come into contact with none but the blind, to come into contact with none, saving an occasional visitor to an institution, some kindly hearted person to condole the little fellow in his darkness. Like everybody else, a blind child must judge all the world by that part of the world with which he comes in contact and such surroundings lead him to anticipate such a greeting when he leaves the cloister and enters the wide world. He is not prepared for the rude and the sudden shock. Neither is he prepared for the fierce struggle for existence that greets him on the outside.

Any other group reared in such an environment shares the same fate. It is not strange if they fail. It would be strange if they did not fail. If this be treason, make the most of it.

I think the blind everywhere ought to adopt as their watchword, "Let there be light." That is the first recorded utterance of the Most High and that has been the watchword of advancing civilization from that ancient hour until now. Civilized man ought not to suffer from preventable evils. Civilized man ought not to die of preventable diseases, ought not to suffer from preventable diseases. The time will come when such a thing will be looked upon as a relic of a darker day.

Blindness, when it happens to those who do not know, is a tragedy. When preventable blindness happens among those who do know, it is a crime. Let us conquer that crime at least. Let us prevent preventable darkness.

My friends, my foreign friends, while you are in this country, we want you to have everything on earth that you want, and

more, too, if you want it, and I rather think you do. While here, we wish you to enjoy our hospitality and when you go your way, we wish you to carry with you pleasing memories of the days that were spent in our midst.

In parting, let me say that while the goldenrod may be made our national flower, we wish, before you leave, to plant within the garden of your hearts an unfading forget-me-not. I thank you.

RESPONSES TO ADDRESSES OF WELCOME

*Response by IAN FRASER, Chairman, St. Dunstan's
Executive Council, London, England*

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:

May I say that those of us who came visiting from across the sea appreciate not only the generosity which has made the visit of so many delegates from Europe possible, but the felicitous terms in which various speakers have referred to our presence here tonight? May I say in particular how greatly we appreciate the concise and able review of the development which has taken place in work for the blind which Mr. Migel himself gave us the benefit of hearing earlier this evening?

We came to the United States expecting to find magnificent material works. Some of us, I think, who have long become accustomed to forgetting that we have anything to regret, felt a pang of regret as we entered your fine harbor and were unable to see for ourselves the Statue of Liberty standing there guarding the gates of your first city. We came expecting to find great material constructions and a great noise and while we have not seen the one, we have assuredly heard the other. We came, knowing that no people could have developed so marvelous a country as you have developed unless they had something greater than the material outlook which is so often attributed to them, and in the few hours that we have been here, it has been made manifest to us that American people not only have clear heads, but great hearts.

Some thirty or forty nations came to this Conference. Happily for us, a great many of them speak English, for we English people are not very good at speaking other people's languages. I myself have had the pleasure of meeting many of the delegates from other countries and we have found in a halting word of French from me and a perfect word of English from them, how foolish it is for Englishmen even to try to learn other people's languages.

Most nations have irritating habits. I know we have and I fancy you have, too. Irritating habits among nations are like evil bacilli which infect men's bodies and cause disease and trouble and death. But nothing brings immunity from the effects of bacilli so quickly as contact in small doses with those very germs, and it is possible that the conferences which we hold upon a variety of subjects—technical, economic and sociological—may

be the means of rubbing off the rough corners which are on most of us, and of causing each of us respectively to acquire immunity against the other's irritable tendencies. If that be so—and I believe it to be so—then we may claim that this Conference, apart from its main work of caring for the blind throughout the world, may do a little towards taking us further upon the road of international understanding.

The delegates assembled here will have as their task the consideration of a hundred and one subjects, but it seems to me that two of them stand out as being of more than ordinary importance. One is of more particular interest to the English-speaking peoples—I mean those who speak English as their primary language. Those peoples number such a considerable part of the blind world that those who represent the European nations will forgive me if I devote just two words to a problem that touches primarily the English-speaking peoples.

That has already been briefly mentioned by your Chairman when he spoke of the efforts that were made many years ago to bring about some kind of a universal type. In my judgment, it is foolish for two great nations with a common stock of literature, a common tradition, and if I may say so, a common history up to at any rate a very large part of the history of mankind, and speaking very nearly the same language, should read their braille with their fingers in such a way that the reading of English braille in America causes Americans irritation, which is only matched by the irritation with which English people read American braille. We must rub away those corners. We must see if it is not possible to double the number of books which may be made available for the blind, and it is my belief that a little common sense and a little give and take on both sides of the Atlantic may bring about a uniform type which will be of very great benefit to the blind.

May I, as an inexperienced braille reader, one who reads it with some displeasure and at slow speed, who reads it only because sometimes he is alone and is compelled to do so, say that I believe this is a problem which should be dealt with by people who are not too expert, lest the experts who may be so near it cannot see the rest? It seems to me that a wider view is needed than that which has been taken hitherto, and I hope that the persons present at this Conference who have been gathered together not because they are experts so much as because they are persons holding wide, and exercising wide, responsibilities in a variety of spheres, may possibly be so fortunate as to come to a more successful conclu-

sion which we may recommend to our several organizations in America and England.

The other great subject before the Conference, about which I wish to say one word, is the International Council which we hope will eventually follow the termination of this Conference. It would seem a pity if all the effort which has been made, the generous welcome which you have given us, the substantial sacrifice which the American people have made of money and time and thought to bring about this great gathering, were to fade away into history without some more tangible result than what we call in England a "blue book." A "blue book" is a large volume produced by government departments which I fancy nobody reads. It would be a pity if this Conference were to end in a "blue book." We must make the Conference end in something more valuable, more real, something living, and the expression of the wish of this Conference which I should like to see, and which my British friends would like to see, is some kind of International Council such as that to which reference has been made.

I hope that out of the ashes of this Conference may arise such a Council which will in its turn do a very great deal of good towards the blind in our countries as well as those blind who are not yet adequately cared for in many other backward countries.

My last sentiment is to say one word as a representative of the British Empire, for at this Conference I represent not merely the British Government and British voluntary agencies for the blind, but the King's Dominions and India. All those nations which go to make up our commonwealth of nations have so much appreciated your invitation that they have sent their delegates from the seven seas and the ends of the earth to be here this day, and if there can be imagined a message which the blind people throughout the Empire would have wished to be delivered from them this night, it would be the wish that this Conference may go forward to very great success in its deliberations, and that we may so shape our ends in our talks during the next few days that destiny may provide this Conference with fruitful results which will not merely be remembered by those who have come, but may perhaps be the foundation stone upon which those who come after us may build.

*Response by ALRIK LUNDBERG, President,
De Blindas Förening, Stockholm, Sweden*

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen, Honored Listeners:

By reason of the doubtful privilege that I enjoy of being the oldest foreign delegate attending this Conference, the great honor devolves upon me of saying a few words at this opening ceremony on behalf of my fellow delegates in reply to the noble and eloquent addresses of welcome delivered by prominent and distinguished personalities of the American community, addresses of welcome couched in the most hearty terms, and manifestly inspired by feelings of friendship and sympathy towards us of the most heartfelt character.

When we received the summons from President Hoover to meet together at this first World Conference on Work for the Blind, it seemed to us like a clarion call urging us to further work to renew our efforts on a wider basis than heretofore. Consequently, it was with great satisfaction and joy that we set about to make eager response that we were most willing to come. However, that we find ourselves here today is in a large measure, if not entirely, due to the benevolence and hospitality extended towards us by various American authorities, corporations and institutions.

Let me name first the three big A's. The American Foundation for the Blind, the American Association of Workers for the Blind, the American Association of Instructors of the Blind, not forgetting the open-handed liberality of a true friend to the blind and promoter of their welfare, Mr. William Nelson Cromwell.

The problem of the Conference is a very extensive one, ranging as it does from psychological and educational matters on the one hand to practical, professional and industrial topics on the other, and embracing, also—I emphasize it—the all-important question of the granting of state pensions to the blind. This question is very much to the fore in almost all countries at the present time.

It is no exaggeration that any one of the items mentioned would in itself suffice to occupy the attention of the Conference exclusively. Nevertheless, your Organizing Committee has gone still further in widening and deepening the scope of a small conference altogether beyond the limits of those that have been held in days gone by, realizing that the results of a Conference such as this would be enhanced if the theoretical discussions and deliberations were enhanced by demonstrations of a practical nature.

They have planned for us a number of excursions to various institutions scattered about the state, to the end that we may study what is going forward and carried on there. The Committee has added this very striking feature, which in my experience in Conferences on Work for the Blind, extending over several decades, is absolutely unique. We are confidently anticipating that we shall derive from it much helpful and inspiring benefit. America harbors a number of fine, well-endowed institutions, excellent in every respect. Mr. Chairman, we shall endeavor to make the utmost use of the excellent opportunities afforded us of seeing what is being done here in the field of activity, and to manifest our gratitude in the most real and expressive way for your most kind addresses of welcome and for all that lies behind and is implicated in your magnanimous invitation to us.

At this point, I might bring my remarks to a close, but I hope, Mr. Chairman, you will not be provoked at this spokesman of your guests when he proceeds to remark that within the heart of each one of us delegates there are two objectives, one of acquiring experience, always keen and on the alert to get ideas as to new methods of improving the conditions under which the blind live; and the other that they are eager and desirous to obtain as far as possible in the limited time at their disposal an insight into the life of a country new to many and a knowledge of a people of whom we have heard so much.

Many of us are here in this country for the first time in our lives, but though we have never until now trod on American soil, we have all of us in our childhood dreamed of becoming freemen of the land through the enchanting tales of James Fenimore Cooper, whose heroes in *The Last of the Mohicans* and the rest, we made our idols. We learned to admire, too, the genius and organizing skill that you have so abundantly created in these wonderful and estimable times for promoting the welfare and prosperity of the human race. We have now come to what has been the fairy land of our imaginations, the sight of which has been dreamt about, and often longed for. We now, figuratively speaking, most warmly embrace you all who have so spontaneously opened your arms to us.

We find ourselves assembled from different parts of the globe, having proceeded hitherward across the oceans from Japan, South Africa and Australia—in short, from East, West, North and South, to the land that gave birth to Washington, to Franklin, to Longfellow and to Emerson—the homeland of Edison and also, to be sure, of Henry Ford. He can perhaps instruct us while

we are here in the rudiments of the art of getting rich. Moreover, was it not here that our great friend Francis Campbell was born?

Then again, this is the native country of her we have heard just now, that wonder of wonders, Helen Keller, our pride and our envy, the uncrowned queen of the realm of the sightless, so radiant with the beauty of serene sublimity. Helen Keller! That sweet and tender blossom on the mighty giant tree of American moral and intellectual culture!

We have been drawn hither by many enticing anticipations, but we have come, first and foremost, it need hardly be said, with the earnest desire to enter into a full co-operation with our energetic fellow workers in this country who are embarked on this same laudable voyage of discovery as we are, all of which is the attainment of the greatest amount possible of moral, intellectual, social and economic well-being for as many as can be of our blind brothers and sisters all over the world.

I appeal to my co-workers in every country to adopt and make attainable the golden watchword, "Let there be light in the darkness."

Response by AURELIO NICOLODI, Director, Istituto, Nazionale per Ciechi Adulti, R. Scuola Professionale, Florence; President, Unione Italiane dei Ciechi, Italy

The hospitable invitation of the Government of the United States was received by the blind of Italy with the most cordial and acclaiming response. The influence of the new civilization here, especially felt in its toiling whirl even by those who cannot grasp its external aspects, today exerts a force on the sodality of the blind throughout the world, who, after centuries of material and moral darkness, become sharers in the life of the world.

The Fascist Government and its leader, Benito Mussolini, have done a great deal for the solution of the problems with which the blind of Italy have occupied themselves for years and years under former governments. The contribution of ideas and subjective experiences which the blind of Italy brought to the solution of such problems has been fully accepted and their suggestions, to a large extent, have been carried into effect by the Fascist Government.

The Fascist Government, which is following with special interest the work of the Congress, is directly represented by a government official from the Ministry of National Education,

Dr. Gino Chiaramonte, and by Comm. Oreste Poggiolini, President of the National Federation for the Instruction of the Blind, who represents the young Minister of Corporations, His Excellency Giuseppe Bettai. The latter has, in Italy, under the guidance of the Head of the Government, the gigantic task of organizing all the living forces of the nation. He is a great and tested friend of the blind and has sent to this great Congress the following message which I am pleased to convey to you:

"I am glad to be present in spirit at your great gathering and to express my profound sympathy.

"The institutions for the blind, scattered in every part of the civilized world, have written glorious pages in the last few years by means of systems of professional organization which do honor to science and to human solidarity. By means of their most noble work, an immense phalanx of handicapped individuals has been snatched from the darkness of life and of hope, thus proving that the most painful mutilation is not so much that which deprives the eyes of the glory of the sun, but that which takes away from the soul the light of the spirit as a comfort and ideal to be attained.

"The merit of having removed the problem of the blind from the field of charity, often barren, nearly always inadequate, and of having given it a pre-eminently educational character, imposing it as a social duty, belongs to these institutions. The accomplishments attained in the field of school and work, in spite of numerous subjective difficulties, of environment and of organization, constitute a great victory of civilization.

"The Fascist Government claims for itself the merit of having given the blind the full rights of citizenship in private life and in that of the nation, both by legislation, which is typical, and by co-ordinating the aims of the various institutions in an organized program of renaissance.

"With the certainty that the greatest success will mark your efforts, I present my respects to the great and majestic city which is your host, and I warmly greet in you all those who have ennobled their misfortune and raised humanity by their work."

What the work of the Italian Government has been and is you will learn from the reports presented before this conference by Professor Augusto Romagnoli and myself, and by the special publications we have brought with us.

I shall now add only a few words to tell you that the Italian delegation has determined to collaborate in a brotherly way with you, to listen and to observe carefully all that which you have accomplished in this special field, and to speak in the briefest limits of time on those subjects in which the delegation feels it can sound a new and original note.

We shall then be glad if, from the discussion of a subject limited and relative though it be, there should result reasons for a new and greater sympathy and friendship for our country.

As Chairman of the Italian delegation and President of the organization which brings together all the blind of Italy under the spiritual guidance of Carlo Delcroix, and which, promoted and directed by the war-blind, has fused in the deepest spirit of human solidarity the ideals which every blind person has felt alone in his own heart, I am happy to bring to the great American people, to their enlightened government, to the praiseworthy Organizing Committee and to all the representatives of the nations here assembled, the most cordial greetings and best wishes.

SECTION 2
EDUCATION

April 14, 1931

PSYCHOLOGICAL PROBLEMS OF THE PRE-SCHOOL BLIND CHILD

SIEGFRIED ALTMANN

*Director, Israelitische Blinden-Institut,
Vienna, Austria*

The results of man's investigations are always two-fold. The further he advances, the more he enriches the domain of knowledge; but the more numerous, also, are the problems of uninvestigated things which result. Therefore, one has to have double insight in order to observe and make use of what is known and to explain and solve what is not yet known.

In so far as is possible in this limited space, I shall try to bring to light some of the most elementary points on the psychology of the blind child (a subject which still lies in the twilight of work for the blind) and to present the necessary basis for a discussion.

Up to the present time, conclusions about the blind child have been drawn, in general, merely from observations—mostly superficial, by the way—of the blind school child or even of the adult blind. These conclusions are nothing but information carried over and thus, naturally, have all the shortcomings and all the uncertainty of a mere interpretation. Generalization instead of individual research has caused a neglect of problems which in general child psychology have been under consideration for a long time—problems that are obvious. They will be taken up here without any pretense that the chosen path to be pursued has the desired perfection of method.

The psychology of the blind has yet to discover, for instance, that the blind child is not a miniature of the blind adult, but that he has his own life and obeys his own laws. This has long been known concerning the seeing child. The experience of a child differs from that of an adult in respect to its growth and knowledge; the standards of the child are not merely simplifications of those of the adult. The laws in accordance with which the child develops are different from those of the life and behavior of the adult. Precisely by this development as well as by the unfolding of his natural abilities and by the laws in accordance with which this takes place, as well as by its environment, the nature of the child can be understood.

The mental development of the blind child depends upon that which is given to him physically at birth and, further, upon that

process which can be termed "growth." We know now that it is an abstraction to talk about mental *or* physical development, since both proceed by mutual influence; that body and soul are not two separate worlds; that all physical work is at the same time mental, and all mental work is also physical. Physical health is the principal condition by which the blind child can reach the highest degree of development. For every neglect in the development of the body, the penalty is paid by some corresponding form of lesser mental development in the same way as if some primary mental need had been neglected. This is recognized by every teacher of the blind through his experience with his own pupils. The investigations of Lazarsfeld¹ have shown that school children, even six or seven years of age, are hardly yet in a position to master their physical weakness and accomplish independent mental work. This is a fact which, in an even higher degree, fits the case of the pre-school child, as shown by an analysis of Terman's work.² Only from the eighth year on do self-discipline and will-power seem to be developed to such an extent that physical weakness, in the sense of Adler's *individualpsychologie*, can be compensated for by achievements of higher value in the mental field.

After these general preliminary remarks we will proceed to the main problem.

In the beginning of life every new-born child, including the blind, is a creature shut up within himself, who lives passively secluded in himself, who turns only very gradually and by slow degrees to the world of objects and becomes aware of it through his sense powers.³ As soon as definite relations with the outer world have been established, the child becomes "active"; his mental development commences. From this moment, e. g., the first quarter of the first year, oral and written advice concerning the rearing of the blind child are necessary to insure his proper treatment by his parents. Special homes are not recommended because the influence of family environment yields values which cannot be replaced in any other way; for the family is not only the biological embryonic cell of humanity—it is also the ethical and social cell within society. It is clear, therefore, that whatever is substituted for the family can replace it only inadequately. Even in the average working-class family, as exhaustive studies have shown, a child of this age develops much better at home than in the best institution in which he seemingly has incomparably better conditions of life, as far as cleanliness, tidiness, ventilation,

¹ Hetzer. *Kindheit und Armut*. Hirzel, Leipzig, 1929.

² *Studies of Genius I.*, 1925.

³ Bühler, Charlotte. *Kindheit und Jugend*. Hirzel, Leipzig, 1930.

etc., are concerned.¹ As the investigations in Vienna have shown, the retardation of the year-old institutional child, in comparison with the child within the family, amounts to three or four months, a very important amount of time at that age. It would seem that *in spite of all efforts*, nothing can replace what the daily life within the family naturally affords the child in the way of indispensable stimuli and of emotional values. Life is not merely a development of one's natural disposition; it is also an assimilation of external events which we make our own and out of which we build for ourselves the external world we need. It is more important to the blind than to the seeing child that his educators shape the physical world around him in accordance with his needs for he is much less in a position to reach out to these stimuli which are so essential to his development. In the blind child this deficiency in finding stimuli for himself shows itself clearly for the first time at the age when the seeing child would first begin to "take notice." No equivalents of these stimuli have been discovered, as yet, for the blind child. We do not know how to compensate, at this period of life, for the deficiencies in stimulation to action which sight would afford. That this deficiency is manifested in the form of displeasure and boredom has been proved by observation of seeing children who have been temporarily deprived of the possibility of looking about—an occupation to which the child of four months devotes many hours of the day. It is probable that in this early period are to be found the roots of the *passivity* of the blind child—something I shall say more about later. Lack of stimuli (which is here decidedly the case) unquestionably results in inactivity in the infant. The foundation is thereby laid, not only for general passivity, but also for the most essential difference between the blind and the seeing child.

The comprehension of spatial relations, which can be observed in the localization of sound and in the formation of a connection between seeing and hearing, is lacking in the blind child. It will be reserved for a future study to determine whether it is necessary to introduce compensatory educational measures at this stage and, in order to develop a more decided attitude in non-seeing persons and stimulate the auditory and tactual responses on which those fundamental functions are dependent for the building up of mental complexes which otherwise would depend on visual impressions. In each case one must, on the one hand, lay special stress on the fact that the blind child

¹ Hetzer, H. *Seelische Hygiene—Lebenstüchtige Kinder*. Verlag Kleine Kinder, Dresden, 2 Aufl. 1931.

should have complete freedom of movement while, on the other hand, one must devote more attention to him than to the seeing child, by talking to him and giving him auditory sensations, by carrying him around and otherwise touching him in order to give him tactual and spatial sensations which he cannot by his own initiative create for himself. It would be valuable, even at this age, to give the blind infant an opportunity to come in contact with different objects, by moving his hands, so that he can feel them although he still cannot grasp them. We will pay full attention to the important process of grasping when the child reaches the so-called "grasping age" about five months. In respect to grasping, the blind infant is much more in need of help from others than the seeing child, for he cannot discover what there is to be grasped as he could if guided by the eye. Therefore, there must be constantly put into his hands objects which differ as far as possible in weight, form and surface structure. It is of the greatest importance that he get as many experiences of this kind as possible. Through them he discovers the special sense which will be the deciding factor in his comprehension of his world. For the missing tactual-optical sensations are substituted tactual-motor impressions, which the hands supply. Everything must be felt, touched, and thus comprehended as space content. Sufficient experience of this sort at this early age will prevent later uncertainty in problems of space.

In order to develop the relationship between the ear and the hand, the auditory sensations, which during this period of comprehension of space have remained isolated (we will not speak of the insignificant experience in the neighborhood of the mouth) should now be utilized by giving the blind infant experience with sound-making objects. Measures of this type establish a basis for the comprehension of the world, promote the development of space perception and prevent the appearance of a passivity which is an impediment to mental growth.

The requirement of *freedom of movement*, which has been mentioned before, becomes especially important when the blind child begins to move around in order to conquer the outer world in wider measure than it was possible for him to do by reaching out with a grasping hand. In this process of conquering the world, all inhibitions due to false fear and timidity should be avoided. The blind child must now learn to move about in the world and overcome its dangers. By helping the blind person to become master of his body at this early age, the basis for his independence is laid, and thus his

self-reliance greatly increased. As suggested by Watson¹, we might create artificial impediments to the movements of the blind child in order to enlarge the scope of his experience; for at this pre-language age, disregarding the auditory impressions, he can experience only what he holds in his hand and what he measures spatially, and his store of experience gained by this spatial measurement is extraordinarily small, since he can still move about comparatively little. Let us compare (and the difference will be fully grasped) what a ride in a baby-carriage offers to the seeing child and to the blind. For the latter the principal sensations will probably be those of being moved, shaken and pushed.

Like the preceding questions, those which follow can be sketched only briefly here. Their purpose is to stimulate a close approach to problems of the psychology of the blind child by means of exact investigations in a field where systematic experiments are as yet unknown. As to the cultivation of speech, strict standards should already have been established by the end of the first year. Through the development of language, order is first introduced into the mental life of the child. It is now known that understanding expressions and gestures, seeing the difference between an angry and a friendly face, are preliminary stages in the understanding of language, and that the child whose experience in this direction is inadequate will be late in learning to comprehend language. In the case of blind children, the understanding of gestures and facial expressions is limited to a grasp of the audible movements. It is necessary to supplement these with tactual sensations; for instance, touching the child when calling him. The expressive movements of the face, which are of such great importance to the seeing, the blind person will learn much later, if ever, and even then, we may say, in a roundabout way; for instance, when he finds himself in a correspondingly emotional situation he has sensations of excitement and feels the violent rush of blood to the face—an experience which is unknown to a child at that age.

Even when the child begins to talk he needs constant stimulation, for he learns only through contact with people. What the proper cultivation of speech can accomplish can be seen, for instance, by a comparison of seeing children who have had care in this respect with those who grew up without it. While the former, at the age of two, have at their disposal

¹ Watson, John B. *Psychological Care of the Infant and Child*. 1928.

a vocabulary of more than two hundred words, the others, on the average, know scarcely twenty or thirty. The danger of insufficient cultivation of speech in the blind child, whose passivity has already been pointed out, seems to be very great. He lacks all those stimulations to talk which the seeing child gets through the eye. What is open to the latter through direct experience of life represents for the blind child a loss which can be lessened only by means of speech—and even then in an imperfect way. Another means of education, which at this age attains great significance for the seeing child and which the blind child lacks, is the picture-book. Stimuli of equal value, and a certain receptive attitude which the seeing child gains through them must be given the blind child in a different way. This should not be done by sticking closely to the idea of the picture-book and by trying to find a more or less corresponding substitute as, for instance, embossed illustrations, but by attempting to enter into the experience of the blind child where one, because of one's earlier observation of the seeing child, can pick up those stimulations which are appropriate to the blind child.

Here naturally the thing to do is to make use of the senses of touch and hearing. It is known that about the middle of the second year the child becomes extraordinarily responsive to musical impressions. These sensations should be supplied to the blind child often and in different ways. From the end of the first year on, he should be given opportunity to take part in making rhythms, which will interest him greatly. For the first time, the auditory field can here give the blind child an occasion to manipulate materials productively, so to speak, by enabling him to produce noise with any kind of toy. Noise-making is an activity greatly favored by the seeing child of fifteen months¹. For the blind child it is, perhaps, absolutely necessary. Any play material that achieves this end is desirable. The handling of these objects may be combined with the exercise of the imitative abilities of the child which seem to have been greatly neglected during the first year; for, as is known, the first imitations of a child of three months are those of facial mimicry, to which later on those of simple movements are added. Without the medium of the eye it is naturally hard to grasp what others are showing you; nevertheless, imitative manipulation of material is possible in the case of infants of one year. How-

¹ Hetzer. *Kind und Schaffen*. Fischer. Jena, 1930.

ever, we shall consider whether the encouragement of the imitative abilities could not have already been successfully begun during the first year by stimulating and cultivating, to a large extent, the imitation of sounds of which the child is capable and which he produces in the form of self-imitation of his own babbling. The same could be carried over to simpler movements which the child in his self-imitation repeatedly makes. To what has been said before relative to systematic exercises, we shall add that the question naturally is not one of teaching or instructing the child, but of a most thorough consideration of his responsiveness to suggestions. The whole care of the child at this period must be aimed at providing him with the proper conditions of life and making available for him stimuli which he needs.

In his book *De Anima*, Aristotle calls the hand "the organ of all organs." If anywhere at all, it is in the case of the blind child that one perceives the hand to be a complex organ which becomes a medium for creation and for expression of the inner soul. We see this use of the hand in the blind, as in the seeing child in his play when he grasps, shapes, or conquers space; and when the child begins to build creatively we see the hand in its highest rôle as the liberating organ of the soul—all this only in such measure as can be appreciated when one clearly comprehends how far the establishment of man's relation with the external world is dependent on the hand. Every teacher of the blind knows from experience that certain forms of mental limitation can be overcome by training the hands; while the importance of the manual functions for the release of all other mental activities is generally known.¹ These manual functions bring about the liberation of the mind and the development of the personality. The psychological understanding of the functions of the hand, the necessity of developing the hands of the blind child functionally for the sake of his mental balance, is a subject for an investigation which should be made as soon as possible. An investigation should also be made of the hand as a working organ of the blind, and also a study to determine the relation of the hand to the highest mental accomplishments—memory, attention, will, intelligence.

The development of the hand must be begun in the first year, as soon as one allows the child freedom of movement, makes tactual impressions available to him and provides him

¹ Giese. *Kinderpsychologie*. Reinhardt. München.

with an abundance of play material which he can grasp. At the end of the first year the child must be given opportunity to establish relationships between objects in his play, to put one object into another, connect one object with another—activities through which the first tendencies to intelligent behavior become apparent. To stimulate the development of so-called “tool concepts” (*Werkzeuggedanken*)—this first comprehension of a relationship between objects—we must take special pains with the blind child. From Köhler’s and Yerkes’ experiments with monkeys we know that the human infant, as well as the animal, first learns to understand the relationship between objects by observing them simultaneously. The blind infant must be given systematic direction while touching the groups of objects, while the seeing child discovers them, in most cases, by himself. With the latter, it is usually sufficient to leave him to himself after the material has been arranged for him.

As soon as the child begins to arrange building blocks in the box, pulls the toy animal to him by its string, or accomplishes something else, the hand ceases to be merely an instrument of manipulation and becomes, instead, a tool of the intellect. The stage at which the child merely handles the given material at random may last longer in the case of the blind; for, on the one hand, he depends much more on manipulation and it takes more time for the “touching hand” to do the work which the eye accomplishes almost at a glance, while, on the other hand, the transition from the aimlessly searching stage to that of producing something from some material, be it clay, sand, blocks, etc., is often connected with the child’s leaving behind him the process of manipulation. This is much more difficult when the hand and the eye do not co-operate in the handling and contemplation of objects and the hand is also the organ of reception.

Here the educator must again help the blind child to discover the opportunities for activity thus afforded, a discovery which the seeing child makes by himself. Sufficient material to handle in various ways should be placed at the disposal of the blind child and, time and time again, his attention should be called to these objects—a significant point which, in the case of the seeing child, is entirely superfluous. According to an investigation, 80 per cent of a group of three-year-old seeing children were able to secure for themselves play materials of some kind when their surroundings

offered them no blocks for play. The release of such independence and activity would be possible only among a very small percentage of blind children; for them, the world whence they can secure material is a very narrow one. Even if they worked up enough courage and agility for independent wanderings, in the same way as seeing children of four or five years sometimes wander in the courtyard, garden and street, the anxiety of those surrounding a blind child would prohibit it.

It is the task of the educator to allow the child to play at will with his material, and yet to know when to break this rule (which in the case of the seeing child is practically never broken) in order to help the blind child when he needs such assistance. This help is necessary also when the blind child is bored by the monotony of the material and throws it aside, because in this boredom lurks the danger that the child will wait inactively without any toys. An important point should be added here; in all his activities and training the "play" element must be at all costs preserved. We should supply the blind infant with plenty of material of various kinds and let him handle it in the appropriate manner. We must beware however, of useless exercising of the hands which develops only manipulatory skill, as is likely to happen with the use of the Montessori material. The disadvantage of an incomplete understanding of objects, the all too exclusive claim on one organ alone, can be obviated by the use of material which gives complete experiences.

Another form of productive activity which should be cultivated in order to lessen the passivity of the blind child is the childish dramatization which makes up 75 per cent of the games of seeing children at the age of three or four years. Acting games prepare the child for the practical situations of life, and provide accurate check-ups on his ideas of space and the direction of his imagination. About this last, a word will be said later. The special significance of the play-acting game lies in the encouragement of a productive development of the imaginative concepts, as here, in addition to the physical participation in the imitative activity, language too functions as excellent creative material.

I should like to put in another word about the freedom which should be given to the child in all these activities. It has been pointed out that the effective way to instruct the blind child up to about the third year of life, is to demonstrate the activity to him, show him how it is done and wait quietly

to see whether he is ready to imitate; further, to place the material in readiness but not order him to occupy himself with it. Later, a moderate amount of instruction and systematic direction, such as repetition, are acceptable as methods. Gradually these practices will be carried on more intensively. About the close of the fourth year, when the child has completed his first development from nothing to the beginning of everything and when the frame of his mental capacities is ready for content, it is then time for the trained educator to step in and advisable, therefore, for the blind child to enter a kindergarten. At first, it is best to place him there for only a few hours of the day. As there are many technical difficulties connected with this supplementary educational measure, the blind child is better off in a special institution.

Parenthetically, let me say this: Every residential educational institution for the blind should make a point of working against "institutionalism."¹ Some day a special word should be said about the disadvantages of living continually in one community and how it hinders individual development. If, during the child's entire period of growth, he has always been among other children he is certain to have a different personality from that of the child who has never known the freedom of family life.

The entrance of the blind child into an institution about the close of his fourth year should be advocated. At this period, as a rule, the early age of stubbornness has passed, the manifestations of which would often be unfavorably influenced by the change of environment. A thorough study is needed to determine definitely how far this age of conflict, characteristic with the seeing child, also appears in the blind child. One might well suppose that the passivity of the latter would prevent the appearance of this necessary stage in the growth of the child, and thus seriously interfere with the normal development of his will-power. The training of the blind child in the kindergarten is, above all, indispensable for his *social development*. Up to this time, he has very often been the spoiled center of the family; now, he learns to adjust himself in a community and to know and find normal contacts with other children. The consideration that the children might live only as members of a group assembled around the kindergarten teacher must be taken into account. The danger

¹ Kniese. *Psychologische Leistungsprüfungen. Jen. Beitr.*, Heft 3, 1927.
 Stenguiist-Thorndike. *The Intellectual Status of Children Who Are Public Charges. Arch. of Psych.*, 33, 1915.
 Wallin, Wallace. *The Education of Handicapped Children*. London, 1930.

of individual isolation from his companions is much greater for the blind child than for the seeing.

The education of the blind child together with seeing children of the same age does not seem desirable at the kindergarten age because pre-school children can hardly be expected to understand the difference in a playmate, not to mention being able to put themselves in his place. The problem of proper education of the blind, of an *education of the blind which is of value to them*, is the problem of the *psychology of the blind child*. Only through the development of this field which is still lacking in its main outlines, can we chart a course for the guidance of the kindergarten for blind children.

The principles which up to now have been followed have been deduced from general kindergarten work and are therefore not scientifically adapted to the needs of the blind. Taking into consideration the various factors which have been mentioned, we arrive at the following conclusions regarding *kindergarten work for the blind*. It must afford a dwelling-place which in itself influences the blind child, awakening, freeing and stimulating him. The day's program should grow unrestrainedly from, and according to the needs of community life, from the necessary daily work in the house and its surroundings, from parties and the preparation for them. The beginning and the end of the work should be determined by the child, and it should never make too great demands upon his strength, either in regard to its duration or its character. Mutual co-operation among the children should be encouraged but whatever each one can do and produce himself should be accomplished without anyone's interference, for independent activity leads to independence, and to create something of worth means to create moral and mental worthiness.

The central ideas in a kindergarten for blind children should be play and work, which lead to the development of the hand and to creative activity, and which should be carried on freely, in accordance with the laws of development of the inner life of the child, though not as freely as with the seeing child. Stimulations to work and play are, above all, the result of contact with people and nature, and also of spatial surroundings, play materials and means of activity of various kinds. These possibilities for work should serve as stimuli to activity of the productive and creative forces, although their suitability and value have not yet been tested. Children's rhymes and stories will play a particularly significant part, a part that will be shared also by musical and rhythmical impressions. These latter may also afford aesthetic experiences.

Work and play properly directed and properly carried out will help to correlate closely the tactual and auditory perceptions and will thus prevent that over-stimulation of the imagination, which, if there is no check with reality, often results from the predominance of auditory perceptions and hinders the gaining of factual knowledge. Images supply the material for the products of fancy. The imagination of the blind child flows more freely, for his conception of the relation between fancy and reality is inadequate. Exercises in localization contribute in the greatest degree, however, to an understanding of reality and to a differentiation between illusions which have no reality and improvisations based on reality. The ability and skill which are developed through these exercises are worthy of the greatest attention because the extent and certainty of most of the future accomplishments of the blind person depend upon the nature and degree of this development. During the whole educational period we should interfere only to assist and regulate, never to anticipate the development, which will take its natural course.

From the stage where the child has only a play relation to the material which he handles functionally, he changes, at about the time of entrance into school, to the stage of productive work, of "work consciousness," and, in that way, to an objective attitude towards work and duty. This adjustment takes place without the influence of criticism and is based only on the maturing process of the independent handling of materials. It follows from the important step from the subjective to the objective, which is accompanied by a definite change in the social attitude and mental life of the blind child.

Here we come to the problems of the psychology of the blind school child whose mental development is not retarded. When observing how he deals with the situations and tasks which he meets in life we note a discrepancy between efforts and results. We recognize a marked disproportion between the blind child's mental potentialities for activity, and the scope for the proper use of his mental powers, which, owing to his dependence upon others, is extremely limited.¹ The fundamental tension produced in the mental life of the blind by the contrast between his mental and spiritual completeness and his physical dependency is naturally not without outward consequences. It is unfortunate that all his education does not hold for him that which was promised; that the outlay in effort, time, money, happiness, and in his parents' care for him, seems to bring insufficient returns. We should like

¹ Steinberg. *Hauptprobleme der Blindenpsychologie*. Marburg-Lahn, 1927.

to build more securely and, at the same time, to discover a valid way in which the blind, in spite of their peculiar psychological development, might take their place among the seeing. For all this, we feel the need of a *legitimate foundation: the scientific foundation of the psychology of the blind child*—the knowledge of his periodical development, both in individual cases and also generally, through the various stages of childhood, and of the inherent laws by which this development takes place. This knowledge is essential for a safe analysis and understanding of the practical work of the education of the blind.

I give this paper with the conviction that this way of deriving a new method of instruction of the blind child, of influencing favorably his vocational training, is not only very promising, but has a great many surprises in store. I also hope to gain recognition for the importance of both a psychological foundation and a positive basis for it.

In order to gain as much recognition as possible for the importance of this foundation and to offer a definite basis for its main outlines, I have presented this paper in the conviction that out of the psychology of the blind child we shall be able to find a new method of instruction of the blind child and to bring a valuable influence upon his vocational training. This course is not only very promising but has a great many unforeseen developments in store.

DISCUSSION

DR. R. S. FRENCH (U. S. A.)¹: I think one of the first things to be noted in any discussion of the psychology of the blind, and particularly a discussion of Herr Altmann's paper, is that we Americans have been somewhat overdosed with propaganda, and have had altogether too few facts in the matter of the psychology of the blind, and particularly psychology of the young blind. I think it is very much to their credit that the Germans have the habit of facing facts, and this is pre-eminently brought out in Herr Altmann's paper. Americans who are familiar with the psychology of William James know that there is a distinction between the "tender-minded" and the "tough-minded." The tender-minded are the type of people who prefer propaganda to facts. The tough-minded are those who are not only willing to face facts, but to see them through to the bitter end and accept the consequences.

To me Herr Altmann's paper brings out two points which are of exceedingly great value to those engaged in the education of the young blind. The first, that the experience of the blind is intensive rather than extensive. We have a series of presentations to ear, or hand, or muscle senses, or in other ways, rather than any spreading out of experience into simultaneous

¹ Full names, titles and official connections of speakers will be found on pp. 548 to 552.

experience, and that is simply because of the limitation of the experience of the blind child, and depends on other factors as well.

One of the most important things, it strikes me, in our educational work, is that of synthesizing the blind child's experience into a whole. We know, those of us who see, how important sight is to a synthesizing experience—that is, bringing things together so that we have a really comprehensive education and comprehensive knowledge—and it seems to me that one thing that can be expanded in Herr Altmann's paper is just this point.

There is another point that seems to me particularly important that I do wish to stress. Herr Altmann has mentioned the fact that in the early education of the child it is not particularly to his advantage to have the companionship of seeing children. That goes so strikingly contrary to the average American's opinion that I think it is worth analyzing and discussing. We hold to the theory that the life of the blind child should be in its normal environment—that is to say, what we call normal environment—just as much as possible, and I think on the whole that theory is good; but you blind people know that the average seeing person, inexperienced with the blind, immediately makes a lot of blunders when he tries to lead you or do anything else to help you; in fact, he begins to hinder you almost immediately, and I notice that during the convention the guides who evidently have not had experience, take a blind person and begin pushing him forward, instead of letting him stay behind, and becoming his leader. We do very much the same thing with our little children. Our tendency is to push them into difficulties and give them too many experiences and actually overwhelm them with kindness and very frequently spoil them.

Now since the experience of the blind must be material and intensive rather than extensive, what we need is to learn just what elements of experience are going to be most important to the blind child and present those separately and materially, and not simultaneously. I hope that point goes over, because it strikes me as the most important point in the paper.

Even in later years I think we find that the blind child suffers very, very badly from too much kindness. We have in our California schools a lot of high school boys and girls going to one of the outside schools, the Oakland University High, and I have watched this tendency year after year. There is likely to be a gathering-up of a few devoted companions, instead of the spreading of experience over a large section of society, which, after all, is the most important thing, and there must be, let me reiterate most emphatically, very intelligent direction of effort in order to secure the ends that we must secure, and in order to be intelligent we have got to have facts, and let's have more and more of them.

DR. ERNEST WHITFIELD (GREAT BRITAIN): I feel very diffident in appearing before a conference of experts to make some tentative suggestions on a subject with which I am not altogether familiar.

I was very much interested in Herr Altmann's paper, but I must say a little surprised, because, although his facts were most interesting and instructive with regard to the type of education of the young child, he really holds out a problem—how to find the psychology of the young child. We have realized that in England, and we are at work, at least intending to start work, on the discovery of the psychology of the small child.

Now it seems to me that, as psychology can only really be tackled by introspective methods, ideally it would be the child himself, or herself, who could write treatises on child psychology. That, of course, is impossible;

in the first place, because the child as such is not able to analyze its own experiences, its own feelings; secondly, it has no norm, no experience of the world as it is, to compare its own experiences with, and consequently the child cannot immediately give us what goes on in its own being.

Might I tentatively suggest, therefore, that a possible method of approach would be to get people who have been blind from birth to use introspective methods, and to tell us exactly what they believe they felt as children. We may collect these beliefs and perhaps formulate a number of experiments which we may apply to young children, and perhaps then we can arrive at some results.

Might I just throw out one hint, and that is that there are two tendencies on the whole, two important tendencies, which are in effect antagonistic to one another, but which are very important in the development of every human being. These two tendencies are, on the one hand, one of seeking to work out his own salvation by a method of trial and error, the question of curiosity which enables a person who can see to handle and to get closer knowledge with the things around him. That is, of course, not safe, as Herr Altmann has pointed out, for the small child, and therefore he must be brought into contact with these objects.

The other important tendency is the result of the fear of the unknown, and those who come into contact with the blind, I am afraid, are not altogether conscious of what this fear of the unknown means. The immediate result is that of conservation. We have been acquiring with great travail and with great anguish a certain mode of life, and it is very difficult for us, therefore, to break away from this. So, too, the very small child, although he has acquired too few experiences, has a tendency not to be experimental but to stay where he is. I think we must realize this fear which must darken the life of small infants, and if we bear that in mind, I think we may be able to come to some conclusion as to a possible way to deal with small children.

I only throw out these few suggestions in all humility and only tentatively, but I think unless we tackle the study from these two sides, at least, we shall never be able to come to any conclusion how best to train a child for his later position in life.

HERR ALTMANN: In connection with my paper it is just as though you said: "I was on Ellis Island, therefore I know America." It is extremely difficult to participate in the discussion if one has not gone over the entire material of the paper. There is a misunderstanding here. If it be a question as to whether the blind child should be educated with sighted children, then I am a real American, because my standpoint is that the blind child should be educated with the sighted child. What I have said in my paper is that the blind child, as far as the kindergarten is concerned, should not be educated, or taught in common with sighted children, for the reason that the blind child builds up his world on the basis of different factors. It is a well-understood fact, and of prime importance for the modern teacher of the blind, that he must not refuse to have blind children educated with the sighted. I do not wish to participate in the other parts of the discussion. It is one thing to draw conclusions from a quotation that was made, and quite another to draw those conclusions from the impression one gets from an entire paper.

I believe and I wish that the discussion could be developed further in writing after my paper has been read in the various periodicals and that

the observations which from now on will be made regarding the psychology of the blind child should be extended from Europe to America and in fact everywhere where blind children exist.

DR. FRENCH: Just a word to Herr Altmann with regard to what he seems to have taken as a slight misunderstanding of his paper. I am quite aware that Ellis Island isn't the whole United States, but it is a very interesting introduction. And while I believe that the implication may have appeared that his paper was primarily concerned with the importance of keeping the blind child under definite direction, I did not mean to imply in the least that I thought the paper meant that the blind child was not to have full normal contact with other children. I believe that Herr Altmann believes and that we all believe that the blind child must live in the world of the seeing and that wherever his education comes, it should be harmonized with the education of those with normal vision, and such harmony must be secured.

GENERAL EDUCATION AND SPECIAL TRAINING OF THE YOUNG BLIND FOR A CAREER

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When, as a delegate to the World Conference on Work for the Blind from the National Federation of Patrons' Associations of Institutions for the Deaf-Mutes and the Blind of France (*Fédération Nationale des Associations de Patronage des Institutions de Sourds-Muets et d'Aveugles de France*), I learned that the honorable organizers of this philanthropic undertaking had done me the great honor of asking me to present a study of the General Education and Special Training of the Young Blind for a Career, I asked myself whether, in spite of personal experience gained through long years of teaching, in spite of the warm feeling I have towards all blind people, I really had the proper qualifications to justify the general expectation and the high confidence which has been shown me.

Therefore, assuring them of my very cordial and respectful gratitude, I must say that it is not without a certain apprehension (indeed I might say a very lively fear) that I have accepted this difficult task; for this subject is of primary importance for workers for the blind.

I make my apologies in advance if the value of my contribution is small. I will treat my subject to the best of my ability—simply, honestly and concisely; trying to justify, as far as possible, the honor and confidence which have been shown me.

Formerly the blind man was considered a sort of degenerate or parasite, whom kind-hearted people contented themselves by pitying and by helping to a very limited extent. Today, thanks to Valentin Haüy, that talented innovator, and to Louis Braille, inventor of the marvelous system of writing now used everywhere, it has been proved that the blind can be given successfully a moral, intellectual, artistic and professional education similar to the education of seeing persons. Only the methods differ; daily experience and observation prove this abundantly.

This being granted, let us take, if you please, the blind child just entering school. Let us follow him through his whole period of study, and finally, look at him when, his schooling finished, he is ready to take his place in the world and earn his living.

Our study, which will apply only to those blind from birth or to children who lost their sight before the age of ten or twelve years (both boys and girls), will stress the following points:

1. The importance and necessity of developing the sense of touch and dexterity
2. Intellectual education
3. Musical or artistic training
4. Vocational training

1. IMPORTANCE AND NECESSITY OF DEVELOPING THE SENSE OF TOUCH AND DEXTERITY

The blind child is admitted to a special school at the age of eight. If nursery schools existed he could be taken when five years old. Without doubt it would be regrettable to separate him so early from his mother and to deprive him of the helpful maternal care, but exercises which could be given such a young child would prepare him progressively, and without causing fatigue, for the somewhat hard studies he must undertake later.

✓ Parents do not always realize what a great advantage it would be to a blind child to enter school early. They want to keep him with them always, to pet and spoil him. As M. Pierre Villey, the distinguished Professor of Literature at Caen, says so well in his *Pédagogie des Aveugles*, "The members of the household of a blind child, convinced that he can do nothing because he cannot see, do not require him to make any effort; they wash him, dress him, and even feed him, when seeing children of the same age are doing everything for themselves."

It is important, therefore, as soon as the blind child comes to school, to finish what the family has only begun, and also to correct and complete what the family has not been able to achieve.

First of all, the child must be taught to move properly, to feel with his fingers, and touch with his hands; to become dexterous. He must be given an exact idea of the appearance of things which he needs, or which may interest him; then, but only then, can he be taught the first rudiments of reading and writing in braille.

The essential thing, to quote M. Villey again, is "what the blind call dexterity. This word, in fact, has a great place in their conversations. It is a thing of great importance in their lives.

To call a blind man clumsy often wounds him as much as to tax him with stupidity."

The study of braille should not be forced in the beginning. In our opinion it is much better to have the child give most of his time to physical exercise, and to develop dexterity.

If the blind man, like the seeing one, depends for success on his intelligence and knowledge, his advancement is also, because of certain prejudices, dependent upon his appearance, his carriage and on the thousand little "nothings" which make his movements easy and natural. Consequently, it is advisable, even necessary, to take the child for training as early as possible, when his nature is pliable, when he does not dare to oppose to the comments and instructions of the teacher a passive resistance which some older pupils think a sign of independence—a passive resistance against which the authority of the teacher cannot prevail.

If we find an exceptional tenacity of purpose in those who are blind from birth, it is also shown by their stubbornness and manifestations of wilfulness. As much time as possible, therefore, should be devoted each day to physical education, at least in the beginning.

Moreover, we do not advise putting a young child under the care of an inexperienced teacher. Such a teacher, no doubt, would be very conscientious; but, not knowing enough about the pupil's mentality or the acuteness of his senses of touch and hearing, the teacher with the best intentions might get results diametrically opposed to those he desired.

It is indispensable, therefore, to have a teacher who understands perfectly the psychology of the blind, and the proper methods of teaching them.

Briefly, as an introduction to intellectual training, we propose using the following methods:

(1) *Exercises in direction of movement*: The pupil learns to find his way about the classroom and the school, and becomes familiar with the premises where he is to live.

(2) *Auditory exercises*: The pupil learns to follow a sound he hears; to hunt for an object which falls and rolls on the floor; to follow a classmate by the sound of his footsteps in the classroom or in the school-yard; to recognize the nature of certain objects by their form or the sound they make in falling.

(3) *Exercises in touch and dexterity*: The pupil folds and cuts paper; makes various little objects out of paper; plaits two or three strings in a braid; does a little netting; uses games or puzzles to make his fingers sensitive and agile; and, for diversion,

he can help with some domestic work, such as shelling peas, making beds, or arranging plates and dishes.

(4) *Gymnastics for suppleness*: To assure the correct position in standing, walking or even in simple gestures, the blind child should be supple rather than strong. We wish to spare him any future disagreeable remarks about his carriage, so, as a supplement to gymnastics, he is given a course in deportment, and learns something about dancing and how it is done, so that later, when he goes out into the world he can make not only a good appearance in society but also be able to execute in the required rhythm, the pieces of music requested of him. These gymnastics are kept up during all of his school years.

(5) *Games*: The blind child, even more than his seeing comrade, needs to amuse himself, to run, and to develop his physical strength. He should play.

The teacher will preside over these games, direct them and adapt them to the capacity of the pupils, using as a help, if necessary, the noises made by the frolics of the other pupils.

2. INTELLECTUAL EDUCATION

For intellectual education, pupils must be classified in four divisions: primary, elementary, intermediate and advanced.

Before examining the working out of this instruction, we must state the principle that the teacher, in any class assigned to him, must constantly take into consideration the different abilities of his pupils, which he daily observes, to help them in choosing this or that profession. If necessary, he should ask the advice of the music teacher or a competent foreman of the workshop, in order to avoid, as much as possible, any false steps or bad advice in directing his pupils. Keeping this principle in mind, the courses should be as follows:

(1) *Primary Course*: In this class, which the pupil enters on arriving at the school, he is taught to read and write braille.

Reading is mostly done with the two forefingers, and from the beginning the child should learn to use both hands equally well. The left hand reads half the line; the right hand finishes it while the left hand automatically comes back to the following line and begins to decipher it. Thus, no time is lost. Rapid reading is very important in the instruction of the blind child. To acquire this speed, the pupil should devote several hours each day to reading during his first years in school, and at least one hour while he is in the elementary class. It would be a good thing to continue reading for half an hour a day until he finishes school, if only

to get him to love reading, to desire knowledge and to feel the satisfaction which really literary or scientific work can give him.

Reading aloud together will contribute greatly to attaining speed. It will create competition and give encouragement; for the more advanced pupils will help the others. After a few months, there will be very little difference between the pupils.

Exercises in memorizing should complete the reading lessons.

In writing, the blind child, using a slate and stylus, transcribes his thoughts more slowly than the seeing child. To overcome this difficulty, it would be a good thing to let him use, a little later however, a braille typewriter. Unfortunately, the cost of these machines is prohibitive for most of the blind, and even for the schools. They are so necessary for the future, however, that technicians should try to invent a practical machine, as quiet as possible, with an easy action and, above all, cheap in price. If a blind man can do an average of eight pages, octavo size, per hour with a stylus, he can do three times as many pages without fatigue using a machine. And if he uses contracted braille he can equal, or even exceed, the speed of a seeing stenographer.

(2) *Elementary Course*: The pupil now knows how to read, write and count. The elementary course gives him his first ideas of ethics, the language of his country, spelling, arithmetic, history and geography. Also, he is given a little information about science and the applied arts, presented in the form of lessons about things.

Mental arithmetic is especially important. A blind man cannot use a pencil with which to calculate and he has not always at hand the mathematical slates necessary for even very simple business transactions. Much practice in mental arithmetic, therefore, should be given daily in the beginning of the elementary course,

The lessons should also include exercises in memorizing, gradually becoming more difficult than those of the primary course. By means of these gymnastics of memory, particularly necessary in musical study, the pupil's mental faculties will develop without overtaxing the mind.

(3) *Intermediate Course*: In this course, the pupil will develop the principles, already learned, of grammar; he will learn the derivation of words, spelling, syntax, arithmetic (fractions, metric system, rule of three, interest and discount); and he will also study history, geography and physical and natural science. In France, after four years in school, a blind child of average intelligence can obtain a certificate, marking the end of his primary studies (*certificat d'études*).

The possession of this certificate, it is true, will not perhaps

greatly affect the possibility of earning his living, but this success will increase the blind child's self-confidence, and its possession will make people give him special consideration, as they exaggerate the slight difficulties which he must overcome to put himself on the same footing with the seeing child.

For these first three courses, primary, elementary and intermediary, the duration of classes is as follows:

Primary Course: Six hours, plus one hour of study.

Elementary Course: Five hours and a half, plus one hour of study.

Intermediate Course: Five hours and a half, plus one hour and a half of study.

(4) *Advanced Course*: The advanced course, which has for its purpose the giving of a good literary and scientific training, also advanced arithmetic, geography and general history, nevertheless reduces the number of hours in class: first, to three hours and a half, daily; then, to three; and finally, to two. Reducing the time spent in the classroom gives the pupil time for special courses in music or professional instruction. However, if the pupil wishes to pursue his studies further, in order to take a competitive examination for higher primary instruction, or if he wants to enter a high school or college, he must have more lessons.

We cannot, in this study, speak of the methods by which the blind can get the greatest benefit from secondary or higher education. Indeed, this education can be obtained only by the élite. There is not, to our knowledge, any special school for the blind which gives this secondary or higher education.

3. MUSICAL OR ARTISTIC TRAINING

Since the sense of sight is not indispensable to the development of intelligence, it is not the only task of the teacher to put the blind child on the same intellectual plane as the seeing child. The teacher must also make available to his young pupil a trade or profession which will enable him to earn his living and satisfy, if possible, his tastes and desires.

"The test of what a school is worth," says M. Villey, in his *Pédagogie des Aveugles*, "is the ability of its graduates to manage their affairs in life"; to which we heartily agree.

At the present time, these are the trades which the blind can take up: caning chairs, making brushes, basket-weaving, knitting, netting, book-binding, making wicker cases for bottles, tuning and repairing pianos, operating telephones and last, but not least, music.

We will speak briefly of some of these professions.

Music: Up to the present time, music has given the blind person one of the most promising openings. It is an art, as well as a profession, in which he finds a great satisfaction, if he has talent, and a marvelous way of expressing his thoughts. He takes pride in becoming a player, sometimes an artist courted and applauded by the seeing public.

Therefore, music should take first place among the studies of the blind child. As soon as he comes to the school he should be given, daily, a half-hour piano lesson and a half-hour of solfeggio.

In the elementary course, he will have one hour of piano and one hour of solfeggio; in the intermediate course, two hours of piano, and an hour of solfeggio with singing.

Beginning with the fifth year of school, solfeggio will be replaced by harmony, later by fugue and counterpoint. Study of the organ is also begun in the fifth school year. The child also learns the terms used in interpretation of music and has them fully explained. It would be a good idea to give some instruction in Latin grammar to organists and composers.

Music instruction should be given, as much as possible, by blind teachers. They must not only be fine performers, but must also have a knowledge of theory. Having had to conquer the difficulties inherent in their infirmity, and the mode of notation used, they will be better able to help their pupils to overcome these difficulties.

The appearance of the pupil, whether at the organ, piano or violin, must be very carefully watched. Left to himself, the blind child is apt to let himself go and have nervous movements and awkward mannerisms, which will hinder him in his profession and may provoke unkind criticism in his audience, or even inspire pity, which above all must be avoided.

The constant collaboration of a seeing supervisor is necessary. Both teachers must unite, although with discretion, in making every possible effort so that the pupil may show to the best advantage. The sensitiveness of the blind child, his somewhat exaggerated self-love, should be treated as gently as possible; for, although physically handicapped by loss of sight, he is convinced, and rightly so, that in intelligence, in sensibility and manners, he is perhaps the equal of the seeing.

To complete the musical training of the blind child it is indispensable to have him hear classical music and even to go to concerts and the theater. Use of the perfected phonograph with "pick-up," now made possible through the American Braille Press and its distinguished and devoted Secretary-General at Paris, M. Raverat, will greatly help training along these lines.

These musical auditions are excellent lessons for the child, developing his taste for good music. Teachers will accompany children to these concerts, and in class next day will criticize and analyze the music heard.

In view of the length of time required for serious musical study, most of the blind children begin their study of music shortly after entering school. About the fifth year of school, sometimes earlier, they are divided into three classes: musicians, semi-musicians and non-musicians.

Musicians will follow the program we have outlined above, and divide their time between intellectual and musical instruction. Each year they devote more time to studying music. These are the talented children who can become teachers.

Semi-musicians are second-rate musicians. They can become choristers, play the organ in small towns, or be journeyman musicians. They continue studying piano, organ and harmony, but at the same time they begin to learn a trade. When they graduate, a position is found for them in a little town, where people are friendly, and they can earn their living honorably.

As for *non-musicians*, they can only become manual laborers.

4. VOCATIONAL TRAINING

The trades taught in almost all schools for the blind are, as mentioned above: caning and repairing chairs, brush-making, basket-making, making wicker cases for bottles, knitting, netting, book-binding, telephone-operating and tuning and repairing pianos.

If great attention has been given to physical exercises and dexterity, the pupil can learn a manual trade in a short time. During his apprenticeship, he is directed by either blind or partially-seeing foremen.

Chair-caning, methodical and simple, is learned in a few months. To repair chair seats takes longer, as the pupil must learn about the different sorts of cane.

Brush-making requires at least two years in a school. Various materials are used and many different models. The blind man must know all about this industry, so that he can later buy and sell at a profit.

Basket-making, in some places, gives better results than caning chairs, or making brushes. The apprentice should learn to make only a few simple models, perhaps seven or eight standard sizes and shapes which are in general use.

But we must admit that these trades, in which a few years ago a man could earn a good living, now barely provide him bread—and often only dry bread.

Even music—piano, violin or organ—is threatened by the success of silent and talking films which makes the position of the blind musician insecure. In some countries, the talking films have caused serious unemployment for musicians.

We will speak, presently, of some new openings in business and industry for the blind man, which may allow him to continue to live by the work of his hands, thus preserving his independence.

But first we must consider, briefly, the most lucrative trades—tuning and repairing pianos and telephone-operating.

Piano-tuning: A blind man can make a good position for himself in this trade. In France, the blind tuner is on an equal footing with the seeing one, and this is surely the same in other countries. Apprentices for this trade should be carefully selected. We must preserve the excellent reputation of “perfect tuners” which the blind have acquired.

To defend, if necessary, this point of view, we quote again from M. Villey’s excellent book. Speaking of the ability of the blind for piano-tuning, M. Villey says:

“The blind man is less inferior in this kind of work than in most others, that is all. As in music, instruction in tuning should be organized on a proper basis. Enough time must be given to learn it thoroughly, under competent teachers, and pupils should practice on all the different models of pianos which, later on, their customers will own.

“And much more than formerly, these pupils should also learn the construction of pianos. Experience has proved that blind men are often capable of repairing pianos; but it has also proved that repairing is a difficult job for them and requires long and careful apprenticeship.”

These remarks justify the rules which some French schools have adopted:

(1) To be admitted to a course in piano tuning, the pupil must first spend three months on the *construction* of pianos. If, at the end of this time, he cannot put a string in its proper place, refelt a hammer or make a simple adjustment, he is refused admission.

(2) If the pupil has passed this test (given after his three months in the piano workshop), he will begin to learn tuning and will also keep on with the construction of pianos for three years.

(3) Lessons in tuning are continued for three years. The first year, a half-hour lesson is given daily; the second year, an hour; and the first term of the third year, an hour and a half or two hours. During other terms, the pupil tunes pianos in the

school or, if possible, goes to a piano store in the city. The pupil can thus, in half a day, tune two or three pianos, see all the different models and gain experience often difficult to get in a school. This plan has been followed in Bordeaux for fifteen years and has given excellent results.

But we believe that when his study is finished the blind man should spend several months in a piano factory, to learn how to repair and assemble a piano.

Is this thing possible? Shall we find in the piano industry as many cases of disinterestedness as we seek? Can we count on continuance of aid from community funds or grants?

These are delicate questions to which we hope for an early and favorable reply.

Telephone-operating: If tuning and repairing pianos does not suit the pupil, he might take up telephone-operating. The switch-boards showing a light are now easily operated by the blind. A special metal disc, working very simply and approved by the telephone exchanges, permits him to give numbers as quickly as the seeing operator. The cost of installing this disc is paid for by societies for aiding the blind and especially by the Valentin Haüy Association, the mother of all French work for the blind.

It takes only a short time, about two weeks, to learn how to manage a standard switch-board. Schools teaching this trade should have switch-boards for practice which connect the different parts of the school and which can be connected with the outside telephone exchange. The pupil can thus learn how to manipulate switches for calls and connections.

We believe that there are now in Paris four or five blind telephone operators, six in Bordeaux, and also some in Nantes and Toulouse. This is just a beginning, but the results are satisfactory. This is pleasant news, and we hope that business men will begin to employ the blind for this work, which they can do very well.

New Occupations

When we consider the enormous progress industry has made, we understand why teachers of the blind wish their pupils to share in this progress. Desiring constantly to increase the welfare of the blind, teachers are always looking for new openings suitable for blind men, even in factories. When the blind man is allowed to work in factories his emancipation will be accomplished. His life will be transformed. Constant contact with seeing men in a workshop will make him forget his infirmity. He will no longer be the same man!

In writing thus, we do not mean that blind men can be employed in every factory, nor do every kind of work. No, but experience proves that there is suitable work for the blind in many factories; it is only necessary to specialize. However, if we want success, we must combat the fears of manufacturers as to accidents and their consequences, and the deep-seated prejudice of many business men and their associates. We must advance cautiously and work for the confidence of the employer in the blind, not forgetting the trouble taken to overcome the obstacles which seemed insurmountable; we can easily balance against these the happy results obtained.

As for accident risk, this is a simple question of insurance which has already been solved by law in the United States. It should be easy to get a similar guarantee in other countries.

This is the system of study, Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen, which we submit for your consideration. The information contained in it was furnished by our own experience, and by the systems followed in the big French schools, especially in those under the protection of the National Federation of Patrons' Associations of Institutions for the Deaf-Mutes and the Blind of France. This Federation sponsors seventeen institutions for the education of the blind, and also maintains two schools, the only ones in France, for the education and instruction of blind deaf-mutes—nature's stepchildren. These schools are at Poitiers for the boys, and Larnay for young girls.

This system of study seems to us to supply the best conditions by which blind children—boys or girls—can derive from the instruction received all the advantages to which their intelligence, their work and even their social position entitle them.

Thanks to wise advice given by devoted, warm-hearted and experienced teachers, who are continually looking for anything which will increase the happiness of the pupil and who, day by day, as we have said, appraise the ability of the pupil for this or that profession and also his tastes and wishes, the choice of a profession will be quickly made. The young apprentice will like his future profession and, later, will endeavor to make it as profitable as possible—the goal of the educator will be attained!

GENERAL EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

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Anyone who attentively studies the whole field of work for the blind in various countries will find, at the outset, a certain structural similarity in the measures undertaken both to educate and to care for them. This similarity finds its explanation, partially, in common historical origins—for all first attempts at the education and care of the blind in these different countries are ultimately derived from their prototype, the Institution of the Young Blind in Paris—and partially, in the many international contacts gained through the reciprocal visitation of those professionally interested and through the study of foreign literature. And yet, in turn, when we consider the education of the blind as a whole in any of these respective countries, there are to be noted certain specific and characteristic features, these specific and characteristic features depending on the peculiarities of the land and the peculiar thought processes resulting therefrom.

In this Congress of professional people I think that we can assume as well known the general principles of the pedagogy of the blind. I might, therefore, refrain from a detailed treatment of that pedagogy, and rather, bring into the purview of our discussion certain controversial points and problems relative to the whole question which tend to be looked upon in each respective country from its own differing point of view, my object being to carry this discussion through to some worthwhile pronouncement.

GENERAL EDUCATION OR VOCATIONAL TRAINING?

In England, in recent years, our theme has been fully discussed from a rather unusual "slant." The question is put this way: General education or only vocational education? That is, on the whole, is a general fundamental education necessary for the blind or is a specialized education, limited to the vocations undertaken, sufficient for them?

The resolution of such a question must be sought, to my way of thinking, deep down in the "philosophy of life." Ideal-

ists and utilitarians will split on it. What we are really dealing with is the question, whether man is merely an economic factor of which the greatest possible efficiency in performance is to be required, or whether he is an individual, a personality, of whom strength of character and wise living are also to be expected.

Wherever utilitarianism is elevated to a principle of education, the educational products are men with a narrow circle of interests who recognize only economic goals. Profit is writ large for such and they fix, therefore, the ends of life in a crass egotism. They scarcely know how to fit themselves into human society and its institutions.

But wherever idealism is a dominant principle of pedagogy, man is compassed in his entirety; there is a striving toward harmony in the development of both bodily and spiritual qualities. A wider horizon opens out and the pupil is led to the attainment of a stable world viewpoint. Characters, too, are developed in such a way that the pupils rise above narrow selfishness, on the basis of a sound altruism, and come to look upon themselves as worthy members of human society. If, from the standpoint of human worth, even in a time of hardest economic strife and crassest realism, we can continue true to idealism in education, we can call to our sides the great educators of all times. I need only name Rousseau and Pestalozzi. The former, it is true, stood chiefly on the principles of the "Enlightenment" and the latter on the ground of German idealism, but both arrived at the educational ideal of the harmonious development of all human faculties.

Even when we look upon this matter from a purely practical point of view, we must talk in terms of the goal to be reached by laying instructional and educational foundations as broadly as possible; for, in the first place, it is extraordinarily difficult, especially in early youth, to hit upon the proper vocational decision for our pupils, especially as we do not yet know whether they tend toward the trades or toward higher callings. And further, we must learn that in the development of specialization the shifting of our pupils from any chosen occupation to another is highly impracticable. Even today Herder's saying still holds good: "Men we are before we become tradesmen, and woe unto us if in our future calling we do not continue to be men!" Though, from both practical and theoretical considerations, then, we must adhere to the principle of the broadest possible general education, there is no implication therefrom that we refuse to reckon with the real demands of life in our education

or that we want to educate our pupils for life in some land of Utopia. We want, rather, to join sound realism with our idealism, especially in the selection of educational material. In the selection of the branches of study and the setting up of our plan of teaching we must not exclude the demands of practical life. Though the practical is to be less stressed in the earliest school years, when the psychological viewpoint is dominant, in the upper school years reference to later vocational possibilities must dominate to a greater or lesser extent.

That is what schools for the blind have really always done. Having the after-life in view, these schools, in many ways, have excelled the public schools in the selection of courses; nearly all schools for the blind have extensive instruction in foreign languages and, in the upper classes, the teaching of typewriting.

I should like to offer three typical examples taken from the practice of German schools for the blind, to show a significant concession to the necessities of practical life:

Although, from the point of view of methodology, German educators had strong objections to the early introduction of abbreviations, since the learning of correct orthography was endangered thereby, nevertheless, on practical grounds, they assented to their introduction from the fifth school year on.

Since the vocational training of typists seemed further to demand the fundamental learning of capitalization, the German teaching profession accepted the proposal of the blind associations by which, in the upper school classes, the writing of capital and small letters was distinguished by special signs; a measure which placed a heavy burden on the teachers of German reading and writing, since capitalization is much more frequent in German than in other languages.

And finally, they yielded to the importunities of the adult blind and in many institutions undertook the use of the ordinary script, so that the blind person might at least learn to write his own name when he had to sign any kind of document.

In answer to the question whether education is to be general or only vocational I might, then, in conclusion say that in this matter, as so often in life, we must agree to a compromise, weaving, so to speak, into the warp of our idealism a weft of reality. General education and pre-vocational education must be carried on side by side. In this sense the old pedagogical aphorism carries real significance: "We do not learn for the school but for life."

GENERAL EDUCATION

1. *Residential or non-residential*: In view of the fact that we find ourselves here in a land which has more than twenty day-schools and that this measure has been undertaken assuredly out of sincere pedagogical consideration, the question arises as to whether, from the standpoint of instruction, the residential or the non-residential school is the better—admittedly a thoroughly warranted and interesting question.

Every educator will subscribe, without question, to the dictum that the good family is the most proper foundation of education and that every other social form always must remain an educational substitute. Therefore, no institution, even though it be a model of its kind, can ever wholly displace the good family as the center of education. In institutions, the bonds of blood relationship are lacking and the relation of teacher and pupil must ever retain elements of strangeness.

It follows, then, that education in an institution, cut loose from the ties of real life and sundered from the company of the seeing, makes the pupils unquestionably "strangers to life" and, in a certain measure, unprepared for their later life among the seeing. While the necessities of body and soul may be looked after in model fashion, the pupils do not come to know the cares of daily life; they easily become arrogant and in the matter of their wants they are raised much above the customary level of their families. This places an obstacle in the way of their future welfare when they return to their families.

When we consider these facts, it must appear a matter of wonder that most countries of the earth have considered the residential school the most suitable for the education of the blind. Yet the schooling of blind children with normal ones is considered unjustifiable by every experienced teacher of the blind. The blind child is always at a disadvantage in competition with seeing companions of his own age and so develops, through his experience among them, an overwhelmingly shaming and crippling sense of inferiority, which tends to disappear when the same child is among his own kind in an institution for the blind. But the most weighty ground for rejecting education in the normal school lies in the fact that the objective materials in such a school are not adequate for the use of the blind child. He hears so much there that is merely verbal, without the necessary "building blocks" of conceptual education that he is forced, of necessity, to vicarious and substitute conceptions which are not only injurious to concept-building but impoverishing to his mental life as a whole. He

becomes a stranger in a strange world, in the psychological sense. Then, too, the establishment of such day-schools is possible only in the larger cities, of which you have so many here in America. In other lands our primary care must be for the blind from the country districts, and there is no way left but that of centralizing the education of the blind in special institutions.

As a positive factor in the demand for the residential institution, we must take into account the fact that most of the families of our blind children belong to the poorer people. In many ways, therefore, they are only slightly prepared to carry out such measures as are necessary for the bodily and spiritual well-being of their children—measures which are psychologically well-grounded and carefully thought through pedagogically. These children are either neglected or pampered in their own families, and remain weak in body and mentally dependent. In Germany, at the present time, we are busily considering whether it would not be better to have the older blind school-children and students lodged with suitable families in the vicinity of the institution and attend the school or workshop as day-pupils.

Even though, from a practical and pedagogical standpoint, we look upon institutions and the residential feature as an unavoidable necessity, we can still prescribe certain regulations for residential attendance which would tend to compensate for its weaknesses. The residential school must be divided or broken up into smaller family groupings and these organized around a genuinely educational personality. The development of a sense of family solidarity, and the attainment for the little ones of the conditions of a sunny nursery, must be assiduously striven after by all who co-operate in the upbringing of our youngsters. Among the older ones the spirit of the institution takes the place of sense of family. To develop this spirit each teacher must earnestly take up the task as a part of pedagogical procedure. The institution must not remain for the pupil a society and nothing more, simply tying together disjunct human beings into a group, solely following a practical aim. There must be developed, rather, a solidarity of being, gifted with a soul by the feeling of a lively consciousness of the ties that bind, each individual feeling himself to be *partly a factor in a reciprocal exchange, partly the representative of a whole*. The former feeling is the ground for responsibility within the society. Each must know and feel that an active society cannot be based on shortsighted selfishness or on buttonhole politics, but only on reciprocal insight, a willingness to understand the other fellow; in other words, neighborliness towards one's

neighbors must animate any actual society of living beings. The other feeling, that of representing the whole, is the basis of conscious responsibility toward the world at large. Every pupil must feel that he represents the institution abroad and must avoid sully-
ing its good name by immoral conduct. The institution must foster, to the limit of possibility, the association of its pupils with the world outside, that is, with the seeing. To that end, it must permit pupils to join associations of the seeing—touring groups, athletic societies, swimming societies, religious associations and the like. In this way, the institution for the blind can be changed from a necessary evil into a mighty, constructive factor in the upbringing of our youth.

2. *Outer authority or inner discipline?* Character education—we sounded that note at the beginning of this paper—is the chief educational task in the school for the blind, as in other schools; and so the question arises as to the right way of attaining this goal. When parents, for the first time, hear of the necessity and duty of bringing their children to a school for the blind, they are likely to reject the idea with vigor, at first, since they have a wholly false picture of the institution. They think of it as a place of horror; where there is little to eat, punishments taking the place of food; where children are tied down with hard and fast rules and no friendly word is ever to be heard. It is true that the old-style institution was based on a rigid propriety. People believed that only through a hard upbringing could children be rightly prepared for life; that they needs must learn to forego and renounce at the right time, so that in later life it would not be difficult for them to take the hard knocks of life and to bear the privations that might fall to their lot.

Modern education thinks otherwise. A friendless, loveless childhood and youth are a mighty poor preparation for later life. He who has passed his childhood in outer destitution and inner bondage, seldom in later life becomes joyous and free, and never has the courage to live up to such requirements as are fully warranted. He will seldom conquer life and know how to shape it to his purposes. Jean Paul says: "Joyousness is the heaven under which everything thrives except venom." Therefore, give to our blind children, who are denied the sight of the outer sun, the inner sun of warmheartedness in their education. Surely we cannot say that such treatment means "soft pedagogy." The child must learn obedience, and learn it early. Education dare not dispense with energy. But yet, in every educational process, even punishment, kindness must shine through so that the child becomes

bound to the teacher through an inner bond, and is deterred as by spiritual distaste from troubling his teacher or giving him pain.

The whole institutional organization must breathe the spirit of freedom. One of our first German teachers of the blind once said that his institution more closely resembled a little republic than a narrow despotism. The backbone of institutional organization is the residential regimen. This regimen must not seek to express itself in long-winded paragraphs minutely prescribing the pupils' daily coming and going. The greater the number of paragraphs, the more numerous the stumbling-blocks; the larger the number of regulations, the more the occasions for breaches of discipline. The house regimen must be expressed only in general directions and not item by item destroying the individuality of the pupil by killing every spontaneous prompting of his soul. The one great problem is how to permit individuality to come into its own within the fixed social order; it can only develop by freedom within the institutional community. The more freedom the house regimen permits, the greater is the measure of tact required for carrying it out on the part of teachers and attendants. Vigilance is, perhaps, the safest and most convenient means. However, the more the house organization offers opportunity for free activity and development, the more difficult the upbringing of the children becomes. No one wants to spy upon or surprise the pupil. He who would exercise proper vigilance in a school for the blind should not wear rubber shoes but should come with firm tread and make his presence known by speaking. They say in schools for the blind: Speak, so that I may see you! He who sows mistrust, will surely reap mistrust.

It is not to be denied that these basic principles of education are much more easily carried out in a smaller institution than in a larger one. For that reason, I can agree with the German teacher of the blind who has said, "Break up all the big institutions!" I am not unaware of the fact that they offer many advantages: the academic and vocational education can be organized in a more efficient manner; administration is without question less expensive; but here money and intellectual training are set in opposition to soul, and on these considerations our decision should not be hard to make. The influence of the teacher, and especially that of the director or principal, is, without doubt, much more intimate in the smaller institutions; much more individual than in the leading of great masses, where one scarcely can know the names of the pupils, much less their home conditions and their spiritual needs.

Character building is a thing difficult to accomplish in our youth, especially in the period when they are cutting loose from outer authority, in the time of "wanting to be of value"; a feeling which has its psychological basis in the impulse of self-assertion, an impulse which comes out with elementary might even in sound, mature men. In children, this impulse is already present in wilfulness. At puberty it is converted into the impulse to fight and the freedom impulse, and it is finally refined into self-discipline and self-respect. At this age the respect for authority is likely to become a bit shaky. The pupil no longer submits unconditionally to the teacher; he begins to ponder things. The youngster makes the observation, "that there is a great difference between what society demands and what it finds morally practicable and actually does." And such observations he probably makes also with respect to the teacher. Hence follows an inner release from pedagogical authority, a cutting loose which does not occur without a struggle. This whole evolution makes it easy to understand why youth in itself is so revolutionary and hard to organize. At this time, conflicts with the immediate environment are not to be avoided; indeed, the best men are likely to be those who have engaged in such battles most impetuously. "If they are wholly absent, it is as if calm prevailed at the moment of setting sail; the voyage will not continue far that way." Such cutting loose and such negations must be at this age, and they are something very different from sheer ill-will and obduracy. Such crises do not arise among youths who are too flabby or too restricted to have them. For education, or for teachers, such cases naturally are dealt with easily, but they promise little for later life, for "only foaming must give honest wine." The youngster who is chock full of conflicts can be taken as the average type of disciplinary cases during this critical time. The handling of such pupils demands special pedagogical dexterity, for severe measures of punishment are here least of all in order. These natures are disposed to welcome even the most severe punishment, dismissal, and then become a source of admiration on the part of their comrades for their fearless, manly fight. They are marked as martyrs. It is a wholly different matter when genuinely unsocial conduct, such as continuous thievery, offers a cause for expulsion. In such cases the punishment will surely be recognized by their comrades as just.

But in such cases one must also make inquiry into the basic causes of the immoral action. Mass misbehavior frequently arises out of the circumstance that the pleasure impulse is not satisfied;

hence one may observe that the pupil who has taken possession of alien property is cured the moment he begins to earn in his own capacity. Human beings must be able to call something their own or they will commit murder and arson. Much depends on understanding the pupil's critical state of mind. We have already learned that he has arrived at the period of wanting to be esteemed. Very well, then, let us take him at his face value. As soon as the pupil has entered puberty, the observant educator will see to it that every protection is thrown about him. We will then begin to treat the pupil as adult and he, in turn, will treasure such treatment on our part. We must especially take care that the pupil, at the right time, takes the step from unconditional obedience to inner freedom. The whole institutional organization must serve this end; but the teacher plays a specially significant rôle, in that the pupil in his moral development takes kindly to models, which continue to influence him strongly into adulthood. Happy the pupil who has such a teacher as presents morality to him by living example, whose punctuality, whose unqualified purity of character, love of work and energy are objects of admiration. About this time the youngster begins to choose the moral forces which he will acknowledge as formative influences in his own life. When he, of his own free will, sets up the person of the educator or teacher as a goal to be attained through training, he has reached the stage of self-discipline, the stage of inner freedom which, for the first time, we can recognize as genuine morality. From these considerations emerges the unique significance of teaching by example and the immense worth of a good and well-trained body of officials. For an institution for the blind, in particular, it is an indispensable requirement that all officers and attendants should be persons of character, and that they have special training for their calling.

A very efficacious educational method, particularly for the development of inner freedom in the pupil, is that of self-government. One is to understand, thereby, the participation of the pupils in the maintenance of institutional order. The young person needs to feel that he is somehow necessary and that he commands respect. This end is gained when the wild fellows are entrusted with some office, some position of trust. One can often achieve wonders by the conferring of such offices; converting the tendency to refractoriness to good ends, as soon as the feeling of importance is gratified and the youngsters can be kept busy in responsible positions. To anyone who has not attempted such procedures I very emphatically recommend them.

A great asset in control, reaching down deeply into the soul of the place, is the tone of social intercourse in the institution. But how is education to arrive at decorum and gentle manners? Accustoming the child to the forms of good breeding from the instant he enters the institution is a matter of course. It is the duty of every officer to do his best in this type of training. To that end it is then essential that each officer conduct himself in a manner that will serve as a model.

But directing officers to observe correct social forms and thus offer models of behavior is not enough. It is not always in the power of the teachers to carry on social education by example. Our children, unfortunately, cannot learn readily by example, since literally their eyes fail them in the observation of social usage; hence a constant direction in such social usage is imperatively necessary, and special instruction in social forms must be provided for. I can assure you that this type of instruction has actually been worked out with success. Any professionally-trained person who enters our institution will at once observe the success of this special training in the conduct of our children and our young people. Such observation of social forms has, moreover, a deeper, psychological meaning, particularly for the maturing pupil. "When one is leaving youth behind, he enters a period when a loud and uncouth behavior, something of the he-man, an outspoken rudeness, appeal to him as expressions of manliness; for example, spitting with vigor and frequency seems a noble attribute, since it serves as a sign of contempt for men in general. Bragging, swearing, drinking, smoking—these are truly manly customs." The pupil wants to be a child no longer, but he has not yet inwardly ripened into manhood and, hence, seeks to copy the outward signs of manliness as they appeal to him in their most robust forms. So his crudity is to be taken as a kind of defense reaction by which he covers up his lack of maturity. It is easy to understand how, in institutions where youngsters are massed in great numbers, all these phenomena appear in glaring obviousness.

As a counterweight to youthful boorishness there should be impressed upon our young people, at this time, the fact that the world really prizes good social forms as the outstanding tokens of ripe manhood. Thus, instruction in correct social tone has a deep psychological significance, and out of my own experience I heartily commend to all institutions

the setting up of such instruction. In conclusion, I might say that it is not the right way to ground character education on outer authority. Such education can be effective only so long as the pupil stays under institutional compulsion. The right way leads through outer authority to inner discipline.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

1. *General manual training or vocational preparation.* The question as to whether generalized education or specialization is the right method to follow brings us back to the realm of vocational education. The question then narrows down to whether the educand shall be put through a graded course in hand-training or shall proceed at once to the learning of a specific vocation.

Here I must refer, of course, chiefly to German conditions. Handwork, as a whole, has been legally regulated in Germany to the extent that every apprentice through his legal deputy or representative enters upon a legally binding agreement which fixes the term of his apprenticeship and the amount he shall receive in compensation, and touches upon all sorts of additional regulations. His training ends with the passing of a test by which the apprentice is raised to the status of journeyman.

We hold such apprenticeship and the obligation of passing the journeyman test as necessary, also, for our blind learners, on the following grounds:

Our young people have before them a fixed goal toward which they bend their efforts. The will is directed to this goal; for to pass the test successfully becomes a matter of honor, failure in it being looked upon as a disgrace. And so this setting up of a goal is of overwhelming importance in character building.

But there is a good practical reason, as well. If our young people have carefully fulfilled their legal obligations like the seeing and have in their hands the so-called journeyman certificate, the handwork of the blind has found an expressed recognition, which all the assaults of seeing workers, to whose censure our blind people are altogether too often exposed, cannot set at naught.

One should not put off unnecessarily the beginning of education in handwork. The whole psychic trend of the young person, influenced by the example of brothers and sisters

and friends, is directed toward vocation from the fourteenth or fifteenth year. In the case of the normal blind person this vocational will or impulse appears about this time. Unless it finds some kind of fulfilment, the best time passes and the vocational impulse receives a setback from which it recovers only with difficulty. The chief means of attaining joy in one's vocation lies in a sound vocational egoism. Only in the case of exceptional men do we find the choice of occupation dictated by the possible attainment of cultural ends or the service of humanity. In general, considerations of livelihood will play the biggest part, and this factor must be reckoned with throughout. As soon as possible, and at the very latest when he is producing a salable product, the pupil must share in the profits. The first money earned makes the chest swell with pride and greatly stimulates the eagerness for work.

A further, more ideal occasion for the waking of joy in occupation is that of joy in the finished article. To accomplish this is of the utmost importance to the trades' instructor, who can accomplish so much more by acknowledging work well done than by severe discipline or by scolding. The common joy in contemplating a finely finished piece brings master and apprentice more closely together. It is especially commendable, on such occasions, to have present the advanced trades' teacher, or even the institution head, so that either or both may be convinced of the value of the accomplishment and on their own behalf render to the pupil the recognition which he deserves. It is an especially efficacious method to fix a valuation, from time to time, on the products of the different apprentices, and to announce the fact. Perhaps it is good procedure to give special recognition to exceptional accomplishments by increases in pay. In this way the work-tempo of the blind apprentice will be accelerated, a matter of very special significance in preparation for actual life.

The institutional head must feel the utmost concern over the vocational choice of his pupils. Ideal practice, if it were possible, would be to bring each young person to the point where he would fulfil in his vocation the freest expression of his own personality. Such complete harmony must always remain an ideal, however, an ideal which will seldom be attained in the case of the blind; for they are narrowed down to such a limited choice of occupations that it must always remain a question of certain restricted callings into which, in all probability, they cannot "set forth with swelling sails."

Yet entering into and succeeding in a vocation, the requirements of which are not always congenial, has high social worth; in other words, What you do, work through! Half-way is none of the way! Education toward vocational ethics is the highest task set by vocational education. And so we come back again to the pedagogy of example, that is, to the personality and the instructional skill of the teacher of the blind. He, like the teacher in continuation classes, must develop a consciousness of duty in the pupil and, above all, loosen and develop the factor of energy, the will to strive onward and upward. On these both ideal and practical grounds we, in Germany, are of the opinion that, even with his attention directed to his calling, the pupil must have a fundamental general education and not simply a short trades course. It must be admitted, however, that the case is somewhat different with the later-blinded. We cannot require any such long drawn-out educational process, for it all comes down to getting him far enough along in occupational training so that he can earn his daily bread by his own efforts. And again, we must not expect of such persons that they will be able to carry on their trades independently. It is much more practicable that they should be workers in the bigger workshops.

2. *Absolute or relative independence.* In this connection, there inevitably arises the question of the goal of vocational education. In Germany, at an earlier time, there prevailed in general the aim of complete vocational and economic independence as an end worth striving for. We expected of the young people that, after completing their education, they would settle down as independent tradespeople. In country districts, indeed, even to this day, there are numerous instances of success, especially in basketry, but in such cases it is recommended that the young person run a small sales shop in addition to manufacturing. We have in Germany a great many such people, who "carry on" as respected and independent members of society in their home communities.

But since the Great War, economic conditions in Germany have been getting worse and worse. You probably know that at the present time we have some four and a half millions of unemployed. It follows, thereon, that occupations for the blind in the factories have suffered a like fate. Even in the realm of basket- and brush-making the market is flooded with cheaper machine-made articles, so that extensive propaganda becomes necessary when the blind person has anything to dispose of. Naturally, the individual blind person cannot succeed in such an

undertaking and, consequently, an organized system of selling has to be developed, with traveling salesmen to distribute the wares in the country. So among us, just as here in America, the movement has been toward greater workshops, and the last few years may be pointed to as the time of founding workshops. The workshops and sales agencies in Germany have been established, less by the institutions themselves, than by special charitable societies. They can show, at this time, wholly gratifying results; but we have let slip, thereby, the ideal of absolute independence and must be content with a relative independence in its place.

Accordingly, it becomes especially significant, even before we begin a pupil's education, to get in touch with the workshops and his home surroundings, in order to assure ourselves that the pupil in question may be able to find his subsistence in the vocation planned for him. Vocational counseling then becomes a matter of prime importance in these hard times. Institutions, accordingly, must put forth every effort to disencumber themselves of the so-called typical vocations of the blind and to go over to the non-typical. Among these, I might name work in industry. You probably know that in many communities we already have had fair success in this field; most notably, the well-known Siemens-Schuckert Works have been pioneers in this connection. To be sure, only mature blind people have been taken into industry. Such blind persons as intend to enter industrial positions later should learn a hand trade at the outset in order to acquire sufficient technical skill. A number of institutions have already undertaken to set up special preparatory courses in the use of adapted machines in industry. The blind thus learn certain machine processes and, in this way, lose their timidity in handling machinery—a thing which we consider very important.

3. *Is vocational education the task of the institution for the blind or not?* In accord with the spirit of German institutions, I have in my exposition simply assumed the standpoint that schools for the blind are the means of vocational training in addition to their other functions. From our professional literature I gather that this is not universally conceded and that here in America, especially, you think otherwise. I might then define our stand in this matter a little more closely.

First, we believe that it is out of the question for our young people to be educated in general by seeing teachers. The prejudice against the blind among us, and perhaps in other lands as well, is far too great for anyone to expect seeing teachers, in general, to be willing to instruct blind children. And even if they

wanted to, their lack of knowledge of the employment of the blind would be so great as to make the attempt miscarry because of unsuitable measures. It would be very interesting to me, therefore, to find out about your experiences here in trying to educate the blind with seeing teachers. In the institutions, however, we have specially prepared masters who have availed themselves of many years' experience in the education of the blind and have attained noteworthy successes even in the hardest cases. It follows that after their technical training as masters they need an additional theoretical schooling. This can be given by means of supplementary classes under experienced teachers who have mastered all the technical devices for teaching the blind. Only thus is it possible to give blind persons a proper trade training in the pertinent fields, such as the industrial arts, business arithmetic, calculation and knowledge of materials.

Whether all institutions, notably the smaller ones, should aim to take up courses in all the vocational possibilities seems doubtful to me. It is a question of good sense whether the many vocational possibilities should not be centralized. Some of the larger German institutions have so extended their efforts in this direction that they can take over pupils from other institutions. This holds at the present time for piano-tuning, machine-knitting, the training of stenotypists, and so on. Especially in education for higher callings we have carried out a strong specializing tendency in that we already have an educational institute for blind college students and propose to create a similar one for blind musicians.

I have not expressed myself with regard to the higher callings in this exposition, since this theme must be reserved for my friend, Dr. Strehl.

Two major thoughts run through my paper as clues to its trend and meaning—"institution and life" and "authority and self-discipline." I conclude both with the words of German poets:

"The windows in the auditorium, where natural wisdom is learned, all look out toward the common life." (Hippel.)

"The greater the freedom our education permits, the more genuine and true the child will be!" (Jean Paul.)

DISCUSSION

DR. J. E. UNDERWOOD (GREAT BRITAIN): In the short time at my disposal, I propose to deal with three aspects of our blind education and welfare of children in blind schools in England.

First of all, the relationship of general education to vocational training. Our ideal of education for the blind aims not only at training the capacity

of the individual for earning a livelihood, but to give him the fullest possible life under his handicap. Under our educational system, we do not separate the purely utilitarian aspects from the more important intellectual, social and moral aspects.

Education is directed almost imperceptibly on the one hand to professional training, or on the other into vocational training. Here I wish only to touch on vocational training.

In early years the handwork training, whose object is to train the sense of touch, hearing, muscular sense, etc., gives place in later years to training of more vocational value. Then after the age of sixteen, when the child leaves the elementary school, the elementary education gives way to industrial training. But education in general subjects is still continued. In addition, of course, we have social activities after school hours, such as sports, games, debate, etc. All this gives a wider and fuller life, which vocational training by itself cannot do.

Now another subject that I wish to mention or touch on is the value and organization of physical training and games in blind schools. In all our larger schools we have well-equipped gymnasiums, where exercises are carried out. We believe in the value of physical training and games in the open air—football, for example, is played with a special ball, in which there is a bell, the children, of course, chasing the ball by sound. This game fosters independence of movement, carriage and physical fitness. Other forms of sport—running races, jumping competitions, rowing, swimming, and so forth—are sports in which the blind are encouraged to compete, with the best results.

The last matter on which I wish to touch is of particular interest to me as a medical man. It is the question of supervision of the children in a blind school by an established surgeon. There has been a tendency to regard blindness—and under that I include all persons who have not sufficient sight to follow employment in which eyesight is necessary—as a stationary condition, not needing specialist observation and treatment. I think that is wrong. Every child should be examined and thoroughly reported on immediately on entering the school, and the oculist should be asked to advise on the curriculum to be followed, whether the child should be educated as a totally blind child, or as a partially blind child. Cases should be examined at periodic intervals; partially blind, for example, every six months, at least. All cases should be examined again before leaving the school, as their condition and their chance of recovering sight does have an important bearing on the vocation to be pursued. In other words, we want the closest possible link between the established surgeon and the system of education.

MR. CLUTHA N. MACKENZIE (NEW ZEALAND): Regarding the discussion raised in these papers, I would say first in respect to the question of day versus what have been termed residential institutions, I myself think it is a mistake to speak of institutions. I think the question should be regarded as one of day schools versus boarding-schools. Of course, the conditions must vary according to the customs of countries. I don't think it is a matter of great concern whether blind children be educated in day schools or boarding-schools, provided there is the right personality at the head. That is the all-important feature.

Another point: In my own experience I have discovered that it is most essential that the head master, the principal or director—whatever he

may be called—should always be on guard against the tendency of his staff, of his matron and junior teachers, to handle blind children too carefully. I have found members of the junior staff taking knives away from boys lest they should cut themselves; not allowing them to skate lest they should fall and hurt themselves. The matrons—dear, good souls as they usually are—strongly object to the children climbing trees because they tear their clothes; and so on and so forth. I believe the great thing with blind children is to treat them as perfectly normal children, to allow them to fall and knock themselves about, and to learn as much as they can of the world by coming into contact with it. They will not cut themselves any more than sighted children will. It is just as safe to trust them with axes and other tools, and you will soon find them becoming quite ordinary and independent.

Another point I have found in various schools for the blind is a tendency to keep the children upon the footpaths and the even ways. I like to see the youngsters getting out into the wilds, scrambling up hills, along coasts, for it is only by contact that they really discover what the world is like, and the principle which I favor—and I think most of us must, after our practical experience—is to give them all possible freedom, let them be normal, and let them knock about and let them come in contact with the world.

MR. HENRY HEDGER (AUSTRALIA): This very fine paper read by Herr Grasemann will, I am sure, attract a great deal of interest among us all, especially those who deal with blind children. Perhaps it is very often a mistake to conduct the education and the industrial training of blind children in two different institutions. This is a very, very great disadvantage.

First of all, it spoils the continuity in the training of the blind children. I would like to ask Herr Grasemann, while he is on his feet, if it be permitted, whether it is still the custom in Germany as it was some twenty years ago, to have children educated in one school and industrially trained in the other?

HERR GRASEMANN: The primary education in one institution and further schooling and vocational training in another.

MR. HEDGER: Thanks very much. I believe the German plan is the best, and I think in England the schools are conducted on the same principle. Now we find a great disadvantage in New South Wales, where we have three separate institutions, one of which is for children. The one great disadvantage is the bad effect the system has on the blind children who are growing up. They are just schooled in one institution, to which they become accustomed and in which they have pride, and then they go from it into a quite different place; that is, into an industrial institution where they begin to work. Now I don't know whether this method is to be discussed later on, but it is one of the things I feel very strongly about.

In Melbourne, where they have a very large institution, something like 240 children and adults at work, they have the schooling and industrial training all under one roof. The youngsters are in contact with one another while they are growing up, and they are kept in contact with one another in the workshops. But in New South Wales we find a tendency on the part of the young to object to taking up work under the existing disadvantages, and I think it would not be wrong for me to say that one of the very things that should be taken up and guarded against is making the

children uncomfortable in this respect while they are going to school and taking up industrial training. I think it is a great disadvantage to the children, and they suffer a good deal later, as they grow up, because of that.

MR. P. N. V. RAU (INDIA) : What proportion of the blind child's education should be general and what proportion should be vocational is a problem that should be decided as soon as possible. Whatever the seeing child requires in this respect, the blind child requires also. Any special or industrial education needed in his later life should be given him at the same time as his general education, in order to enable him to do his best in the work he may select. The principal matter to be decided, then, is the educational curriculum and not the question of whether the education of the blind should differ from that of the seeing. Therefore, I request that all educators of the blind should treat the blind as though they were seeing persons.

HERR ERNST JÖRGENSEN (DENMARK) : I am only going to make a few remarks. I was so glad to hear Mr. Mackenzie talk about the blind children's free life out of doors and learning to know the wilds, but I think that Mr. Mackenzie must agree that we cannot go to extremes, for blind children cannot very well climb on to the roofs, because of what they might do, and I do not think parents of even sighted children would want them to do so. Therefore, I would call attention to the very great importance of having a lot of models to show the public and the blind children all the things the blind can get in touch with.

Then I should, just as a matter of information, like to tell you also that in Denmark we have—this is more for Dr. Underwood, I think—we have schools with different classes for the partially-blind. There we have realized that they can, by use of the sight they have left, really get farther, or very far, whereas they are very often at a disadvantage when they have to work together with totally blind children. Again, the totally blind children really get farther with the methods used for them and prepared for them; for the ones with partial sight always feel that they can depend slightly on their sight, and they do so to a greater extent than really is good for them.

I should like to call attention to just one thing more, and that is, that you say that the blind child must learn to know the world, and that he must be taught just as a sighted child. Of course, that is in a way right, but certainly we must teach the child to be blind—I mean, to teach him to use every ability, every kind and every sort of resource—we must help him to use all his efforts, and we must help him not to be afraid, for you see very often the blind are afraid only because they like to be like the sighted and not use the way that really would serve them best, and I think they ought not to do this.

In Denmark we have a kindergarten and a children's school, every room of which is now equipped artistically. This was carried out by a society working for the promotion of art. I think this is a very good idea, because from earliest years the children's lives are filled with beauty and something of the empty space that must be there, despite all efforts to dispel it, is thus filled. Of course, you may ask, What is the good of this? or, Do they furnish their rooms later on likewise? Perhaps it is something like the case of Turkish women—We accustom the blind children to have things very nice and very comfortable in the schools, but when they leave they have a hard time of it. Still, I do think that this teaching of beauty will

some day pay, not only economically, but in helping the pupils to estimate true values in life and to do their duty as far as possible.

HERR SIEGFRIED ALTMANN (AUSTRIA): In a natural educational program for the blind, it is necessary not to overlook a problem to which the attention of the psychologist has been called, namely, so-called "institutionalism"—the injurious effects of institutional life. To avoid such "institutionalism" must be the primary task of every institution for the blind.

On this subject a special word should be spoken, and that is—how very unsatisfactory membership in a *community* is where the special object is the development of the *individual*. A child who has passed his entire developmental period with other children has a soul quite different from that of the child who enjoys the freedom of his family.

There are a number of American psychologists who are also concerned with "institutionalism," and we know that just in our own case, where the Institution for the Blind is continued into the Home for the Blind, and later into the Home for the Aged Blind, it must be a matter of very great importance for the natural, the modern, and therefore the future education of the blind.

HERR MICHAL WAWRYZNOWSKI (POLAND): I shall not speak to you of what has been done in Poland for the children, inasmuch as every delegate has received a book from the Polish delegation describing the situation of the blind in Poland. But I want to say this, when one talks about the education of a blind child, in my opinion, certain points should not be forgotten. If you desire to give a good education to blind children, you must also introduce compulsory attendance at school. However, we are still without compulsory school attendance. We have the schools, but not the compulsory school act. It would be desirable if we had schools for blind children with the same curriculum as for sighted children. The curriculum should also contain certain handicraft work and, in general, a larger range of interests, as is the case with the children in the public schools.

MR. B. P. CHAPPLE (U. S. A.): I wish to say how much I appreciate the paper by Herr Grasmann. I think he has the true basis of education of the blind child. He spoke of the necessity of normalcy, of the home being the best place for a child in its early years. I believe that is true, but since the institution becomes, or takes the place of the home, the institution should approximate the home as much as possible.

I represent a state institution, and therefore I approve of the education given in an institution over that given in the public schools for the blind. We take pupils from the home (often the pupil is unwisely treated at home) and he gets his education by self-activity, whereas often the home simply destroys the value of self-activity by doing for the pupil what the pupil ought to do for himself. When the institutions can get the pupil away from home, they can do very much more for him than when he is at home, or than when he returns to his home, too often to get the viewpoint of the parents again, and their cautions and caressings.

I believe that play is a very important factor in the education of all children, and especially in the education of the blind. The blind play too little. Their condition imposes lack of play, and the more we can get them to play the better it is for them. I believe every home and every school should really radiate good cheer and inspiration, and the teacher in a school for the blind and everything about the school—its surroundings and its sense

of duty and the attitude of everybody connected with the school, the matron and the superintendents and the teachers, and all—should radiate cheer and inspiration. The teachers should be of the highest class, and should know how to assist the blind. This, more than any other thing, is what our people need: Inspiration and cheer on the outlook—for “the forward look.” The teacher should hold out to the pupil the forward look as to what he can do, what it is possible for him to do, and everything that goes with it.

We have attempted often to run our schools too economically. We should have the best school possible, with the greatest variety; we should put dietitians into our schools who know how to prepare foods, and what kinds of foods to use, and who can give the best service possible, as well as everything else that goes with cheer and with courage and with inspiration, thus helping the pupils to look forward to life without fear, with inspiration and with confidence.

COL. R. FORBES (GREAT BRITAIN): Like my fellow-delegate, I am sorry that I have not yet had an opportunity to study the immediate paper which has been presented today. Nevertheless, I am particularly interested in Herr Grasmann's paper, and I hope to have an opportunity of talking with him.

In Scotland we have two systems. On the eastern side all the classes for the blind and the blind children are institutional. On the western side we have no institutions for the blind, and the children attend classes which are attached to ordinary day schools. Children from poor homes are located in hospitals, and go out to certain classes in the city which are a part of the educational program of the main schools. Generally speaking, the morning session is devoted to subjects of particular interest to the blind, that is, braille reading, braille writing, and so on. In the afternoon, they join the ordinary classes where we have full instruction in history, geography, poetry and the lighter subjects generally.

We are very decided as to which is the most valuable. Naturally children in their later years must be brought into institutions if the inconveniences attached to a non-institutional life are too great. But generally speaking, in Scotland we favor day classes attached to ordinary schools, because, after all, the children who leave when their education is completed are going to meet with ordinary and natural people, and we have come to believe that the quicker they come to mixing with people the better.

In Scotland, within the last two years or so in particular, we have been devoting tremendous time, one might say, to enforcing in the curriculum physical training in all its forms, outdoor and indoor. Apart from the fact that the blind may have few opportunities for physical exercise, I think there is no doubt that the awkwardness peculiar sometimes to the blind child can be eradicated if he is given a judicious course of physical training from the earliest stages.

In the past two years I have just mentioned, we have been running a camp for blind children. We have been taking there about thirty children, many from the poorest homes, down to the Coast, and the superintendent of the camp, himself a blind man, has been doing most excellent work. We have been trying to bring the children into a new life, where there are no chairs to step over, no lamp posts to knock against, and we find that in the three weeks or so at camp the children acquire a greater education that is to be, perhaps, of more use to them in later life than many of our children who begin in just the day schools.

HIGHER EDUCATION OF THE BLIND AND THEIR CHANCES IN THE PROFESSIONS

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My theme deals with a section of the general education and vocational care of the blind. These two questions are too closely related to be treated separately. A good education, specialized training for a definite kind of work, and a good background are the bases upon which the blind individual stands a chance of obtaining a position. It would be almost impossible to treat the subject exhaustively within the space at my disposal, but I shall try to deal with it according to the knowledge I have gathered from the available literature, and from the experiences of German workers for the blind.

As among seeing people, the percentage of the blind who get a higher education and take up a profession is relatively small. According to the data obtained from various countries, it appears that 8 per cent of all the blind capable of education and employment are receiving a higher education. In this 8 per cent are included, also, those who take training in music, commercial occupations and massage. If you omit these last-mentioned occupations, 2 per cent would be the more correct figure.

Let us take Germany as an example. According to the last census of the blind in 1927, Germany had a blind population of 34,026. Of these, 3,500 were being educated and trained, while about 6,500 adults were capable of employment and of earning their own livings, making a total of 10,000. About 100 are attending institutions of higher learning or are preparing for a profession. Another hundred are carrying on a profession or, their studies finished, are seeking employment. The war blind are not included in these figures, as they would distort the proportions too much.

EDUCATION

I am now going to talk about the principles of higher education. For details, I beg to call your attention to the treatises of twenty European countries and the United States of America in the *Handbuch der Blindenwohlforthsorge*, Part II, published by the Association of Blind Academicians of Germany (*Verein der blinden Akademiker Deutschlands e. V.*), Marburg-Lahn, 1930.

The first requirement is, in any case, that the blind child should be physically healthy and have a well-balanced mind. Only then can be justified the expenditure of considerable amounts of money out of private or public funds. The early training of the blind child, in the family or in the school for the blind, plus his general habits and manners, are of great importance. Some countries, e. g., England, Germany and Scotland, have followed the practice, for years, of establishing special institutions for the education of the gifted blind. France, Italy, Russia and the United States of America are of the opinion that the talented blind are offered better educational possibilities in ordinary secondary schools among seeing students. It is true that the technical education of music students is excluded here. No doubt there are many good arguments for both educational methods, but because of lack of space I cannot go into them here. I will only make a few points. The special schools in the above-mentioned countries are not intended to monopolize the education of the blind; each individual is at liberty to attend a regular school if he wishes to, but this puts a series of difficulties in the path of the teachers and the pupils. The greatest difficulty is the lack of braille literature on the various subjects which are studied. Besides this, a teacher who has to take care of a class of from twenty to thirty seeing students can hardly be expected to take the necessary attitude toward the technical difficulties the blind have to overcome; neither can he be expected to pay the necessary attention to the psychological problems of the blind without neglecting his seeing students. In order to do successful work, there must be a friendly co-operation between teacher and students, and this can be obtained only by the expenditure of extraordinary energy and by great sacrifices of time and money.

Such are the reasons why, in many countries, the boards of education and the directors of schools usually offer strong opposition to the admission of blind pupils into the regular schools. In addition to the already mentioned difficulties which the blind student encounters in the ordinary school, we can add a certain skepticism as to his abilities; a feeling which, of course, would not exist in a special school for the blind.

In Germany, the special secondary school admits the talented students following their graduation from elementary schools—both regular schools and schools for the blind—usually at the age of fourteen years. In England, they may enter the special schools at pre-school age; in Scotland, the secondary school for the blind

is only a continuation of the elementary school in the institution for the blind.

The special schools are usually adequately provided with object-teaching material adapted for use with the blind, as well as with models and appliances for the study of mathematics, physics and nature study. All the elementary educational texts have been embossed in braille. They are distributed to all students at minimum prices; to some of them free of charge. The teachers of such a school, as might be expected, have gained through the years a thorough knowledge of the psychological problems of the blind student. They know how to deal with the various difficulties that appear. Long experience has taught them how to limit quantitatively the subject-matter offered and still give enough quality to fit the students for various professions. A supplementary technical instruction, especially in music, side by side with the academic training, is very advantageous; but we must warn against a simultaneous academic and vocational training, for one or the other is bound to be neglected.

Only in a very few exceptional cases will it be possible for the gifted blind student to choose a definite future occupation during the first school years. Many of them develop definite preferences and show definite abilities only after the years of adolescence, and only then can they be trained for a definite line of work.

It does not seem advisable to build up secondary schools in several institutions for the blind in one country. One, or at most two, special schools, one for boys and one for girls, should be sufficient in the larger countries, but, if possible, these should not be connected with institutions for the blind. Perhaps smaller countries could send their few talented blind children to special schools in the larger countries where the same or a similar language is spoken; thus Austria, Switzerland, Holland, the Scandinavian and the Baltic countries might send their students to Germany.

An advanced school of this type requires a scientifically trained teaching staff familiar with all the psychological, ethical, social and economic problems of their blind student body.

The mental and physical development of the blind youngster has to be more closely watched than that of an ordinary child. Educational and social training play an important part for all highly-gifted blind pupils on account of their lack of vision. Things a seeing student learns in the home, or from his companions through social contacts and sports, a blind student who hopes

to attend a university must acquire laboriously and with tremendous effort. Environment is of the greatest importance in the development of the blind youth. In a regular institution for the blind, talented students are likely to develop a superiority complex on account of the lower intellectual level of their fellow-students. In a school where only the talented are admitted, such a thing is not likely to happen. For these reasons it seems advisable to have special advanced schools for the blind rather than to build up advanced courses in the regular institutions for blind children, as is done in Scotland and to some extent in America.

The alternative, which is most frequently found in Italy, Russia, and in the United States, namely, of sending blind students to regular advanced schools, has some advantages, undoubtedly, but also great disadvantages. In this case, the danger lies in the development of inferiority complexes in the blind children if they do not happen to be unusually bright or have the means to provide tutors to make up for what they fail to understand in class. In his contacts with seeing students, the blind child will always stand back—a situation which might affect unfavorably his mental attitude as well as his capacity for achievement.

Modern educational methods being largely based on the project method of teaching and requiring active participation from the students as to observation and daily experience, a blind student among seeing comrades is put to a disadvantage.

It should be possible to keep complete and up to modern requirements the collection of embossed textbooks needed for the fifty to one hundred students of a special school. Only very seldom and by spending large sums is it feasible to provide embossed textbooks in languages, mathematics, physics and nature study for the same number of pupils in as many schools, especially as these books are changed from year to year in the ordinary school.

The daily assignments of the blind pupil in the school with the seeing, and his attendance in classes where the instruction is primarily visual in method and not easily transposable to a tactile conception, require undue concentration, since for the blind the ear is almost the only means of acquiring information. Experience has taught us that a student is often physically exhausted after his university entrance examinations, and therefore loses years of academic or professional study. In addition, age, background, and special technical abilities play important rôles in the education of the blind student; but, in order to pay the required attention to these special problems of the blind, the teacher would have to run the risk of neglecting his seeing pupils.

It is almost always considered desirable not to segregate the blind students from their seeing comrades in order that the latter may early become familiar with the abilities and the limitations, alike, of the blind. But even if the blind attend special schools, such contacts can easily be established by means of social affairs, dances, plays, and sports. An advanced school requires the student to master an extensive general knowledge of ten or twelve subjects. In the teaching of mathematics, sciences, and nature study the project method must be used, and in the social sciences there is required a daily familiarity with current events. In such cases, even the highly gifted blind pupils will be left behind by their seeing classmates of equal talents. In ordinary schools it frequently happens that blind students are graduated out of sympathy, without having actually acquired an adequate amount of knowledge or skill for a successful university career. These difficulties do not exist in a special school for the blind. There are found a properly trained and experienced faculty, adequate facilities, and healthful competition; and inferiority complexes disappear because of successful co-operation under equal conditions as regards technique and method. There, also, it is easier to eliminate the less gifted blind student at the right time, since judgment is not influenced by pity.

If the blind student is graduated from these preparatory schools, the universities and the professional schools are open to him. At the university the blind student may take up almost any subject: theology, philology, law, political economy, education, music or commercial subjects. In many countries there has been a movement to found a special university for the blind, inspired perhaps by the success of the musical academies for the blind in London, Milan and Paris. These plans have never been realized, mostly because of the opposition from the ranks of the blind themselves. It is practically impossible to obtain a thorough academic education with only the help of the existing embossed literature. This literature is a useful help to him, however; otherwise, he will have to rely on making notes in lectures or having the necessary material read to him by seeing people. Written assignments can be done, as in the preparatory school, on the typewriter. Aside from the regular appliances for the blind, like the braille typewriter and hand-slates, he will not need much special equipment. As there are only a few branches of study for which the blind student will be fitted, it is always advisable for him to attend a regular university or professional school. He should try to get in close contact with his instructors and fellow-students in order to

find understanding and sympathy for his deficiencies and to keep up his contacts with the world. If the blind student really works industriously and purposefully he will find seeing comrades who are willing to work with him. For his written assignments and for his dissertations he will need some paid help. Apart from looking up source material and studying archaeological subjects, the attendance at the university does not offer any insurmountable difficulties. The same may be said about the study of music, commercial subjects, or massage; schools teaching these special subjects should offer the necessary technical and working facilities. The purpose of training in these subjects should always be to provide vocational training alongside of the seeing and not separate from them. Competition with seeing students is healthy, as the blind student takes only those subjects in which he shows decided ability or preference. If he has neither preference nor ability for any academic study, he should be advised always against matriculating in a university.

Only the exceptionally talented, physically healthy and determined blind person who has a decided preference for mental work should be encouraged to enter a university. If these requirements are fulfilled, the blind intellectual worker will probably make a better living than a blind manual worker; eyesight will be less missed by the blind man in the intellectual field than by the blind handworker. In the case of a person losing his sight when attending an advanced school or a university, it will have to be seriously considered whether his physical and mental condition justify a continuation of his studies. If the student has a real talent for music, this occupation may be taken up; otherwise, he will have to content himself with one of the more mediocre occupations.

In every country there should be scientific braille libraries and especially departments for hand transcribing. The standard literature for standard subjects should be embossed, and special works which are necessary for students should be transcribed by hand. Organizations protecting the interests of the blind intellectuals should exist in every large country which is seriously interested in helping its blind students. Compared with the interests of the masses of blind people, those of the blind engaged in professions have always been neglected, for the needs of the blind in general are great and the number of blind intellectuals is but small.

Further, it would be desirable to establish special vocational guidance and research offices for this purpose. There is no spe-

cial type of academic calling for the blind; every blind professional man must demonstrate his own value in order to be appointed and to receive recognition. But here is the real core of the question: There are a number of positions in public or private offices or in the open employment market which could be filled by really competent blind persons. It is essential to give individual guidance in order to put the right man in the right place. It will never do to divide the academically trained blind into a few groups and give them this or that kind of work indiscriminately, but individual guidance will make the most of vocational potentialities. It is always easier to find an opening for one or two, here or there, than to find work for whole groups of job-seekers.

OCCUPATIONS

It will be difficult, for the reasons just mentioned, to give a complete solution of the problems brought up in the second part of my paper. The requirements for theologians, philologists, lawyers and political economists vary in all countries of the earth. No doubt, that occupation will be best for the blind person which does not make it necessary for him to get into direct contact with the public or clients too often, or which does not demand quick decisions based on information which has to be obtained from written material. Some quiet desk-work which calls for knowledge, sound judgment, and logical thinking, or a teaching position with no disciplinary responsibility, are the kinds of work for which a blind person is best suited. As conditions vary greatly in different countries and a comparison therefore seems impossible, I shall limit myself to the experiences gathered in Germany and only occasionally refer to similar conditions elsewhere.

It is a fact that we find blind intellectuals in all countries and in all occupations. There are possibilities for blind intellectuals everywhere—under differing conditions, naturally. Here we want to point out that work, with its ideal social and economic contacts, is as much of a necessity for the blind man as it is for the seeing. Wilhelm Steinberg says, in his essay *Die Berufsarbeit in ihrer seelischen Bedeutung für die Blinden*¹ (The Vocation and Its Psychological Importance to the Blind): "Even if financially successful, our mental relation to our work is satisfactory only if it fulfils, at least partially, the three following requirements: First, the characteristic individuality of the human being must find its expression in his work; it must provide an outlet for his creative tendencies. Secondly, the pupil's need

¹ *Beiträge zum Blindenbildungswesen* (Schwarzdruckausgabe). Vol. I, No. 3, p. 69ff.

of appreciation by others must be satisfied in some way; a human being cannot exist without being esteemed by society, and in modern society success in their work wins this esteem for the blind. Finally, satisfactory work offers, especially to persons of a finer mental make-up, a definite excuse for living; it is necessary for such persons to believe that their work helps society and mankind in general."

For a blind person of secondary or academic training to enter an occupation, special ability on the part of the applicant or graduation with honor will always be necessary. If the rating in the final examination is "good," the employer, whether the State or a private person, can be convinced that the candidate will be likely to do good work. One need not hesitate to vouch for his success.

One difficulty in securing a job for the blind person is the question of the help he is to have. His assistant must, technically speaking, make up for his lack of eyesight by reading to him, looking up texts, making notes; briefly, by doing everything that a private secretary does for a seeing man in a leading position. Besides, he has to be the blind man's guide wherever he goes. As little as you can expect every person who rides in an automobile to drive it himself can you expect a blind man to read. The question of a satisfactory assistant is nearly always an obstacle to the placement of a blind person in a position. But, as the chauffeur frees the passenger from the trouble of driving the car and gets him to where he wants to go, speedily and efficiently, the assistant enables the blind man to work better and more efficiently by taking care of the distracting technicalities which would take up too much of his energy and time. Undoubtedly, a blind person is handicapped in the mechanical processes of his work, but often, owing to his well-trained memory and ability to concentrate—numerous instances prove it—he is capable of competing with an efficient seeing person, not only in quality, but also in quantity of work done. The assistant does only what a secretary does for a lawyer, or a nurse for a surgeon. It is needless to say that this statement does not apply to every blind professional man, but on the whole it is correct. It would be desirable if all public and private offices were aware of this.

Unions of blind manual workers aid by providing the blind with working materials at reduced prices, as well as with tools, help in traveling, and guide dogs, and they assist them in various other ways and with considerable expenditure. In the same way, similar organizations should defray part of the expenses of blind professional men for their assistants, thereby greatly diminishing

the difficulty of placing a blind man in a position ; e. g., the interest on a relatively small capital of about \$1,000,000 would give sufficient help towards paying for the necessary assistance for all blind professional men in Germany. It would be gratifying if this suggestion were followed by the Government and by persons of private means.

It may be said here that we have not yet gained much actual experience in the employment of the blind man in professional work. We cannot therefore speak of any general material on the sociological and psychological aspects of blind professional workers. A few available reports and some literary references serve as a basis, although with the condition that each new experiment must demonstrate again the potentialities of the blind intellectual worker.

Professorships

Only very few blind persons go in for teaching at a university, but instructorships or positions as assistants to professors provide a modest remuneration. Lecturing is an added source of income for these men. The expenditure of energy and time, however, will rarely prove profitable. It is rarely possible for a blind instructor or assistant ever to obtain a full professorship, but we have instances which prove that it can be done. We can mention in France, Pierre Villey, Professor of Modern French Literature at the University of Caen ; in Italy, Augusto Romagnoli, Professor at the 'Teachers' Training College in Rome ; in Switzerland, the late Eduard Riggenschach, Professor of Theology at the University of Basle. In Germany, also, we can mention the late Professor Eberhard, Professor of Mathematics at the University of Halle an der Saale ; Cajus Fabricius (semi-blind), Professor of Theology at the University of Berlin ; Bruno Schultz, Professor of Political Economy at the Institute of Technology at Dresden ; and Wilhelm Steinberg, Professor of Sociology and Philosophy at the Institute of Technology in Breslau.

The Church

The Catholic Church is bound by certain rules regarding the employment of its priests. It seems that a man who has not been ordained before becoming blind has hardly any chance of becoming eligible for a position in the ranks of the Church.

The task of the Protestant minister consists in leading the service and taking care of other congregational duties. Numerous examples prove that the blind man is perfectly able to conduct a church service without disturbing the feelings of the congregation.

The administrative duties of a minister, however, offer some difficulties, though with practice these, too, may be overcome. A blind minister can also manage the welfare work in his parish even if his blindness prevents him from acquiring a first-hand impression of the conditions under which the members of his congregation live. It may be said that a blind man who has been called to a church position because of his blindness is especially suited for his work as a father confessor, welfare worker and spiritual adviser of his flock. His defect tends to turn his thoughts towards more spiritual matters. The members of his congregation not infrequently show great confidence in a minister who has had to bear such a tragic fate. The administrative part of church work might offer difficulties, but with a little good-will and co-operation they can be overcome. In a large church, blind ministers could take over the preaching and welfare work as their share, thus relieving their colleagues of these duties. The seeing ministers, on their part, could take over the work of the post of *praeses presbyterii*. This exchange will not be necessary if the wife of the blind clergyman or an official sworn in by the church—perhaps the sexton, a clerk or an assistant—is able to take care of these duties. In order to meet any objections, a blind person would do well to have a trusted person present at the instruction of confirmation candidates or other young people.

Germany has fifteen blind parish clergymen, England thirty-four. In other countries instances of blind clergymen are rare.

Foreign and home missions also provide opportunities for blind clergymen. Here, they can successfully fill positions as preachers, teachers, and general welfare workers. The blind man will not be denied an official permit to carry on these activities if he has the requisite qualifications. As there is, at present, a lack of theological candidates, the church authorities will not oppose a really capable, well-educated, blind person if he also has a good personality, is a gifted speaker and has a true vocation.

Teaching

For the blind teacher in a secondary or elementary school, certain difficulties appear when, after completing his studies, he comes out into the practical world. The problem of discipline, which is difficult even for the seeing person, becomes an almost insurmountable obstacle for the blind teacher. The modern project method of teaching, not only in the sciences but also in ethics and languages, calls for a visual imagery that is seldom found in a person totally blind from early youth. Therefore, theoretical subjects such as religion, history, philosophy, classical and even

modern languages and, in a few cases, mathematics, are the most suitable subjects for a blind teacher. Physics, the sciences and geography are out of the question. In order to maintain discipline and to control what is written on the blackboard, the blind teacher will need a trained assistant who can see. As this assistant will give all the technical help that is needed and keep order, the blind teacher can concentrate on teaching; and, if he is a good pedagogue, he can make up for his lack of visual imagery by vivid and clear lecturing. Love of his work, inherent ability for teaching, and tact will all be necessary to make his work a success. All corrections will have to be done with the aid of his assistant. This will take up much time, and for this reason we would not advise the blind teacher to take up subjects which make a great deal of corrective work necessary—the strain is too great in the long run. The blind teacher will be able to meet all the requirements of a teaching position in an advanced school, even the management of a library, the direction of clubs and reporting at meetings, if he can rely on his assistant. The latter must, however, never try to assume any authority over his blind superior; he is the “eyes”, that is all. In Germany, several blind teachers have given up the use of their assistants in the classroom and make use of trustworthy pupils.

A blind teacher will get the best results in the higher grades of schools for girls. In Germany, about twenty blind teachers are employed in advanced schools; here and there we find them in other countries.

All that has been said about secondary schools holds true also for commercial colleges. Even in vocational, continuation and elementary schools the employment of the blind is possible, but difficult. Here it is of the greatest importance to choose the most suitable subjects. The teaching is more concerned with the imparting of knowledge of a fundamental rather than a scientific character, and the problems of discipline are the same as before. Naturally the blind can find suitable opportunities only in the upper classes where the gaining of knowledge is more important than the acquiring of skill, and even here only with special co-operation from the school authorities and the faculty.

There have always been cases of blind persons as directors and teachers in institutions for the blind; in some cases, even as founders of these institutions. We recall Armitage and Campbell (both in London), Gröpler (Stettin), Knie (Breslau), Pearson (London), Rushton (Liverpool), Schleussner (Nürnberg), and Simonon (Kiel), among many others. Formerly, the point of

view was held in England, as it still is in France, that a school for the blind should employ mostly blind teachers, and only a few seeing ones. In France, the blind teachers were provided with seeing assistants as an aid to discipline. Germany and Italy, among other countries, still hold that every institution for the blind should employ at least one blind teacher; the larger ones, two. In England this idea is opposed (especially by the London educational authorities). They do not trust a blind person's ability because of his lack of sight. Other countries admit a small number of blind teachers but otherwise they share the English point of view. In this, as in many other cases, the blind man will need special consideration on the part of the authorities and of the faculty. But if he teaches certain theoretical subjects and has the help of an educated assistant, or if an exchange of work between the seeing and blind teachers is established by giving the seeing teacher more supervisory duties and the blind more special lecturing, there is every reason to believe that the blind teacher will be successful. As a rule, the blind child will have more faith in a blind teacher; for in the blind teacher one has a reason to expect deeper understanding of the psychological problems of the blind child. His example will usually help to overcome the inferiority complex that is so common with blind children. In England there are fifty-one blind teachers; in Germany, forty-seven.

A very satisfactory, but not sufficiently recognized occupation is that of the blind private teacher. A person who has acquired a good knowledge of foreign languages, either at a university or by extended visitation in foreign countries, will always be able to make a living as a free-lance teacher. But he must not be too one-sided; he must profit by every good opportunity that comes his way to make use of all chances for work; he must be willing to hold morning or evening classes for adults wishing to prepare for commercial or technical examinations, to tutor less intelligent children or those retarded by illness, to teach foreign correspondence to ambitious commercial apprentices and to persons wishing to go abroad, and to give literature and history lessons in boarding-schools for girls, clubs, etcetera. Such courses very seldom offer any disciplinary trouble and, in most instances, he will be able to procure the necessary literature on the subject in braille from the libraries so that he will need seeing help only for the correction of papers.

Writing

Blind persons who are good speakers and who have well-founded knowledge of their subjects, some imagination, good

manners and self-confidence, may also make good as newspaper reporters, critics and lecturers.

Music

The professions of private music teaching and playing the organ have always been considered suitable for the sightless. Blind musicians may be employed in conservatories, private music schools, as music conductors in churches, and organists in parishes of all faiths. The position of choir-director offers some difficulty. France has done the most in this field. Germany, England and Italy have done their share in preparing the field for their blind music teachers, but nowhere outside of France has the blind musician found such undisputed appreciation.

Mechanical music, the radio and the impoverishment of wide circles owing to the current financial depression force us, however, to make a more careful selection of blind music students and put only the most gifted and skilful among them in competition with the seeing. The oversupply of blind music teachers and organists must not bring about an increase in mendicancy; that would not help the cause.

In all countries we can mention successful blind writers and concert artists whose names are famous and of wide repute. Such callings are reserved for persons of talent, whether blind or seeing. These things cannot be learned although they require thorough study. But whoever succeeds in making a name for himself, either as a writer or as a concert artist, will find that his art builds him a golden bridge to the satisfaction of his material wants.

The Law

A blind lawyer will have to face and overcome the same difficulties as we have discussed in the case of the clergyman and the teacher. During his practical training in the various courts of law he will need a reliable guide and assistant. This will be necessary, too, for such positions as public prosecutor, administrative authority, attorney or notary, for the blind lawyer's work in the higher courts (whether civil or criminal), in confiscation proceedings, recording judgments and reading them aloud, making out briefs, in guardianship cases—in short, in every phase of his work. Usually this assistant is under oath with the lawyer when in court.

After his final examinations, the question arises whether he should try to obtain a position in a court or establish himself as an independent lawyer. In the courts we find two distinct types of work, the position of judge and work in the administrative depart-

ment. The authorities have always opposed the employment of the blind as judges. It seems that it would be expedient to create a special post for the blind lawyer outside of the usual organization of the court. In Germany, several blind lawyers have been appointed to coach future judges and administrative officials for their examinations. The work in administrative offices is of various kinds; usually, a certain set of qualifications will fit one for only a certain type of work. Blind lawyers are working successfully in the various administrative offices of the German Reich, and in the states or municipalities. However, Germany is here an exception. Details on this subject can be found in a pamphlet issued by the Marburg *Blindenstudienanstalt*.

All countries have successful blind lawyers. Many have specialized, though most of them limit their activities to actions of the civil courts. Partnership with a seeing colleague is not considered advantageous as the blind partner will find it extremely difficult, if not impossible, to substitute for his colleague without being very familiar with the material in hand. Only large firms can afford to assign different types of work to their different members. Blind lawyers might do good work in advisory offices in large cities where the work is of a more general nature. Other opportunities include positions as counsels to large companies and business firms, trade unions, or other organizations. Many examples have proved that this can be done successfully. There are forty-one blind lawyers in Germany, about thirty in England and some in other countries.

Political Economy

There are several instances where blind persons have taken up the study of political economy. Some of the successful students have been placed in the treasury department of the Reich. Large business concerns, or newspaper syndicates, also offer opportunities for men educated in this field.

For those who have taken up the study of political economy, insurance work is also a possibility, as shown in many instances in the United States, though the preparation for this work there is of a more commercial nature. In many cases a blind economist is able to direct a welfare organization for the blind or a guidance and employment bureau, something about which I want to say more later. All our experience, however, teaches us to advise the study of law as a major with political economy as a minor. The employment opportunities for economists seem to be on the decrease.

Medicine and Engineering

Occasionally, we find blind medical doctors and engineers who have become blind during their studies or at the beginning of their careers, and who have kept up their work. There are medical doctors, medical writers, lecturers, and engineers, working as commercial and technical managers of their own or of other concerns, but these are exceptional cases. They show, however, how important it is to make it possible for professional men who become blind between the ages of thirty and forty, and are still in the prime of life, to continue in their special or in a related field.

Commerce

The well-trained commercial student or correspondent, with a good knowledge of foreign languages, will find many chances in business concerns as manager, correspondent, or sales manager. With the aid of a shorthand machine, dictaphone and standard typewriter, he will be able to cope with the demands of his work. Also, the position of business manager of welfare organizations or workshops for the blind is suitable for the blind. In applying for such a position, a man who has become blind later in life or who has some sight, will stand a better chance than one who has been totally blind all his life. The latter will have to confine his activities to typing and stenography.

Home Teaching

The profession of home teaching had its origin in Scotland. From there it reached England, America, and recently, Germany. The English authorities believe that a seeing person is better for such a position, and many other countries, mostly because of lack of experience, share this view. But here, as in other fields, success depends upon a careful selection of applicants. Not every blind person is fitted for this highly responsible and difficult work. The blind person will need an assistant or, in many cases, the help of the welfare worker or public health nurse. In any case, we believe that here the same preparation and qualifications should be required as in the case of the blind teacher. No matter whether the blind home teacher has attended an institution of higher learning, an academy, or a professional school, if he is efficient, likes his work, has passed the prescribed examination, and has not only intelligence and technical skill but also a sympathetic heart for his blind comrades, his work will be successful.

Massage

Finally, I want to say a few words about massage, as a vocation which requires advanced and specialized training. The first

requirements of a masseur are good health, physical strength, agreeable presence and the faculty of getting along with the patients. The training offers no particular difficulties. If the blind masseur is assured of the co-operation of the local doctors and sickness-insurance organizations, he should find success if he is competent. In the beginning he should be assisted in getting an office with the necessary equipment, if he is not employed in a hospital, a public bath or some athletic club. A good location is important in drawing a good clientèle. With the co-operation of the local doctors he should be able to establish himself in a comparatively short time.

CONCLUSION

According to all that has been said before, it is not sufficient that the blind person be a good student, pass his examinations and acquire the necessary practice and skill; it is still necessary that all organizations which are concerned, directly or indirectly, with vocational care and placement, should take the view that the blind man is capable of filling many positions. Skepticism on the part of responsible organizations will always find an echo in those quarters where the blind professional man or manual worker is looked upon as an object of charity. The blind man himself must shake off this feeling. He must take his fate into his own hands and accept responsibility for the completion of his studies and the carrying on of his profession. Only then will he change from an object of charity to an independent person, in control of his own future, and able to make his own way in life.

It is not to be expected that the blind professional man will succeed immediately. He must be given some assistance during the stage of transition until he has found his self-confidence and a position that is secure. Unfortunately, there is a preference among blind intellectuals for salaried positions which give the right to a pension later. It would be desirable for the blind, in spite of their limited field, to compete more in the general professions. Here, they would be better able to show their ability than in a subordinate position, although very few of them would ever command an income as large as that of a seeing person with the same qualifications. But here, the blind man is able to make up for his shortcomings by putting in more time and zest. We should expect all welfare organizations for the blind, public or private, to assist such blind professional men in their entrance into their professions by providing the necessary money, either as a loan, free of interest, or simply as a gift.

Summarizing what I have said, it should be evident that, by purposeful organization and proper selection, there is a chance for a large percentage of educated blind men to make a living in suitable positions. I should be very grateful if the delegates to the New York World Conference would give a thought to this aspect of work for the blind and supplement my findings in Germany by information gained through investigations in their own respective countries. A co-operation of this type would enable us to complete our statistics for the World Conference of 1933.

We must appeal to the governments to take more active interest in the education of the talented blind, and in vocational guidance and placement work for them, instead of leaving them to themselves as has been done hitherto. As, of course, the number of blind candidates for higher callings is very small—it is not our intention to create a blind proletariat of intellectuals—it should be possible to help each individual with his special problems. If the necessary funds can be procured for the mass of the blind in general, if schools, workshops, convalescent and vacation homes are established for them, we have the right to expect that means should be found, also, for the higher education of the blind. We have the right to expect the states and municipalities to authorize a subsidy for the education and placement of highly talented blind persons, or to provide the means to establish them in one of the professions.

The purpose of this paper has been to appeal to the nations and the parliaments to induce their governments to take an active interest in the blind intellectual.

DISCUSSION

DR. CARL STREHL (CONTINUING): When I was asked to write a paper on "Higher Education for the Blind and Occupations Open to Them," I sent to all European nations, to the United States of America and to Canada, a questionnaire concerning different matters which have a very important bearing on this subject. Unfortunately, these questionnaires have so far not all been returned to me, and therefore I am not able to give you here the results of this inquiry.

I am rather astonished and I am afraid I am a little displeased that the work which we began in Vienna two years ago has not been mentioned. Intellectual work needs international understanding. If we want to understand each other, and if we want to come near each other, we must try to appreciate what has been done. We do appreciate your work, and we hope that this work will be understood internationally, but we hope you appreciate also the work that was established by the Vienna Congress in 1929.

SEÑOR ALEJANDRO MEZA (MEXICO): It is more than a satisfaction, it is more than a privilege, it is an unusual honor to be able, as I am on this solemn occasion, to address an assembly of the most cordial, prominent and

authorized representatives of the blind throughout the world. It is more than gratifying for me to state that the Ignacio Trigueros Association of Mexico City, of which I am the Secretary-General, expresses through me its entire agreement with the idea expressed by the eminent Dr. Strehl. We are in full accord with this idea to secure for the blind, especially for those desiring to acquire a higher education, exactly what Dr. Strehl has so brilliantly expressed to you, but I want to refer especially to the musical profession.

Music, as you all know, is now passing through a crisis all over the world. The tendency of our society in Mexico is that educators of the blind should encourage the study of music only in regard to those blind persons highly gifted for it; otherwise the profession of music does not offer any opportunity for practical usefulness to the blind.

Allow me to express the great importance which I attach to Dr. Strehl's idea, in the name of my society in Mexico City.

MR. G. C. BROWN (GREAT BRITAIN): In the first place, I wish to thank you for your courtesy in allowing me, a mere guest of this Conference, to address you. My only excuse for doing so is because I feel that at the school over which I have the honor to preside we have achieved one or two things which are not generally known, and which, if followed in other countries, would be found to be a great help in the full and complete education of young people in our schools.

Before undertaking to do this, I should like to call attention to one slight error in Dr. Strehl's excellent paper, with the majority of which I am of course, in great agreement. It is not mentioned in the summary, but if you read the paper you will find that he says that in England we are totally opposed to the idea of even one blind teacher in our schools. I think perhaps my best answer to that is to say that at Worcester, of my seven regular assistant masters, one is totally blind, and two are partially, or have half-sight, and of those masters who come to the school to give occasional instruction, one is totally blind. We are not in the least opposed to the principle of the employment of blind teachers, but we find that with their great attention to their handicaps, it is very necessary to have a large portion of teachers with full sight.

I should like to stress the importance of general education, which is the peculiarity, perhaps, of what are called in England the public schools, and I believe in America are called the private schools, because in such schools as the Kent School it runs along similar lines to the great English public schools. In these schools we attach a great deal of importance, not only to the academic side, but to what I may call the attitude, the official games and to the non-official and social side. As Dr. Strehl also puts it, the academic side brings the blind student up to the same standard as the seeing, without any difference in age whatsoever. In the official games I include only those which can be brought to the same level of excellence as those of the schools for the sighted, and in which competition may take place on equal terms with the schools for the sighted.

I should like to refer to two only, not in a spirit of boastfulness, but because I think they might help you when you are thinking of what games you should adopt in your schools, and how to proceed with them. I refer only to two games, that is, to rowing and to chess. We have brought both up to a very high sighted standard. I may say that yesterday morning in

your *New York Times* I saw a picture of the Columbia eight out for a practice, and our boys race in exactly the same boats. They compete against the other great schools of England from Eton downward, and they compete with the men's clubs all over the Midlands of England. We do it with a fair portion of success. We lose more than we win, not because my boys are blind, but because I have fifty to choose from, whereas other schools have five hundred.

As to chess, you may like to hear that we have established the strongest school in the British Isles. Since the foundation of the club we have played ninety-four matches with other schools, and when I say other schools I mean the seeing schools, and we have won ninety-one and lost three.

These games are valuable not only in the ordinary way that games are valuable, in giving the boy a fine and upright carriage and a good-disciplined body, but also they enable him to keep in constant contact with the seeing world. This proves, too, that excellence is merely a matter of opportunity, and they have the opportunity in these games and they excel. If they only get opportunities later on when they leave the school and the university, I know they will also excel in those.

SEÑOR PARDO OSPINA (COLOMBIA): In my official character as Director of the Colombian Institute for the Blind and as a representative of Colombia, I desire to speak for a short time in order to represent in part South America; and as my companions from South America—Chile, Brazil, Argentina, etc.—are sure to speak also, I wish only to refer at this moment to some of the thoughts expressed by representatives of England, Germany, France, and other countries.

Undoubtedly, the blind have as much opportunity in many human activities as the sighted. As a lawyer I have practiced the profession without any difficulty and I should say that in the sphere of law the blind have a wide field. In the priesthood they can also practice the profession without any difficulty. In regard to what has been said here, if I remember rightly, by a delegate of England, about free education of the blind, in Colombia we follow this system with admirable results.

Education must be given to the blind absolutely as it is given to the sighted child, without omitting any of the pedagogical methods provided for these particular cases.

As these discussions must be very brief, we shall leave the aspect of education for some other occasion and at this time I will express my thanks, in the name of my country, to the American government and to the Organizing Committee, for the kind and cordial welcome that has been given to the Colombian delegation upon its arrival in New York.

MR. H. RANDOLPH LATIMER (U. S. A.): I have listened with tremendous interest to Dr. Strehl's paper on what I presume are called, in the set-up for the 1933 Conference, "superior professions". I have been honored in having associated with me Mr. Murray B. Allen of Utah on this question of superior professions, and when the doctor complains of not having had the support of this country, he is simply driving a dart straight into me, for I have not been awake and aware of just what this whole matter is, but I do know now, and the doctor is most heartily assured of the greatest possible co-operation on the part of Mr. Allen and myself between now and the time he wants to present his authoritative paper.

DR. R. S. FRENCH (U. S. A.): With regard to higher education, we in California have perhaps committed ourselves more completely than any other place in the world to the principle that the blind person shall have all the education that he can possibly receive and that a lot of people shall not meddle too much in it, that he shall have a great degree of self-determination. I think that is a very important point to emphasize. We cannot possibly, by any measures so far devised, tell whether a person is fully capable of receiving higher education or not and I think it is an unwarranted interference with the right of the individual to say that this or that or the other person is fit for higher education, and that somebody else isn't. That should be left largely to him, and every opportunity should be put in his way to secure higher education. Just one word more. The mere matter of getting a person into a profession and making him succeed is not the meaning of higher education. Vastly more important than that, is the right of the individual to self-development and, as I have mentioned, self-determination.

I wish to say this, that one of our most brilliant students who recently took his Ph.D., to whom our Dr. Perry has given the title of "the blind Socrates"—I should like to change the word "blind" and call him "the modern Socrates" because I think he is a Socrates without any reference to his blindness—will most likely not succeed markedly in a professional way, but he succeeded most marvelously in the broadest possible human way, and it seems to me that that ought to be the chief criterion, if not the sole criterion of success.

PROFESSOR PIERRE VILLEY (FRANCE): Since yesterday evening we have been talking very eloquently about the improvement in the lot of the blind from every angle. Since nine o'clock this morning we have been discussing the education of the blind. Will you allow a fellow-countryman of Valentin Haüy and of Louis Braille to evoke these two great names which have not yet been mentioned here.

The mere mention of these two names will make you realize, I think, with what interest, with what eagerness France is watching the progress of this World Congress—the first World Congress to discuss questions relative to blindness.

My reason for mentioning these two names at this moment is to emphasize the exceptional importance which we attach to the report which my excellent friend, Dr. Strehl, has just submitted to us with such authority. The lines he has indicated are essentially those due to the influence of Valentin Haüy and the magnificent alphabet of Louis Braille, without which so many fields of ambition would have remained closed to us.

May I say that if, due to particular circumstances which I shall describe tomorrow, France has not gone as far as Germany in the very interesting and promising experiment described by Dr. Strehl, she has, nevertheless, made some particularly interesting attempts in that direction.

What specially fascinates us in the discussions which we have just heard is not so much the physical training as the training which enables the blind person to earn an independent living in an interesting way—the training by which we prepare him to lead an independent life among the seeing. In France we have some professors, we have some lawyers, we have many tradesmen, we also have made some very interesting experiments, but in closing I wish to call the attention of my listeners to this capital point:

It is my belief that there is a great deal to do—and it has already been done in Germany—in the field of legal studies. In France, as in many other countries, there is in this field a twofold obstacle. First, in many countries as well as in my own, it is, because of tradition, impossible for the blind to become magistrates. As for the legal profession, the great difficulty is of a financial nature. In my country a lawyer is compelled to wait for years before he can earn his living, and I am speaking of the seeing man with considerable talent. These, you see, are the two chief obstacles which are met by the blind in the particularly tempting field of the legal profession.

If this Conference were to make a proposal in favor of the admission of the blind to the magistrature in all countries, and if, on the other hand, it could create a state of mind which would, in time, do away with these difficulties, a bridge would eventually be built to smooth the way to the legal profession for those possessing proper qualifications. By so doing, we should be giving to the world an indication of the greatest interest in the ultimate admission of the blind to the liberal professions.

DR. STREHL: I am most thankful for all the contributions that have been given to my paper, and I might say a word on a few misunderstandings which might have come because the English I have been using was not so clear as it ought to have been.

As to one thing, of course, it is impossible to give in an outline, and even in a paper, everything and anything. So I could just touch on those facts which Mr. Brown—whom I appreciate very much—mentioned.

Secondly, as to the blind teacher in England, I know that there is a certain opposition, and this opposition is very strong in London, and you know, as Paris is for us France, London is for us England, and we believe that if they really oppose the blind teacher in London they oppose him in England. I hope—I know—that in England there are pretty good associations and very good principals and even a very keen and very interesting ministry that will overcome this difficulty and find a way to make room for the blind teacher, not only in one or another special private institution but in all the institutions.

I was astonished to find blind teachers in a Scottish institution and hardly any in the English schools. It is a rule with Germany to have at least one or even two on the staff; no more. We don't believe in exceeding it.

As to what Professor Villey said—of course, it is different in all countries, and it is quite impossible for us to break the bias at once, but if we work together and if we try to win the goal, I am sure we will get ahead.

And now another misunderstanding on the part of Mr. Latimer—Mr. Latimer's thoughts—I want to say something against them that I did not intend to. I know he is trying his best to help us, but the Geneva Congress is not going to be a congress on the professional, or rather the intellectual education and the professions, but it is going to be a general congress, and one of the subjects will be higher education and occupations open to those who are well-educated.

But, ladies and gentlemen, I am most thankful for the opportunity you gave me to express my thoughts to you, and I hope that the round-table talks and the correspondence with all of you will lead to further success.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF THE BLIND

AUGUSTO ROMAGNOLI

*Director, R. Scuola di Metodo per gli Educatori dei Ciechi,
Rome, Italy*

I have been blind from infancy. My father was my first teacher. He was a workman; he had not the training, but at the same time he had not the prejudices of the professional teachers who often make "mountains out of mole-hills." He loved me and made me share his own life. In the workshop I knew how to use the saw, the plane and the compasses; anything that could not be touched he described to me in a few words. In the country he taught me to walk beside him and to recognize by ear the proximity of a wall, a hedge, a tree or a ditch. He taught me to swim in the river when we bathed together. If there was a square to be crossed in a hurry, he made me cross it diagonally, explaining that the diagonal is the shortest way.

My second teacher was a companion, a few years older than myself. We used to play, run, and tumble about together, and I would make a special effort to do whatever he did. His father did not wish him to go about with the street boys, but sometimes, however, we did. He adopted the attitude of an elder brother toward me. I have no recollection of his ever having said, "You can't do this or that because you can't see," but he formed a rough estimate of my capabilities and helped me or did things for me without, I believe, realizing to what extent I was his inferior on account of my blindness or because of my age.

My third teacher was a blind schoolmaster, entirely self-educated and without special school training. His father was also a workman and had brought up his son at home and in the workshop, and then read him books on history, pedagogy, etc., at the same time preparing him by means of private lessons to pass his examinations as a schoolmaster. He taught me the "three R's," and inspired me with a love of study and good conduct. I am specially grateful to him for having told me his experiences as a blind man in the midst of those blessed with sight, and he taught me how to act like a man in the society of men.

Later on I attended a public school and the University, doing my exercises in pencil and without expecting a knowledge of braille or any of the other devices for the teaching of the blind on the part of my masters. I made use of readers—old men or children—for the books which I did not possess (in braille). I always kept before me the idea that any assistance in my work which I might ask from my masters or fellow-students would prejudice me in their esteem or in my career. This does not mean that I was not grateful to those who did help me in my difficulties—certainly much greater owing to my condition. Just as I was able to be a student amongst others who could see, without expecting special treatment, so I was able later on to be a professor of philosophy and history in a high school.

I have ventured to draw your attention to such personal details as these because they constitute the basic experiences which are the foundation of the methods adopted in the Training School for Teachers of the Blind (*Scuola di Metodo per gli Educatori dei Ciechi*), with the constitution and management of which the Fascist Government has been good enough to entrust me.

✓ The School receives teachers already trained as masters for the state elementary schools, and puts them through a course of training, lasting a year, among blind pupils entrusted to them in groups and by rotation, to be taught and guided under the supervision of myself and three assistants—a training similar to that of medical students under the guidance of their instructors in hospital wards. Two or three weekly meetings help to co-ordinate the various experiences, provide for the discussion of interesting cases, and refer to the ordinary systems of pedagogy and psychology the variations and peculiarities which blindness calls for in perception, in the formation of images, and in the means or instruments of study and work.

The special feature of this School is, in fact, the adaptation of the instruction and education of the blind to the ordinary methods of teaching, counting, above all, on the personal initiative of the students which their teachers must encourage or restrain rather than direct towards rigid programs with pre-established rules. American educators have no need of diffuse explanations of this system, as it is that by which Helen Keller was educated and is that which makes the Montessori method so highly appreciated.

In Italy a school of this sort was much needed to rejuvenate the institutes for the blind, which were suffering from traditional methods and a misdirected pity which looked upon education more as a solace than as a useful standby in misfortune. Up to the year 1924 all our blind institutions were supported by public charity, were looked upon by the State as charitable institutions and in many cases combined schools for children with homes for adults.

The Fascist Government adopted the program presented by both the Italian Union of the Blind (*Unione Italiana dei Ciechi*) and the National Federation of Institutions for the Blind (*Federazione Nazionale delle Istituzione pro Ciechi*). The Royal Decrees of December 30 and 31, 1923, declared that compulsory education should be extended to the blind, conserving the autonomy of the existing institutions maintained by public charity, but voting state funds to increase endowments and give the institutions the necessary means to carry out their programs. It obliged the County Councils to pay for the support of poor blind children, as well as for the re-education of adults in special institutions and training in some profession or trade. It favored the specialization of the thirty institutions existing in Italy into four groups, those for:

1. Children.
2. Young people with special aptitude for music or literary studies.
3. Training for a trade.
4. Gathering together the blind, who do not find work, into special workshops and homes.

When the Training School for Teachers of the Blind was instituted it was established that each blind institution should engage as managers, teachers, and organizers, those who had acquired the diploma of that institution. In this way the problem of the blind in Italy and their education was solved in a thoroughly comprehensive and organized manner with the minimum of means at disposal. We have no pretentious and privileged institutions maintained at the expense of the state as in other countries, but all the institutions enjoy the same consideration, the same support, the same guarantee. The provinces are on a par with the capital.

The Training School for Teachers of the Blind has no endowment, not even a house of its own, but is lodged in the Margherita di Savoia Institute for the Blind (*Istituto Margherita di*

Savoia per i Ciechi) in Rome, as the result of an arrangement made with the Ministry of National Education which has given to the Institute the money required to build a new and suitable building, where, along with the teachers' training school, have been installed the kindergarten, elementary school, and boarding accommodation for about sixty blind children whom the Institute receives at its own expense or at the expense of the families of the pupils or of the respective County Councils. These children are entrusted to the teachers' training school which uses them for the training of future teachers, and for testing improvements in methods, or in teaching material. Such improvements are then communicated to the other institutes.

The Government bears the entire expense of the working of the School and also of the teaching material distributed to the other institutes. In addition, it has founded twelve yearly scholarships for training teachers in order to create, in a few years, the specialized staff needed in all the institutes, and also to spread amongst the teachers in the other State schools a true knowledge of the blind and their schools, as a form of propaganda. This will make it possible for the blind to be admitted to schools, factories, and offices along with those who can see.

Since the teachers in the various institutions for the blind all come from the same training school, a bond of union is being formed, in this way, amongst all the institutions which are united in a National Federation. In the same way all the blind are organized in the Italian Union of the Blind, which has also the right to have a representative take part in the management of each institution which has to do with us.

The Government has wished to recognize and strengthen this solidarity of our free association with each other and with the Government by constituting, as a department of the Ministry of National Education, the Royal Consulting Commission for the Education of the Blind, composed of Dr. Nicolodi, President of the Italian Union of the Blind; Comm. Poggiolini, President of the National Federation of Institutions for the Blind; and the Director of the Training School.

These valuable relationships are also strengthened by the National Braille Press (*Stamperia Nazionale Braille*), which, since 1924, has printed almost 50,000 volumes. Nearly all these volumes have been distributed at the expense of the Ministry of National Education. Also, for two years we have had a circulat-

ing library in Genoa called the "Queen Margherita National Circulating Library" (*Biblioteca Nazionale Circolante Regina Margherita*). Besides these, we have three publications: *The Argo*, printed in ordinary type; the *Corriere dei Ciechi*, in braille; and the *Genariello*, which took its name from De Pinedo's hydro-plane, and is sent gratis to all blind children, bringing them news of their more fortunate brothers and stirring up a healthy desire to emulate them.

This brotherhood between those who see and those who do not see, from their earliest childhood and during their earliest school years, is our principal aim, convinced as we are that the best education is that which each one acquires spontaneously, adapting himself to, and making the most of, his environment.

We believe that after the blind have spent some years in special schools for teaching them to read, write and acquire a conception of form and line and position in space, the best thing for them is to finish their education among those who see. For this reason all Italian elementary schools are obliged by law to accept blind pupils who may desire to be enrolled in the fourth or higher classes.

Public opinion is not, however, sufficiently prepared for this; hence in practice only a few blind children are able at the age of ten or twelve years to take part with advantage in ordinary life. For the most part their families are poor, and books and other means of study are very expensive.

Institutes for the blind, therefore, must take the place of the family, and form centers for propaganda and for model welfare work, as well as keep up schools for training in music, piano-tuning, massage, and preparation for agricultural or industrial careers, to say nothing of workshops to provide employment for those who are unable to find work elsewhere.

The thirty institutes are dividing up these duties according to the four types mentioned above. But with regard to the methods and special teachers, it is evident that we must take into consideration only those institutes which receive blind children.

Our Training School offers, to those undergoing training, two fields of experiment relating to blindness; viz., children not yet educated or in process of education, and examples and models of what well-trained pupils can do, the director and some of his able co-operators being themselves blind.

Blind teachers are also admitted to the training course, and these afford an important field of observation and experiment for their colleagues who see, whilst the latter are excellent co-operators with their blind colleagues in reading to them and accompanying them and describing what they see in a museum or monument or panorama. Often, with advantage, we put together a blind and a seeing student to organize the lessons and the sports of the children. In the same way it has been found useful to have the teaching staff of blind institutes composed of blind and sighted teachers.

Another problem which we have successfully solved is the co-education of the blind and the partially-blind. On this same principle useful experiments have been made by putting a few sighted children along with ours. Companions with sight or partial sight are the best trainers for the blind in running, games, and the understanding and representation of material objects; whereas, living with the blind almost invariably has a beneficial effect on the sighted. It often makes them more gentle, develops their powers of reflection, and stimulates their study of the abstract and formative workings of the mind.

This co-education has the advantage, also, of obliging the teachers to speak always with parallel reference to the senses of sight, touch and hearing, and by this means accustoms the blind to having at least an intelligent notion of the world as seen by the sighted. At the same time the latter become accustomed to observe many tactual and auditory aspects of reality, and to acquire other sense perceptions which the superiority of the sense of sight causes them ordinarily to neglect. In this way the gap of lack of understanding between the blind and the sighted is bridged over or, at any rate, diminished, the more so as there are many of the former who more or less retain an appreciable degree of sight. Co-education amongst the reading and working blind makes it possible for each to benefit reciprocally, according to the various degrees of keenness or development of sight or other senses.

By continually living with the blind, the teachers in our school also become accustomed to tactual, auditory, and atmospheric appreciation of an intellectual and aesthetic value, in such a way as to become able to direct and guide the children in their sense experiences which, in general, are only made use of by those who are themselves blind.

This collaboration, which is outside of the routine, rather than of it, but rendered habitual by community living on the part of the blind and the seeing of different ages and different degrees of culture, constitutes the special feature of our School. It is rather like one big family where there are younger brothers to be brought up and older brothers who co-operate in doing so.

The program is not limited to teaching the different subjects, but embraces the whole of life. The student-teachers not only teach in class but look after the children at meal-times, organize their games, and take them on shopping expeditions or on visits to friends, public buildings, etc.

The object-teaching material is obtained here and there, as little as possible being made to order, since we prefer to adapt what is already on the market. The classrooms are supplied with plaster casts of masterpieces of sculpture, chosen from the very complete Vallerdi Collection. We have a collection of models of vaulted ceilings, domes, and architectural features, bought from the Provincial Association for Technical Instruction in Milan, so that the children, acquainted with the fundamental elements, may later on, by touch and sound and clear description, be able to take an interest in these aesthetic pleasures, at least to the point of being initiated into and appreciating the interest taken in such things by those who see.

Drawings in relief of the principal monuments are reproduced and these enable the pupils to find their bearings on visiting them, and to fix their attention on the details.

We have also collections of medallions to interest the blind in the different features and the different expressions that the face takes according to the various emotions. From the pleasure which our blind pupils derive from touching and reproducing such things, no matter how roughly, either in plaster or on paper, we are certain that this teaching is useful.

Geographical reliefs or reproductions of mountain panoramas, houses scattered along a road, bridges, streams, woods, railways, lakes, etc., are useful for giving an idea of things in the mass. That which one has touched excites the desire to visit it, and in this way the children are better prepared for excursions in the country and visits to public buildings or factories, after which the models are once more examined with the object of fixing the children's sensations and ideas.

In this connection all our material has been supplied by the firm of Signor Cav. Nicola Rossi of Milan, where the models we required which cannot be obtained on the market were expressly made for us—a co-operation which has been very highly appreciated.

Besides the materials for aesthetic or ideational education there is also occupational material. The little ones have boxes of prisms of different forms and sizes—wooden blocks to be joined together by grooves and ridges, of which they make staircases, walls and towers, seeing who can build the highest without shaking or knocking them down. Then, there is the *Meccano*, with which they spend many happy hours on wet Sundays and, in addition, they have games in the open air, such as tricycling, target shooting and football. In all these things we know that we have much to learn from America and we are doing our best to imitate her.

There are many opportunities in life in an institution, and we endeavor to multiply them, and to stimulate the children, little by little, to take part in these forms of activity which are the most useful because they are half play and half work, such as making little boxes or brackets, carts or other toys in wood, cardboard, wicker-work or straw; bookbinding and gardening. For the girls there are kitchen work, hand and machine sewing, cutting out, knitting, washing, general housework, simple embroidery and fancy work.

Naturally, music is not neglected, but this comes into the general educational scheme by means of dramatized interpretations, and rhythmic or figure dances. Every one of our blind and deaf pupils enjoys taking part in these. Music, in fact, is taught as a means to education, not as a profession; not only because nowadays it is very difficult to get employment for a blind musician, but also because in every case professional preparation must be built up on the basis of a complete all-round preparation. My maxim is this; first men, then workmen.

It is evident that this variety of occupations necessitates a very complete training of the student-teachers. They are selected every year by the Ministry of National Education by a competitive examination in which account is taken first, of their intellectual and practical culture; then of the experience gained in blind institutions; and finally, of all the elements which are likely to ensure seriousness of life and aims.

In the training school the student-teachers are assisted in their practice of handwork and drawing so that they can teach

the boys the various forms of activity above mentioned, leaving it to the students themselves to find out the suitable forms and instruments, if they exist, or to think out the necessary construction of such which the management of the Institute then undertakes to have made.

It so happens that year by year the more intelligent masters bring a positive contribution to the School. It is our intention that all those who have qualified at the Institute should keep in touch with each other by means of a periodical publication. Its place is taken, in the meantime, by frequent correspondence and meetings during the Triennial Congress of the Italian Union of the Blind. In this way the Training School does not refuse but rather favors collaboration with all other institutes.

In my opinion, however, the most serious problem in the education of the blind, and one which leads us beyond elementary education, is the formation of character. An important problem for all, but a *sine qua non* for us—it is what I said my third teacher taught me in acquainting me with his experiences of blindness in social and moral relationships.

A blind person must be specially endowed with those gifts which constitute the inner light and compensate for the lack of the outer light, giving him serenity, amiability, and other qualities which attract the help of those who see. In order to form character in others there is only one royal road, that is, to have character ourselves. Religion of course is certainly the greatest factor; reading good books, regular attendance at church, acts of unselfishness are also a help. In the case of the blind we run up against the obstacle of pity which often makes others give way to their weaknesses or hesitate to tell them the deficiencies due to their handicap.

Our chief care is, therefore, to see that the student-teachers possess definite qualities of heart and character as well as a high sense of the responsibility of life and of their mission.

In our weekly meetings we pay special attention to discovering weaknesses which occasionally manifest themselves in our young pupils and towards which we are apt too often to be indulgent in ourselves. *Gnóthi seauton* must always be the basis of every philosophy, and *Medice, cura te ipsum*, the basis of all pedagogy. These ideas are the principal subjects of my private talks with each of the student-teachers, for which I get abundant material from the diary which each of them has to keep, describing his successes or failures in the education of the children entrusted to his care and also in the carrying out of our program.

The most profound satisfaction which this School has given me is to have learned from some of the student-teachers, even several years after they have left, that the School has made them better and more able to face their own private difficulties. This, to me, is the best guarantee that they will be true and successful teachers.

The following are a few statistics on the Training School for Teachers of the Blind, Rome, Italy:

Number of pupil-teachers from 1925 to 1931:

Those who have taken their diploma..... 64

Those who have not a diploma..... 11

Those studying at present..... 15

—
Total..... 90

Number of our graduates employed at present in the
institutes for the blind..... 46

DISCUSSION

MISS M. M. R. GARAWAY (GREAT BRITAIN): Professor Romagnoli speaks of the fact that in Italy they have a training school for their teachers of the blind. Their teachers have first been fully qualified as ordinary teachers and then they go for a year's special training to this school.

I want to say what we are trying to do in England. We have no special training school, but the body that I have the honor to represent has for years conducted examinations for teachers at the request of the Government. The Government says that all teachers in schools for the blind must within two years take our examination, and we say that every teacher must first have a year's experience in a school for the blind. We then examine them on braille reading and writing and the theory of braille, and on the teaching of arithmetic and especially on the theory of teaching blind children; we confine ourselves entirely to the questions dealing with blind children. We also ask them to give us one optional subject.

We have also an examination for home teachers. We ask of them also a knowledge of braille and of Moon; a knowledge of professional subjects, on all matters relating to the blind, on insurance, on hospitals—everything that they would find necessary in visiting the blind in their homes. And we also ask of them a knowledge of what we call "pastime occupations"—that is, at least four different kinds of hand-work that they are prepared to teach to the blind in their own homes. They may have more than four, but generally speaking it is only four.

We have also an examination of craft instructors. The craft instructors must be first fully qualified craftsmen, having passed their apprenticeship or something equal to that.

We then examine them in the craft and in the art of teaching their craft, and we ask of them a very simple knowledge of braille because they do not greatly need that, and we make that as simple as we can that it may not be a deterrent to them.

And lastly, we have an examination for pianoforte tuners, who are

divided into two classes—those who have a large knowledge of repairs to pianos, and those who are principally tuners with a smaller knowledge of repairs. These are the four subjects in which we examine, and we have found the work we have attempted to do in the last twenty years has resulted in very great improvement in the standard of teachers of all kinds.

M. PAUL GUINOT (FRANCE): I have listened with the greatest interest to the address of our friend, Romagnoli. I was particularly struck with his conclusion, and because it has impressed me so deeply I should like, before we pass to the consideration of the program, to say, in my character as Secretary-General of the Union of the Civilian Blind of France, how much I am in agreement with our Italian comrades.

Professor Romagnoli has just stated authoritatively that, owing to the Association of Italian Blind, the Government is giving its full attention to the problems of the blind and that the latter today are provided with the necessities of life. This is indeed important.

Since yesterday I have heard a great many interesting things, and my conviction is growing that despite private initiative and all the generosity which is being manifested, the social condition of the blind remains, in general, mediocre. Let us think of the generation of French civilian blind and of the great mass of our comrades in the whole world. Their lot remains mediocre because something fundamental is missing in the assistance given to them, namely, exactly that which our Italian comrades enjoy.

I wish that in this Convention, convoked in the interest of the blind, the voice of the blind may be heard and that our sighted friends may be awakened to the needs of the blind as revealed by themselves; that they may henceforward realize that the highest, the noblest and the most powerful sentiment of solidarity guides our initiative. It is in this spirit that I congratulate the Italian Association on having so well developed this thought in their country and on having realized this desire whose complete fulfilment is the true emancipation of the blind.

THE SPECIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF THE BLIND

HALVDAN KARTERUD

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It is impossible to include, in one single discourse, everything of interest in the illumination of a subject so wide in scope as my present one. What I am going to touch on, therefore, will be only some scattered features of the mental life of the blind, and more particularly such as may be supposed to be of importance in a discussion of their education and instruction. Having had no opportunity to study thoroughly the literature available on the subject, nor to make systematic experiments to any great extent myself, the following is based upon my own observations and experience for the most part, and does not in any way claim to be a scientific discussion. On the whole, I do not feel myself very competent to present a satisfactory solution of the task with which the Committee on Personnel and Program has entrusted me, but I hope that such delegates to the Conference as are in possession of a wider experience and authority on the matter will kindly give me their assistance and guidance by valuable contributions to the discussion, so that the subject may be dealt with as exhaustively as possible.

✓ To begin with, I would stress the fact that the blind, when looked upon as individuals, are quite as different with regard to natural abilities and talents as are those who see. Formerly, this fact was not given sufficient attention in the instruction of the blind. It was believed, more or less, that what one or two blind persons were able to learn easily might be learned by all blind persons equally easily, and that which was acquired only with the greatest difficulty by one or two blind experimental subjects was supposed to cause equal difficulty for the blind in general. These views resulted in stagnation of instruction in the so-called trades of the blind, in consequence of which many blind men and women received a technical education that was not based on their individual gifts and abilities. Owing to the limited freedom of movement which results from the absence of eyesight, the blind person will be, as a rule, far more handicapped manually than intellectually; and, when there is added the hopeless competition with factories, it may be taken for granted, in advance, that the typical

trades of the blind cannot possibly result in full economic independence, except in those cases where particularly favorable circumstances are present. Although these trades still occupy a dominant place in several schools for the blind, due partly to the fact that, in general, nothing better has been found as a substitute, still, in all quarters, a great effort is being made to provide a technical education for the particular blind individual corresponding to his natural gifts. Little by little, the technical education of the blind individual is thus attaining the same discrimination, as far as possible, as that of the seeing person and, by co-operating with the schools for the seeing, a series of excellent results has already been achieved in a variety of fields. As a means of examining the natural gifts of each individual, tests of intelligence have also been applied to the blind; and it would be most interesting if some of the delegates to the Conference would give an account of the tests prepared for this purpose, and the results obtained.

A person who is born blind, who has never received even a slight sensation of sight, does not possess any visual imagery. For him, there is neither light nor darkness; neither the starry sky nor the splendor of colors. He is, on the whole, unable to form a clear notion of what it really means to "see." He will not, therefore, be able to feel the want of sight in the same way as the person who has once been in possession of it. He will, of course, wish that he were able to see for himself; but he will think of it rather as a technical expedient, enabling him, among other things, to move about in a far easier and safer way, and permitting him to read ordinary books and papers, etc. Take another case, that of a blind person who has quite a fair theoretical knowledge of both light and colors. From his early childhood he has so often heard of them and read about them, that he has gradually learned a good deal about their influence on the persons who see. He is, therefore, well able to share in the conversation when it touches on these matters, although he has never personally experienced a single sense-perception of them.

Previously, it was generally believed, and is still believed by the laity, that nature has endowed those born blind with more acute senses of hearing and touch than other people, thus, in some measure, making up for the absence of sight. It is, unquestionably, an indisputable fact which was early recognized that the blind receive many impressions by the aid of these senses which seeing persons, in general, are unable to catch. But this is not due to natural gifts; it is stern necessity which forces the blind to learn to use the senses they possess better than do other people, so that

they can supplant the absent sense in so far as possible. By constant training this will turn out to be surprisingly successful in several respects.

The blind person receives his perceptions of space principally by the aid of his hearing, although, of course, touch, the kinesthetic sense and the sense of equilibrium also play their parts. When, therefore, he tries to conceive a space of a certain size, as a rule, he will first of all think of the acoustic phenomena attached to it; for instance, the particular resonance certain sounds will produce. Space and distance out of reach of his hearing he is unable to conceive of directly. He will, then, preferably figure it out for himself by estimating the time it will take him to pass over a certain distance by foot, rail or whatever means of conveyance he finds most appropriate to apply as a standard. Shorter distances he is able to judge fairly exactly by the help of his hearing, and this is invaluable to him for purposes of orientation—out-of-doors as well as indoors. The sound of his own step is his most reliable guide but he can also make use of nearly all kinds of sound in his surroundings, if they do not become embarrassingly loud and continuous.

Certainly, the so-called perception of distance is, for the most part founded upon auditory impressions. It is possible that the pressure of the air against the sensitive skin on the forehead varies so much that it may cause a feeling of pressure with the blind person when he approaches any big object; but, at any rate, it is a fact that, if the steps are softened so that they do not give much resonance, he is unable to get his bearings as easily as he would otherwise. I have myself often experienced this when walking in newly-fallen snow or in unknown rooms where the floors were covered with thick carpets. The information given by the feet concerning the ground on which one treads is, of course, of much greater importance to the blind man than to one who sees; and the weather plays no small part when the blind man tries to set himself right, as it causes considerable variation in the acoustic phenomena. Thus, in a strong wind it will be nearly impossible for a blind man to make out where he is; but if the weather is favorable, he will not only be able to perceive larger objects, such as trees and posts which he has to pass, but he will, also, easily be able to keep at a safe distance from the edges of ditches and pavements. Many blind persons assert that they can even perceive deep shadows.

In order that the blind person may be able to keep his direction without difficulty, the sound of his steps must give a certain

resonance against, for instance, housewalls, fences, road-sides, etc. If he moves about in an open place where he is unable to obtain fixed points for his "hearing-marks," he will easily lose his direction. A small apparatus to be carried in the pocket, and producing a short intense sound and giving an acute resonance at a comparatively long distance, would doubtless prove a useful expedient when taking bearings in difficult places, such as broad crossings of streets, market-places, fields, etc.

In other words, blind individuals, like seeing individuals, are gifted with varying powers of orientation; but the lack of sight will always bring about a great limitation in the physical freedom of movement in the blind, hampering their powers of orientation to a very great degree. This limitation of his freedom of movement is one of the greatest practical difficulties which the blind man has to fight. It handicaps him, more or less, when he is learning the execution of any kind of manual work; from his very childhood it prevents him from taking the exercise which his body demands in order to develop in a healthy and harmonious way; and if he does not, in due time, get a systematic training, his walk will be more or less unsteady, he will be inclined to acquire a bad posture, and many of his gestures will be awkward. That feeling of freedom of motion with which all the energy of the seeing person can be combined, whenever he so desires (for instance, in running as fast as he can), the blind person practically never experiences.

So-called "blindisms" are probably largely a consequence of this inhibited need of movement on the part of the blind. Certainly, also, they are often a sign of mental deficiency; but even normally gifted blind persons are not infrequently disfigured by them, and if they have once taken root it is exceedingly difficult to eradicate them. Undoubtedly, the reason for this is due, in a certain degree, to the fact that the blind themselves are unable to see their own behaviour and manners compared with those of other persons. That power of learning through direct imitation, by his own initiative, which forms such an important factor in the development of the child who sees is, through the absence of sight, reduced to a minimum in the blind child. In consequence, the blind person needs detailed instruction about a great many everyday things which a seeing person is able to acquire through direct observation and imitation. A systematic kindergarten instruction is, therefore, absolutely necessary for the blind.

Relatives and guardians of the blind are often excessively anxious not to let them go out by themselves, particularly in

crowded streets. They do not realize that the blind themselves will feel so anxious in this respect that they will exert more than sufficient care; thus, it very seldom happens that a blind person is injured by being run over. Most of them are so careful that they simply do not venture to walk through crowded streets without company, although in all countries the number of those who manage to find their way without assistance everywhere in connection with their daily work is constantly increasing. It is unnecessary to dwell on the great importance of this fact both to themselves and to those around them. Also, everybody who deals with the education of the blind should consider it a principal duty to make them as independent as possible in this respect. By systematic training, surprisingly good progress may be made. The self-reliance which grows up in the mind of the blind person, little by little for each new difficulty he is able to overcome is, however, of tremendous importance to him. He will be, in a greater degree than anybody else, in need of a strengthening of his self-reliance, because life will always offer him so much adversity as to render him disheartened and discouraged.

People who have a limited knowledge of the blind, and who see how helpless in appearance they often seem, are easily inclined to think that all their abilities must be reduced in a similar degree, and treat them accordingly. They only think it natural that the blind have to be supported in some way or other, that it is a wonder that they can be taught, for instance, to read and write braille, play music, etc., and they have difficulty in realizing that very often it is only fair to demand from the blind as much as from those who see. The easier and better the blind person can carry himself, and the more independent of his surroundings he is able to become, the easier he will succeed in favorably impressing those persons with whom he comes in contact, so that he may win their confidence and be entrusted with work; in other words, share in "the blessing of work," which to the blind man or woman is a factor of higher importance in creating satisfaction and harmony in his mind, than it is to the man who sees. If his work provides for him what he needs in order to live decently, and if it is in accordance with his abilities and interests, it will absorb him so perfectly that no time will be left for futile reflections on his blindness. He will be able to satisfy the longing, implanted in every normal human being, to become a useful citizen, and he will be able to establish a family and create a home for himself, where the joy of life prevails and the feeling of isolation disappears. In such circumstances, a blind man or woman will feel quite as happy

as a seeing man in a similar position in life. I even believe that, if practical hindrances do not become too great and the competition, thereby, too keen, his very blindness will stimulate the expansion of his energies and thus assist him in reaching results which would have been unattainable under other circumstances.

The blind person receives impressions of form only through his sense of touch, and his perception of form will be, therefore, perceptions of touch, exclusively; in other words, he thinks to himself that he is touching the things when he imagines how they look. The dimensions of forms which are distinctly apprehensible through touch are strictly limited and, in addition, the objects which are to be touched must be of suitable temperature. When preparing object-teaching material for the blind it is, therefore, of great importance to their suitability to the purpose that the most convenient dimensions are chosen.

The blind person is unable to form a notion of the aggregate shape of a large object until he has carefully touched it piece by piece. He is, consequently, cut off from taking a "view" of objects, and has to build up the total mental picture from the details he has gradually conceived by touch. He must also employ a similar procedure to get his bearings when in a room, a house, and, in short, everywhere, indoors as well as out-of-doors. It goes without saying that this is both a very slow and a very ponderous mode of procedure and, therefore, the blind person is able to map out in his mind with any degree of detail only the immediate surroundings in which he lives his everyday life—his home, the place in which he works, etc. Otherwise, his knowledge of his surroundings, the town, scenery, and so on, is rather defective, superficial and indistinct, as he must rely upon his own imagination and other people's description, and on incomplete impressions which happen to come his way. As a consequence, a blind pupil's knowledge of natural history and geography will very often become abstract and theoretical. Because of their limited powers of movement, the blind, have, as a rule, little opportunity to walk in field and wood. With many familiar things, such as animals and plants, they may never get in touch perhaps, and their notions of them may become, therefore, very incorrect and insufficient. It is for the schools for the blind, then, to repair this in so far as possible, by having at hand a rich and varied collection of object-teaching material, including utensils, models of machinery and implements of suitable size, stuffed animals and birds, and so on.

A great many things, the perception and meaning of which principally depend on impressions of sight, are of little interest

to the blind person because he lacks the faculty of fully apprehending and understanding them. The many and extensive descriptions to be found in books of fiction—of the magnificence of colors in nature, of sunrise and sunset, of wide views, etc.—are empty words to him for the most part, and what he is able to acquire of the beauty of nature by aid of his other senses is poor compensation in comparison with that which seeing people are permitted to enjoy. Nevertheless, it will be a recreation to the blind person, of course, to move about in woods and fields under the efficient guidance of a clever teacher and, also, excursions of various kinds at all times of the year, may make the blind pupil richer in mind and body.

To the blind person the voice is the only practical means by which he is able immediately to distinguish between the persons about him, and he must, therefore, train himself to try and read in the voice the things which other people read from the expression of the eyes and the play of features. Many exterior things relating to his own appearance as well as to that of others, such as dress, bearing, manners, etc., are rather indifferent to him. It thus happens that a blind man may forget to turn his face to the person with whom he is talking. He himself has no opportunity of looking into the person's eyes, or of studying his facial expression. It is exceedingly important, however, that the blind person should not adopt ungraceful and eccentric manners; and it is here that the teacher must be on his guard.

On the whole, the exterior world is rather colorless and monotonous to the blind man, and the impressions he receives from it will only be a fraction of those of the man who sees; but it will always be of the very greatest importance to his development that the utmost care is taken to make this fraction as great as possible. He must learn to exploit every chance for observation that offers itself. If he will succeed in defeating his blindness he must, first of all, learn to overcome all feeling of shame of it. Without being embarrassed by others, he must always make use of the senses and methods which are necessary and natural to himself.

DISCUSSION

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: Let us pause at this moment to look back over the morning's program.

We began with the infant and we heard of scientific treatment of this subject, which is only in its very beginning. This is the prolegomenon to additional study of the subject.

Next we had the opportunity of viewing a school for the blind from its beginning to the end of the course, with all of the subjects which are in the minds of the men and the women who have established that school; and then, superimposed upon that first discussion, we heard of the controversial questions that are always raised when we come to the discussion of the education of the young blind.

Then came the subject of vocational training, vocational in the sense of what shall the blind person do when he has finished his course. And through the suggestion that came from Herr Grasemann, of inner freedom and self-government, either in or out of the institution, there shall come to pass the occupation by the blind man of his own place, which he will secure for himself, perhaps with the help of friends.

And lastly, we have had this discussion of the higher education of the blind. I think that this may be summed up in two phrases: What is the value to the blind of higher education? and, What will be the value to the community of the one who has received this higher education?

If now we who deal with the education of the young blind could understand really the psychology of the blind, if we could go into the very depths of the being of this blind man who has never seen, and understand the life of the child who has seen for a little while, and perhaps enter into his experiences, then we who are charged with the duty of the directing of their education, helping them to find a vocation, and then helping them to get on their feet, would be thrice blessed. Let me assure you I speak for my fellows in America when I say that we do not waste our hours, but study this problem with assiduity, year in and year out.

MR. RAY O. WYLAND (U. S. A.): I want to thank the chairman and you delegates to this World Conference for the means you have given me to say just one word of the opportunity that is open to blind boys in membership and partisanship in the program of the Boy Scouts of the nations of the world. There are Boy Scouts in seventy-three nations, and they are organized in such strength and have a program that can be used by your boys in any country.

In recent weeks we have reviewed the records of more than a score of troops consisting exclusively of blind boys, and their achievements with the handicrafts offered is very encouraging. We also have a large number of patrols of blind boys in a troop of seeing boys, and we also have a great number of blind boys who in ones, or twos, or threes are interspersed among other troops of seeing scouts.

I just want to offer that opportunity, and to say to you, if the Boy Scouts of America can help these non-seeing boys to feel their part in the world brotherhood of Scouts, and to enjoy a part of this outdoor program which has been stressed here this morning by more than one of the speakers, we would be happy to offer you and your boys those opportunities.

MRS. SAMUEL D. FRIEDMAN (U. S. A.): I visited Palestine about a year and a half ago, where we have an organization functioning to help the blind of Jerusalem. I will give you just a few details of the work done by the Institute in Palestine. The blind are taught the braille system in Hebrew, as well as in English; they are very well educated and they spend their time very pleasantly. I believe this is the first institute to have the braille system in Hebrew.

As for the blind teachers, they are very able and they are giving great comfort to the blind, who feel a sort of comradeship for their blind teachers. Perhaps it would be well to have one or two sighted teachers to guide the entire school, but otherwise I must say that the blind teachers are very capable people and extend a great deal of friendship to their pupils.

The organization has functioned for just five years, and already it has done much to better the lives of the blind. Some of the young ladies have taken up body massage, which is a new industry for them, and this is proving a great success. My hope is to gain a great deal of knowledge through this Conference that we can convey to the Institute in Palestine.

Music also is taught there. The institute has a very fine string band of musicians, who play at different functions and earn a little money. They are very much preferred to all other musicians, and are devoted to their music and study it very carefully.

SECTION 3
EMPLOYMENT

April 15, 1931

BLIND HOME WORKERS IN SWEDEN

ERNST RETSLER

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What I have to report contains nothing very remarkable; nothing in the way of new schemes by which the blind may earn their living, and scarcely anything, either, in the way of fresh methods of employing the old ones. Nevertheless, I fancy it may perhaps be of interest to you to hear something of what we are doing for the blind in the country from which I come.

If one looks at the map, one sees that Sweden is a relatively large country, stretching in northwestern Europe right up to and beyond the Arctic Circle; but our population is small—scarcely more than six millions. Thus, we are but a small nation and we lack to a great extent those prerequisites and resources for progressive work for the blind, which are found in other countries more populous and in many respects better equipped than ours. This accounts for the fact that many other countries have been able to advance much further than we have done, and that consequently we have much to learn from them while having little to give in return. This report is thus concerned solely with the actual circumstances under which the blind in Sweden pursue home work, and makes no pretense of bringing forward any fresh ideas or suggestions.

Statistics tell us that in Sweden there are upwards of three thousand blind persons—i. e., 53 per 100,000. However, partly owing to the difficulty of recording by ordinary census methods accurate data respecting individual physical defects and ailments, the figure given above is undoubtedly too low. Consequently, in order to avoid an underestimate, it is usual to put the number of blind people in Sweden at four thousand. During the past fifty years the proportion of blind persons to the whole population has been on the decrease, owing partly to the skill and ability of Swedish oculists and partly to the increased well-being of the people at large and the consequent improvement in health and general hygienic conditions, although the higher accident risks, caused by the industrial-

ization of the country, of course, seem to work in a different direction. From the figures available it would seem that, in respect to the prevalence of blindness among her population, Sweden occupies a very advantageous position in comparison with many other countries.

The figure given above includes all categories of blind persons; i. e., it embraces children, as well as elderly persons, who suffer from other physical defects or ailments in addition to blindness. If we exclude these two groups, of which the senile blind constitute a very considerable percentage of the total number, the remainder does not amount to probably more than about two thousand. It is with those, i. e., the blind people who are capable of doing work for their own support, that the present paper is concerned.

School attendance was made obligatory for all blind children more than thirty years ago. They receive education free of charge at schools established by the state. For those young people who lose their sight after leaving school, opportunity is afforded for learning a trade at trade schools established by the state where also instruction in reading and writing braille is given.

The great majority of the male blind pupils are taught the trades specially adapted for the blind, viz., basket-making and brush-making. The female pupils, on the other hand, are taught sewing, other forms of needlework and domestic occupations. For musically gifted pupils instruction is afforded in music and piano tuning, and this has proved to be of advantage to many men when they have started out in life.

Some pupils after passing through the school for the blind have taken up special courses of training, for instance, in massage, etc., or have managed to find other outlets for their activities. These are, however, only exceptions to the general rule. The majority of blind people have no other resources open to them but the above-mentioned trades of basket-making and brush-making.

In several countries it has been found feasible to employ blind people in factories. This opening has not been found in Sweden—save in a few isolated cases.

The giant enterprises in which specialization can be carried out in every detail, and which are such features of the great industrial countries, have no counterpart in Sweden; hence it does not prove so easy for us to find such specialized factory work as is suited for the blind. This circumstance,

and the fact that there has been lacking in this country the psychological spur of the desire to find employment for war-blinded soldiers, may be looked upon as the causes of our present want of success in this particular direction.

When the blind pupil has completed his vocational training, he usually returns home to exercise his trade as an independent craftsman. Only rarely can he secure employment in any workshop.

The foremost Swedish society, the Association for the Blind, (*De Blindas Förening*) has workshops in Stockholm where about eighty blind people of both sexes are employed. In Gothenburg and in some other places, there are similar workshops of less importance partly supported by the Association for the Blind. The number of those who can obtain work at those workshops is, however, but a very small percentage. The need for more workshops is a crying one, but they are expensive to run, and funds are lacking.

Besides that, it has been found somewhat disadvantageous to congregate a large number of blind people from various parts of the country in one center. Hence the general aim has been to render as much help and support as possible to the individual blind person working in his own home. This help takes different forms: In certain centers, depots of raw materials have been established with the idea of supplying to the blind worker good material, free of carriage, at the lowest possible prices. The Association for the Blind, the Crown Princess Margaret's Committee for the Blind and other similar philanthropic organizations, also furnish pecuniary aid to blind workers, enabling them to set up in workshops of their own, procure their own homes, etc. To facilitate the disposal of the finished products, the Association for the Blind has opened salesrooms—as have other groups as well—in some of the larger cities, where articles made by the blind will be accepted for sale according to the extent of the market.

These measures, however, have proved to be inadequate. Brush-making, which is the principal occupation for blind men, is being carried on more and more by machinery in large factories, rendering the competition exceedingly severe. The knitted and crocheted articles made by blind women are apt to go out of fashion and become unsalable. Quite a number of blind people have managed to secure independent positions by dint of skill at their trade and good business ability, and have obtained notable success; but the majority have encoun-

tered almost insuperable obstacles in their efforts to make their way. The principal difficulty has been in getting the articles they have made sold. The actual production of the articles in the workshops in their own homes presents little difficulty, as a rule; but to find customers for them afterwards at remunerative prices—that is the great problem.

Nevertheless, in recent years an improvement in this particular is noticeable, as local selling organizations have been established all over the country. In 1917 the above-named association, Princess Margaret's Committee for the Blind, was started. It takes its name from the Swedish Crown Princess, who presided over it and so long as she lived took a keen and active interest in its work. The task that the Committee primarily set before itself was to arouse in the minds of the public an understanding and an appreciation of the blind and of their special needs. With that aim in view, the Committee tried to interest persons of high social standing in the cause of the blind and to urge them actively to espouse it. Thus, among other projects, they induced the wives of the governors of the provinces to start working for the cause in their districts, the consequence of which has been that local organizations for the blind have gradually been set up in all parts of the country. For these friends of the blind the foremost task has been to arrange for the sale of the products of the blind home workers. It was soon perceived that the problem would not be satisfactorily solved by the setting up of more salesrooms, for that would involve too great an outlay and could not be accomplished on a large enough scale to be effective.

There was no other way open, it was found, than to set about selling by wholesale. The methods adopted for that differ in different places, but this they have in common—that one person is charged with the task of soliciting and taking orders on behalf of the blind from public institutions, factories, public offices, etc., and from various kinds of retail dealers. In some districts the resultant orders are distributed among the blind workers, who then deliver the goods direct to the customers. In other districts, a collecting-depot has been established to which the workers send their goods and from which these goods are dispatched to the various purchasers. The latter method is more expensive to work but, on the other hand, it proves more effective than the former. The customers are served more punctually and satisfactorily,

and the goods can be controlled and, if need be, any little defect can be remedied before they are sent out. The actual costs connected with the disposal of the articles are entirely borne by the philanthropic organizations referred to. In some provinces a higher rate of remuneration is paid to the producers than it is possible for the selling organization to obtain from the customers. In others, a special discount is allowed on raw materials, by which means the primary cost of the articles produced is reduced. The means for defraying the outlay involved are derived from two sources: grants by the provincial councils and voluntary subscriptions on the part of the public.

The work thus carried out by the provincial blind associations is very notable and beneficial. The provincial governors' wives throughout the country have manifested a very lively interest in promoting the cause of the blind, and they have also displayed a very remarkable power of initiative in various directions.

There is another factor of importance to the cause of the blind as regards the sale of their products and the large scale propaganda necessary for its successful prosecution. That factor is "Blind People's Day" which has been observed throughout the country in October every year for more than a decade. The most valuable feature of the "Day" is the selling campaign that is then set on foot for disposing of the products of the blind. In various suitable spots booths are erected in which the best products of the blind home workers are offered for sale, and this effort finds a ready response from the buying public, thanks partly to able assistance rendered by the press. Another feature of the "Blind People's Day" is a tombola lottery specially sanctioned by the government which brings in very considerable sums in aid of the work of the organizations for the blind and is a further help and stimulus, inasmuch as the lottery prizes consist for a considerable part of articles made by blind people and bought from them.

Things are consequently looking brighter. The blind worker sitting at home at his labors day by day can be easier in his mind, in the knowledge that help will be forthcoming when the products of his industry are ready to be disposed of. It would be a great mistake, however, to imagine that everything is now well arranged. The above-mentioned measures for promoting opportunities for blind people to help them-

selves are all based upon the continued existence of handicraft industry—but its days are numbered in our country, too, as elsewhere. We live in the age of machinery and sooner or later machinery will kill handicraft. It becomes increasingly evident, as the years go on, that other sources of livelihood will have to be found for the blind, if they are to have any possibility of being able to support themselves.

But the question is: Where are those new sources of livelihood to be discovered?

DISCUSSION

MR. GEORGE DANBY (GREAT BRITAIN): May I congratulate Herr Retsler on the character of his paper and on the remarkably fine achievements which Sweden has made in this system.

In a country where difficulties are obviously great, by reason of its vast extent and the sparseness of the population, may I suggest to the Conference that this subject of Home Occupations or Industry for the Blind is one of the most important coming before us, and for this reason: First, that no work for the blind can be effective unless it succeeds in making the blind independent economic units—self-supporting citizens in a society which depends for its existence on its members being able to contribute their share. Second, because the workshops are an expedient possible only in centres of population where there are means for bringing together those whose habitations are more or less centered. Therefore the greater part of the work requiring some system of home employment is of the first importance to successful operation of work for the blind.

It follows, therefore, that the technique of a home-industry system and the managerial technique are of the utmost importance and constitute one of the most important subjects which this Conference has to consider. I want therefore to suggest one or two questions on which possibly information is desired. We want to know what are the earnings in Sweden of homeworkers, and we want to know whether those earnings are supplemented either by Government grants or by private organizations? In England we have a system by which the earnings of the blind are supplemented by a grant amounting to a material aid.

Now, my last question is: Is Herr Retsler's pessimistic conclusion at the end of his paper justified? Is it not possible to continue handicraft work for the blind even in this modern, mechanical age?

SEÑOR RAMÓN BETETA (MEXICO): In connection with this subject of home work for the blind, we must not forget our general economic organization.

Home work is poorly paid anyhow. So that if it is poorly paid for the sighted, why should it be well paid for the blind? The ability of the blind man to do things well is not to be questioned here, but the important point in this respect is to be able to sell at a good price what has been produced. That is why the organizations for selling the products are as important as the training of blind men for the work, and also is why I want to call your attention to the local agencies mentioned in the paper we have just heard.

In my experience in Mexico I have found that the general ability so well recognized in Mexicans to use their hands successfully and artistically

is equally true of the blind part of the population, but after these home-made products are ready to be sold we find it very hard to sell them at a good price. In other words, in an industrial world these home-made products cannot compete with those made by large-scale production. This is true of blind men as well as of those who can see, and it would be a serious mistake not to keep it in mind when one is thinking of improving the economic situation of the blind.

To sum it all up—home industry is poorly paid in all cases. Finding a market and organizing agencies for selling the products are essential to make home industry profitable. Therefore, our industrial organizations should not be forgotten in this connection.

MR. W. R. HALLIDAY (GREAT BRITAIN): I should like to point out in reference to this question of the Home Industry for the Blind that it consists of two parts, and so far as the discussion has proceeded, most of the attention has been given to the industrial part of the subject. Now, there is another part to be considered; the home industry is an industry to be carried on at home. The point I want to arrive at is this: that if the home is suitable for the carrying on of an industry, the industry may be carried on at home. That is self-evident. On the other hand, if the home is not suitable then the blind person, no matter how efficient or how willing to carry on such an industry at his own home, does so at a disadvantage.

Therefore, the condition of the home is the determining factor in finding out whether a country is in a position to carry on home industry for the blind. And I want to say that as conditions are in Scotland, the matter is practically out of the question because most of our houses are built on the tenement system. Most of our blind persons are persons who find it very difficult to make ends meet, and consequently live in the cheaper quarters. I ask you to consider this: How is the most efficient basket-maker to carry on his trade when, for instance, he and his wife, with three or four children, are trying to carry on the household concerns in one small room or two small rooms? How is it to be done? It cannot be done; and, therefore, in a country such as ours the solution of the problem of the employment of the blind is to be found either in sheltered employment in industrial institutions or else in some system of placement such as I understand is to be found at Stockholm.

BLIND WORKSHOP OCCUPATIONS

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INTRODUCTION

One is sometimes asked the question, "What occupation is best suited for the blind?" and one is at a loss to answer it, just as one would equally hesitate about answering a similar question about the seeing. The fact that a man or woman is blind does not of itself fit him or her for a particular vocation. Experience, however, has taught us that there are a number of occupations which the blind can follow with a fair measure of success.

During recent years a great deal of research has been done in the hope of extending their field of usefulness. The difficulty one experiences is that, while suitable occupations or processes in manufacture can be found for the blind, some obstacle is discovered which prevents their application. Our field at present, therefore, is a comparatively limited one and resolves itself generally into occupations which concern themselves chiefly with manual dexterity.

The reason for this is obvious, especially in these days of highly specialized machinery which plays such a leading part in manufacture; thus, generally speaking, only the few trades which cannot or have not been mechanized are left for the blind to pursue. It is an interesting fact that in some countries many of the blind have been absorbed into ordinary industry, where machines have been specially adapted for their use. One feels that a great deal more can be done in this direction, especially in Great Britain where, except for a few isolated cases, the blind are restricted to the ordinary occupations practiced in a workshop for the blind.

In dealing with the subject of occupations followed in workshops for the blind, it is not intended to include pastime occupations in which that vast army of blind in the unemployable class is engaged, but only those occupations which may be regarded as likely to contribute to the economic prestige of the blind person.

Our primary aim and object is to provide employment for the blind; but in doing so we should fail in our duty as managers of blind institutions if we did not pay due regard to the economic

aspect of the case, as well as the wage-earning possibilities the occupations provide for the blind people concerned. In giving a brief description of the occupations which have been introduced into workshops in England, reference will be made to the two important points mentioned above; viz., (1) the extent of the possible employment, and (2) actual wages earned quoted in terms usually applied in seeing industries; bearing in mind always that the statements made apply to conditions which may generally be regarded as normal in the industrial world.

BASKET-MAKING

Possibly the oldest occupation, and one in which the blind are most extensively engaged throughout the world, is that of weaving baskets. It is essentially a handicraft and one which has remained untouched by the inventive genius of the mechanical age. It is an occupation in which both men and women can be employed; the coarser and heavier class of work engaging the physical strength of the fingers and the wrists of the worker is best suited for men, while the lighter work provides an endless variety of baskets to engage the skill of the women and is limited, generally speaking, to pulp cane work.

It is a craft which must be taken seriously, especially in these days when so many seeing people undertake basket-making as a pastime hobby.

As in all other occupations for the blind, adequate space in which to work is of paramount importance and the blind basket-maker, particularly, must not be cramped. To be of adequate dimensions, each pitch should measure eight feet by seven feet, six inches, providing an equal space of two feet, six inches on each side of the plank. On the right-hand side and at the back of the worker should be provided a rack with separate holes for each of his tools, while a small tank of water should always be at hand. The soaking trough, of good dimensions and not less than ten feet in length, should be easily accessible.

The tools required are few and can be purchased for a comparatively small sum.

To facilitate the making of baskets, blocks are sometimes advocated. The block is inserted at the bottom of the basket and acts as a guide to the blind man in building up the sides. While this aid may be regarded as helpful to the beginner, it is strongly objected to by many craftsmen who have had experience in teaching the blind. Their criticism is that where blocks are used there is a tendency for the work to become slack and lacking in

symmetry, as the worker is inclined to pull the work away from the block and in order to rectify this mistake tries to adjust the error by drawing the work in again. This is apparent in jar-casing where the worker builds up the basket around the jar after it has been placed in position. A further objection raised is that the worker lacks confidence and does not become a master of his craft; their use should, therefore, be discouraged.

Loose frames are also used to assist the blind basket-maker. These consist of two pieces of flat steel crossed at the center and adjustable to any angle. The ends of the steel are perforated to accommodate spikes or nails which are driven into the corner stakes of the basket. These frames are essential in the case of letter and waste-paper baskets and any square work including octagonal and triangular shapes with corner stakes. Blunt corner work, however, is not suitable for the use of these frames.

The difficulty experienced in the basket trade is due to the importation of cheaper made foreign baskets which adversely affect the home trade and, also, to the large quantities of work made by sighted workers in their own homes at rates which are lower than the Trade Board rates. We, therefore, have to depend upon bulk orders for warehouse baskets for factory use, carrier baskets for cycles, brown work for special use in warehouses, baskets used in the metal trade for cleaning purposes and work from public institutions.

The training period is about five years for men and three years for women. The men's wages are paid according to the British Amalgamated Union of Basket-makers list and average 24s. 6d. per week, while the women are paid agreed rates for their work averaging about 12s. 6d. per week.

CHAIR-MAKING

This occupation is divided into two sections, frame-making and filling-in. The former is only suitable for men with partial vision and requires careful supervision as the frame must be well made and of shapely form. The filling-in is most suitable work for men and consists of wrapping the cane or wicker frame with split skein, randing, fitching and finishing. Wrapping and randing can be successfully done by totally blind workers, but the fitching and finishing are best undertaken by those with partial sight. At least three years is required for training, which should have been preceded by a training in general basket work. For the filling-in processes the work needs dexterous hands.

At trade union rates of wages the average earnings are about 30s. per week.

RUSH-SEATING

Rush-seating is a craft formerly practiced by the gipsy class but now extensively adopted by workshops for the blind. It is a process which is not difficult and can be learned in six months. Few tools are required and any seat with a simple open frame can be treated in this manner. The work is suitable for totally or partially blind girls, and can be taught in conjunction with cane-seating. Experience has proved that the best rushes to use are the Dutch salt marsh rushes, as they are tough, have no pith and, being cleaner in appearance, make a much better looking seat than those made from other kinds of rushes.

The average earnings at piece rates are 13s. 10d. per week for seating nine ordinary-sized chair seats. Orders for this class of work usually come from churches, schools, public buildings, furniture manufacturers and private customers.

CANE-SEATING

This is a craft in which blind people can excel but is usually undertaken by women. The tools required are few and simple and can be purchased for about 7s. The process is a simple one and can be learned in two years. The average output is about eight ordinary-sized chairs per week, producing a weekly wage of 10s. 8d. After the first stage has been completed, i.e., the threading of the cane from back to front and vice versa, the second stage, i.e., left to right and vice versa, can be simplified by the use of a narrow strap which has a hole in the middle. The first half of the strap is threaded in exactly the same way as a strand of cane is threaded. The end of the cane is then inserted in the hole of the strap, which is drawn across the seat of the chair. This threads the first row of cane in one sweep. The end of the cane is freed from the strap, which remains interlaced in the strands of cane running from back to front of the seat. The strap is then pushed out of the way, leaving room for the second row to be threaded by hand. The third row is then threaded by means of the strap, which has already been drawn back into position as described for the first row.

This method of first threading by the use of the strap and then by hand is repeated until the second stage of the caning is completed. The strap cannot be used with the diagonal threading. The use of the strap for cane-seating chairs has proved a great help and time-saver and is strongly recommended.

BRUSH-MAKING

The craft of brush-making has long been a favorite one for the blind and, in consequence, has been adopted by many workshops for the blind; but only in part has this become possible, as the making of certain brushes has proved to be a too highly specialized craft for the blind to be successfully engaged in it. We must, therefore, leave out of consideration the making of toilet brushes and paint brushes and content ourselves with those which fall under the classification of ordinary set and drawn work.

Set work, or what is commonly known as pan work, is most suitable for men, and consists of setting bristles with pitch into a wooden stock. These bristles may be either bass, hair or various fibres and mixtures. The worker is called a "pan hand," because he sits at a table in the centre of which is a pitch pan. The table may accommodate either four or six workers, according as it has a four or six strike pan, as the case may be. The strikes are pieces of copper set on edge a little higher than the rim of the pan, which is also of copper. On these strips the worker strikes the knot, i.e., the precise quantity of bristles or other materials set in the stock, to relieve it of superfluous pitch before it is tied. The pan is fixed over a Bunsen burner, or other heater, which keeps the pitch hot, but which must never allow it to boil. The process of dipping is an art which must be specially taught. The precise quantity of material having been chosen, it must be held between the thumb and the forefinger in such a way as will spread the "root" like a fan. Dipped in this way all the roots are quickly covered with pitch. As soon as the knot has been dipped it must be tied with a "thrum," a piece of twine about six inches long. The knot is dipped a second time, and promptly set by pushing it into the bottom of the hole and twisting it, keeping it held firmly between the finger and the thumb. This operation spreads the pitch in the hole in the stock and causes the material to take on a bushy formation. Speed is essential in this craft, and a totally blind man after about five years' training can fulfil this important condition. Be it remembered always, however, that his output will seldom exceed 50 per cent of that of the seeing brush-maker.

Pan work is divided into two classes, bass pan and hair pan. The former is most suitable for totally blind men; but with hair pan work, men require a little sight, as the material to be handled is much finer and the size of the knot is smaller. Of all the crafts in which the blind are engaged, pan work is one of the most suitable.

Boring, generally speaking, is an occupation for the seeing workman, but by the aid of a specially constructed boring machine fitted with a template for broom stocks and scrubbing brush boards it is possible for a blind man to be successfully engaged in this operation. In a department of fairly large proportions, work can usually be found for a partially blind man as a hair dresser. The work involves the mixing of hair, bristles and fibre in various proportions under the direction of the seeing foreman. A partially blind man can also be employed in trimming the work of the pan hands, so long as he is properly supervised.

Drawn work is most suitable for women, and is one in which the blind, whether totally or partially, can become as skilful as their seeing sisters. The operation is one of drawing the knots of the bristles with wire into the holes in the stocks from the back of the brush. Totally blind women can become dexterous at this work and the speed they attain often causes the casual onlooker to marvel. The process of shearing, or cutting off the bristles to the correct length, forms part of the work of the drawing hand, and for this purpose bench shears are provided to which are attached a gauge set to the required dimensions. In some workshops the trimming is done by machinery. The training period for this work is about two years for a totally blind girl.

The processes of finishing are usually undertaken by seeing workers; but where partially blind men of special aptitude can be found, it is possible to teach them most of these processes. These include gluing and sprigging-on backs of wire-drawn brushes; the use of the bench knife for roughly shaping the wooden stock, an operation which requires a measure of skill; the handling of the spoke shave; and the use of sand-paper. Where brushes are branded with a trade or other distinctive mark, branding machinery can be operated by a partially blind man.

While there is a limited demand for household brushes made by the blind, the output of an institution for the blind can generally be made up of contracts from municipal bodies for rotary and scavenger brooms, as well as orders from industrial establishments for special brushes to meet their special requirements. The aim of the management should be to find out what the market requires and to try and meet that demand rather than adhere rigidly to the practice of manufacturing just what is easiest for the blind operator to make.

Trade Board rates of wages apply to workers in this industry, the average weekly earnings at these rates being about 30s. 4d. for men and 15s. 6d. for women.

COIR MAT-MAKING

This is divided into four processes: weaving, squaring and shaping, binding and shearing.

The first process of weaving is performed on a hand loom not unlike the weaver's hand loom, except that it is of stronger construction. A totally blind man can easily learn and become proficient at this process, the period of training being from six to twelve months. Since muscular energy is required for success at this trade, only men of good physique should be thus employed.

Squaring and shaping applies to trueing the angles in a rectangular mat and shaping to a template those required for special purposes, such as mats for motor-cars, etc. A partially blind man or woman can do this work if of average intelligence. This work can be learned in addition to weaving or binding.

Binding is the third process and is suitable for either men or women. This work consists of sewing with coir yarn a plaited edging of the same material all round the outside edge of the mat. For this work a leather glove is needed, consisting of a strap with a thumb hole fitted round the palm of the hand, to which is attached a rough surfaced round metal disc by which the needle is pushed through the stout plait. Tallow is used to facilitate the work of the needle. The drawback to men's doing this class of work is its low rate of pay.

The fourth process is that of shearing the surface of the mat on a power-driven shearing machine. This is usually the work of a seeing foreman or his assistant.

In addition to the above processes, blind women can prepare coir yarn on suitable machines. The yarn is imported in bales made up of skeins. These skeins are wound from a swift onto a bobbin, and from the bobbin into large balls of cylindrical shape. A number of strands of yarn are wound together, the number varying according to the quality of the work to be done.

In addition to ordinary plain work, a blind man can be taught to do bordering and lettering work. This includes mats with borders worked in different patterns and colors of wool; also "all-wool" mats of different patterns and colors. The loom for this class of work is much finer and is made up of a linen warp. A worker knows the different colors by numbers and should possess a little sight to be a success. This is much more difficult and requires a longer period of training. A blind man can earn, at Trade Union piece rate wages, an average of about 28s. 3d. per week. A woman will learn either binding or winding in six

months. The average weekly earnings at these two processes are about 20s. 6d. per week. Piece rate wages are paid for binding calculated on the length of the periphery of each mat. The winders are also paid on piece rates based on the weight of the yarn wound.

The advantages of this industry are its comparatively short training period and its suitability for persons who become blind in later life. The drawback now being experienced in England, however, is the competition from abroad, particularly India, where stock-sized mats are produced at very low prices. These are sold on the English market at about half the price of our own, due to the comparatively low rates of wages paid to the native worker. The home trade must now depend largely on orders for special-size mats, including those for motor-cars and public buildings.

COAL-BAG MAKING

This is an industry which depends on local demand and consists of plain woven sheets of Beypore coir yarn nine feet by four feet, six inches in dimensions. These are sufficiently large to carry one hundredweight of coal. A length of coir rope is stitched along the length of each sheet in two rows, about six inches apart and looped at each end, so that when the sheet is folded to form a square the loops form the handle. The two sides are stitched together leaving the end with the loops open.

This work is divided into two processes, weaving and stitching. The former, which is a very simple process, is done on hand looms and can be learned by a totally blind man in about six months. Stitching needs more skill and the worker requires a little sight in order to be a success. The average weekly wages earned at piece rates are about 30s. for weaving fifty sheets, and 35s. 6d. for stitchers who complete an average of about seventy-eight bags per week. Smaller bags are made to carry half a hundredweight.

GAS CYLINDER COVERS

These are made of coir yarn and fashioned from sheets in the same manner as coal bags. The long sides of the sheet are stitched together and the one end closed by the stitcher. They are also made of jute rope and knitted on a dummy of the required dimensions. This is work for women, but is poorly paid.

SINNET OR CHAIN MATS

These can be made by totally blind men from coir plait of varying thicknesses of from half to one and a half inches in width. The patterns are formed on pegged rails of either large

or small loops. These loops are stitched together with coir yarn. A leather glove with a metal disc should be worn by the worker, as in the case of the coal bag stitcher and coir mat binder. The work can be learned in twelve months and the average earnings at piece rates are 18s. 6d. per week for about sixty-five square feet of work.

Unfortunately, there is a poor market for this class of work as, apart from school use, there is little or no demand.

COIR YARN MATTING

This work is analogous to that of the handloom weaver, except that the loom is of stronger construction and the material of coarser texture, coir yarn being used instead of the fine linen or silk strands used by the weaver of fabrics.

This is a simple occupation and can be learned by totally blind men in about six months. In choosing men for this work the same criterion should apply as that used in the selection of men for coir mat-making. The rates of wages are governed by the Mat Makers' Association.

FENDOFS

These are sometimes known as fenders and act as buffers to prevent damage to the side of a ship when it collides with the quay. The occupation provides work for both blind men and women and is divided into four operations.

The first is that of making a hessian bag, which is best described as of cheese-shape. The pieces are cut out by blind men (circular pieces for the top and bottom and a rectangular strip to form the sides) and sewn together by machines operated by totally blind women.

The next process is that of filling the bag with cork shavings. This is either done by hand or by hydraulic pressure.

After the tops are sewn on, blind men carry out the next process, which is that of harnessing the bag. This consists of two pieces of coir rope sewn around the bag crossing at right angles at the top and bottom and ending at the top in a loop.

The last process consists of filling the spaces between the harness with a hitch casing of coir rope.

The last two operations are work for men. It is usual to pay a day rate for the sewing, filling and harnessing, and a piece-rate for the hitch-casing, the latter producing an average of about 25s. 6d. per week for twelve cases. This is a suitable occupation for an institution situated at a seaport.

Fendoffs are made in various sizes according to their weight.

BOOT-MAKING AND REPAIRING

Boot-making and repairing, generally speaking, are only suitable for partially blind men, and resolve themselves into that section of the trade known as hand-riveted work, in contrast to hand and machine-sewn work which require the skill of a first-class seeing craftsman. The term is used in connection with the method by which the sole of the boot or shoe is made fast to the "upper." Some partially blind men can be successfully trained in making up new boots and shoes. This does not imply the making of the "uppers," which are bought already prepared. The making, therefore, consists of tacking the "upper" to the inner sole, to which is riveted the outer sole; trimming the sole to the final shape; heel-balling and polishing. It is a good plan to buy soles and heels already shaped and, although this is a little more costly than buying the leather in bends, a great deal of waste is avoided.

The cost of equipping a boot-repairing shop is comparatively small. The training period is from three to five years and Trade Board rates of wages apply, producing an average weekly wage of 26s.

Only men with care, patience and manipulative ability in handling tools can become successful at this occupation. The necessity for care need not be emphasized as the result of carelessness is obvious. Men who become blind in later life seldom make successful boot-makers but they can become efficient as repairers. Residential institutions can provide work for both repairers and makers, while it is possible to obtain a limited amount of trade from local private customers for repairs.

MATTRESS-MAKING

This occupation provides work for both men and women, and is divided into three processes: cutting-out, sewing, and filling.

The cutting-out of the mattress cases is work for a sighted supervisor, and the sewing is done by means of power-driven machines and is very suitable for either totally or partially blind girls of average ability. A guide is attached to the machine near the needle to facilitate the work of the operator. The process of filling, which includes tufting and drawing, can be successfully accomplished by totally blind men who become proficient after about six months' training. The term "tufting" applies to sewing either wool or leather tufts in position on the mattress cover, the position having been previously marked by a seeing supervisor who pierces holes in the case to mark the points before the

cases are sewn together. Drawing is the process of consolidating the filling around the outside edges of the mattress by means of large stitches. This is done with a long needle specially made for the purpose. In making the case, an opening is left at one end through which the mattress is filled; the opening is afterwards sewn together by a seeing person. Blind men can also operate the machine for teasing the filling so long as the machine is well-guarded to prevent accidents.

At Trade Union wage rates men can earn about 42s. and the women about 25s. per week.

Orders can be obtained from public institutions, hotels and private houses, while institutions situated near shipping docks are usually able to obtain contracts for ship mattresses.

A great deal of work in this occupation can be obtained through orders for re-makes. In some large institutions a sterilizing plant is installed for purifying mattresses received from hospitals for re-making. The cost of this is heavy and not justified where other means of disinfecting are provided by the local authorities, as is usual in most large towns.

The advantages of this occupation are its suitability for totally blind workers, and its short training period.

MACHINE KNITTING

This is an occupation in which blind women are extensively engaged. It is divided into two departments, round machine work and flat machine work, both kinds of machines being worked by hand.

The round machines produce hosiery of various weights according to the gauge of cylinders used, which can be varied at will. The process is practically complete in that a sock or stocking can be woven throughout on the machine with only the closing of the toe to be done after the work has been taken off the machine. The toe is closed with the aid of hand knitting needles on which the stitches have been carefully transferred from the round machine. This method of closing the toe is the most satisfactory.

The training period for the work is about three years and it is work most suitable for totally blind women.

The average output on a coarse cylinder is twenty pairs of men's socks and fourteen pairs of women's hose per week. The wages earned average 15s. 9d. per week.

Overlocking, pressing and tying in bundles is the work of a seeing assistant.

Flat machine work applies to knitwear of general use and is made up of pieces of knitted fabric. Machines varying from seven to fourteen gauge (that is, needles per inch) can be operated by the blind, although the finer-gauge machines require closer supervision. Well-trained and capable totally blind women become quite successful flat machinists; some can be taught the use of machines with a Jacquard attachment.

Five years' training is necessary for blind women to become proficient in this work, which produces better wages than many of the blind industries. Intelligence, and the power of concentration are two essential elements.

The finishing process is a seeing one and calls for very careful work. Machines, such as overlocking, seaming, and ordinary sewing, are necessary in a well-equipped department. Originality and taste in design and color are keynotes of success, and are essential for the growth and maintenance of first-grade output.

Blind machinists sometimes wind their own wool, but output can be increased if the wool is wound by machinery.

PIANO-TUNING AND REPAIRING

Although pianoforte-tuning is not generally regarded as an occupation for workshop employees and is a trade practiced by home workers, it has a legitimate place in this paper by reason of the fact that accompanying it is the work of repairing which, to be carried out successfully, must be undertaken under workshop supervision.

The importance of training the right type of men for both tuning and repairing has been emphasized by both the Board of Education and the Ministry of Health of the English Parliament. Each of these governmental departments requires training institutions to arrange for all pupils trained in this work to obtain the diploma of the College of Teachers of the Blind by examination.

In thickly populated areas, where a number of tuners and repairers are employed, their work is best supervised by the local institution which, knowing that the men are fully qualified and competent, can guarantee the work they do. This gives confidence to the customer and creates a feeling of good will.

This is, perhaps, the most satisfactory work for suitable partially or totally blind men. The work is congenial and yields better wages than other occupations for the blind. The period of training is about five years, and the earnings of the men with whom the writer is familiar, based on the agreed rates paid by the institution concerned, are from 30s. per week, upwards.

To obtain the fullest amount of work possible, a systematic canvass of the area is desirable, which will include not only orders from private customers but those from schools, institutions and picture houses as well. In conformity with the usual practice of the trade, contracts to cover either three, four or more tunings a year can be arranged at special rates.

The repairing department must be under the supervision of a first-class man and, if it is properly organized, success is assured.

The cost of the equipment is comparatively small, each tuner being provided with a complete kit of tools.

TENNIS RACKET STRINGING

This is a suitable occupation for either totally or partially blind men. It calls for care and skill which can only be acquired after long practice. The process of interlacing the gut strings is a simple one, but the difficulty lies in pulling the strings to the correct even tension. Uneven tension often results in a twisted frame. The mains, i.e., the vertical strings, are started from the center of the frame and tightened after the threading is completed. Each pair of strings can be "tuned in" to insure even tension. The cross strings are more difficult to manipulate as, apart from interlacing with the mains, they must be pulled to the correct tension before the worker passes on to the next string.

The tools required are few and cheap, viz., bradawl, pliers, knife, vice and billiards—the latter to stretch the frame to its full length and prevent the mains from being pulled too tight, and so avoid a dumpy-shaped frame. The blind stringer will also thread the trebling gut as well as wrap the plaster binding and apply the varnish to the finished work.

The period of training is about one year, while the average earnings are about 45s. per week, based on a piece rate of 1s. per racket.

The trade is chiefly a seasonal one although, as winter tennis has become more popular, a limited amount of re-stringing can be obtained during the winter.

NETTING

This is an occupation particularly suitable for both totally and partially blind women who can be trained in about eight weeks. The wages paid are agreed rates and average about 24s. 8d. per week. In a department of about twenty girls, more or less fully employed, three seeing assistants would be necessary for finishing, although the partially blind can assist in this work.

The nets most suitable are those made from silk, such as are used in motor-cars for carrying parcels; also string netting and cotton and silk nets, as used in railway carriages. The blind can also make the ordinary tennis, fruit and boundary netting, but difficulty is found in competing against sighted manufacturers. Bulk orders for the finer work can be obtained from the motor trade and from railway carriage builders.

Little space is needed, and the initial outlay for tools and equipment is also comparatively small. The work also commends itself because of its quiet nature.

BRICK AND TILE-MAKING

Although this is an occupation which is not practiced in an ordinary workshop for the blind, it is mentioned because, given favorable conditions, a small workshop can be established for this purpose.

The process is that of moulding the clay by hand. Bricks and roofing tiles can be made in this way. The workshop must be adjacent to a brick-field and can only be conducted as long as the proprietors of the brick-field are willing to co-operate. An arrangement is made for supplying the blind workshop with clay and for buying the finished bricks and tiles when they are sufficiently dry to enter the kiln. This means either providing a drying room or obtaining facilities for using that of the proprietors of the brick-field.

The training period is about six months, and this work is particularly suitable for partially or totally blind men who become blind late in life. Good physique is essential. A totally blind man can make about eight hundred tiles per week, at which he earns 13s., while one with a little sight can make about one thousand three hundred weekly, earning 26s. per week. The amount of work available depends on orders received from the brick-field.

KNITTING-NEEDLE MAKING

This is reputed to be an excellent occupation for partially blind men who cannot learn any other trade. The process of moulding the synthetic material is essentially a mechanical one, and in this respect differs from the occupations usually practiced in a blind workshop. The machinery is expensive and, so far, the work is only carried on in one workshop which is in London.

The average wages are about 20s. per week, and the length of training is twelve months. The supervision necessary for the work is not great; seeing women are employed in fastening on

the knobs and boxing and carding the needles, although this can be done by partially blind women.

FURNITURE-MAKING

This is a comparatively new industry for the blind, requiring the installation of power-driven machinery. The industry is divided into three departments: carpentry, assembly, and French polishing.

Carpentry: This department is a machine section and requires a training period of five years. It is generally considered essential for the majority of the workers to have some sight in order to work the machines. The machines used are as follows: squaring-saw machine, band saw, boring machines, panel-planing machine, mortising machine, tenoning machine, dovetailing machine and sand-papering machine. Workers are interchangeable on all these machines except the last named, for which the worker must be specially trained. The average wages earned in this section are approximately 30s. per week but workers on the sand-papering machine earn a much higher wage. The whole of the machinery should be under the supervision of a seeing machine-man. The cost of the machinery and the equipment is rather heavy, and plenty of floor space is needed for this department.

Assembly: Totally blind men can be taught the work of assembling but a seeing cabinet-maker is necessary to carry out that part of the work which is too difficult for the blind. The average wages earned in this department are about 22s. 6d. per week, and the period of training is about five years.

French Polishing: This is work for partially blind women and provides an average weekly wage of 12s. 6d. per week. Seeing women should be employed to apply the first coating. Care should be taken to see that partially blind women employed in this department do not strain their eyes to the detriment of the little sight they have. The period of training is comparatively short and depends upon the ability of the trainee.

To dispose of the products of a furniture department a fairly extensive showroom is necessary, through which a large portion of the output can be sold locally; but to provide reasonable employment for a department of large dimensions, a great deal of trade is necessary through the wholesale market.

WEAVING

The art of weaving, so ancient that records of Chinese weavers go back as far as 3000 B. C., is a suitable one for totally or partially blind women who can be taught to weave on hand

looms a variety of articles including aprons, dusters and cloths for household use. The loom costs about £7 and, so far as simple weaving is concerned, the period of training should be about one year. A seeing person would always have to set up the loom, as this operation requires a great deal of care in threading the warp through the needles. Unlike the coir yarn mat weaver, who works with a very coarse material, a blind woman cannot always mend a broken thread without assistance or find where to re-thread it. She should always be able to tell, however, when a thread has broken. Patterns can be made in different colors according to the pedal used, while the colors depend on throwing the different shuttles. As the work is rather tiring, few weavers can work at the loom longer than six hours a day. It is, therefore, customary for them to be also employed in some other occupation, such as machine knitting, in addition to weaving. A woman working on weaving alone would not earn more than about 8s. per week. The low-priced products of the power loom limit the market for hand-woven goods to the detriment of employment in this direction.

AUGMENTATION

The object of training the blind in some useful occupation is twofold: First, to give them an interest in life and so mitigate any tendency to depression; and, secondly, to give them the means by which they can gain their independence so far as possible. The references, in the foregoing, to the average earnings of the blind workers, are the economic wages actually earned and not the total remuneration received by the worker. From the figures quoted it will be seen that the earnings fall far short of providing an adequate income for the workers concerned. It naturally follows that some system of augmentation is necessary to compensate for blindness and make up the difference between the remuneration of the blind and the seeing worker. The principle of paying a supplementary wage has long been established in Great Britain, although the methods adopted vary in different localities.

The Advisory Committee to the Ministry of Health of this country has always been in favor of a sliding scale of augmentation, giving the greatest amount to the person who earns least, and vice versa. Some governing bodies have, however, adopted a flat rate for high and low wage earners alike.

It will be accepted as a general principle that workshops for the blind should be run on business lines, so far as possible, and,

insofar as production, wages and selling are concerned, the ordinary rules of business should apply.

Our trading accounts will, therefore, give a true statement of our trading activities and, as far as wages are concerned, will contain what may be described as economic wages or payment for work actually done. What is paid as augmentation is something outside the purview of the trading account, and forms a charge on the charitable funds of the institution concerned, or on funds provided by the municipality. The scale of augmentation adopted, therefore, must necessarily depend on the funds available.

CONCLUSION

From the facts mentioned, the conclusions arrived at are that, out of the twenty-one crafts described, the ones most suitable from the point of view of wage-earning possibilities and the amount of employment they provide are: for men, the making of baskets, brushes, mats and mattresses, and pianoforte tuning and repairing; for women, the making of fancy baskets, mattress covers and brushes, machine knitting, netting and chair-seating.

Even with these occupations, however, a clear case is made out for the necessity of some system by which the earnings should be augmented.

It was stated in the beginning of this paper that our object was to find employment for the blind. To do this, it is essential that workers must produce salable goods, which compare favorably with those of our seeing competitors. As a general rule, a first-class seeing craftsman should be in charge of each department to keep the work up to standard. A thorough training must be a first principle, and the best supervision must of necessity be provided when training is completed. Other incentives should also be given such as, the advantage of working with good materials, proper equipment and conditions which encourage the worker to do his best.

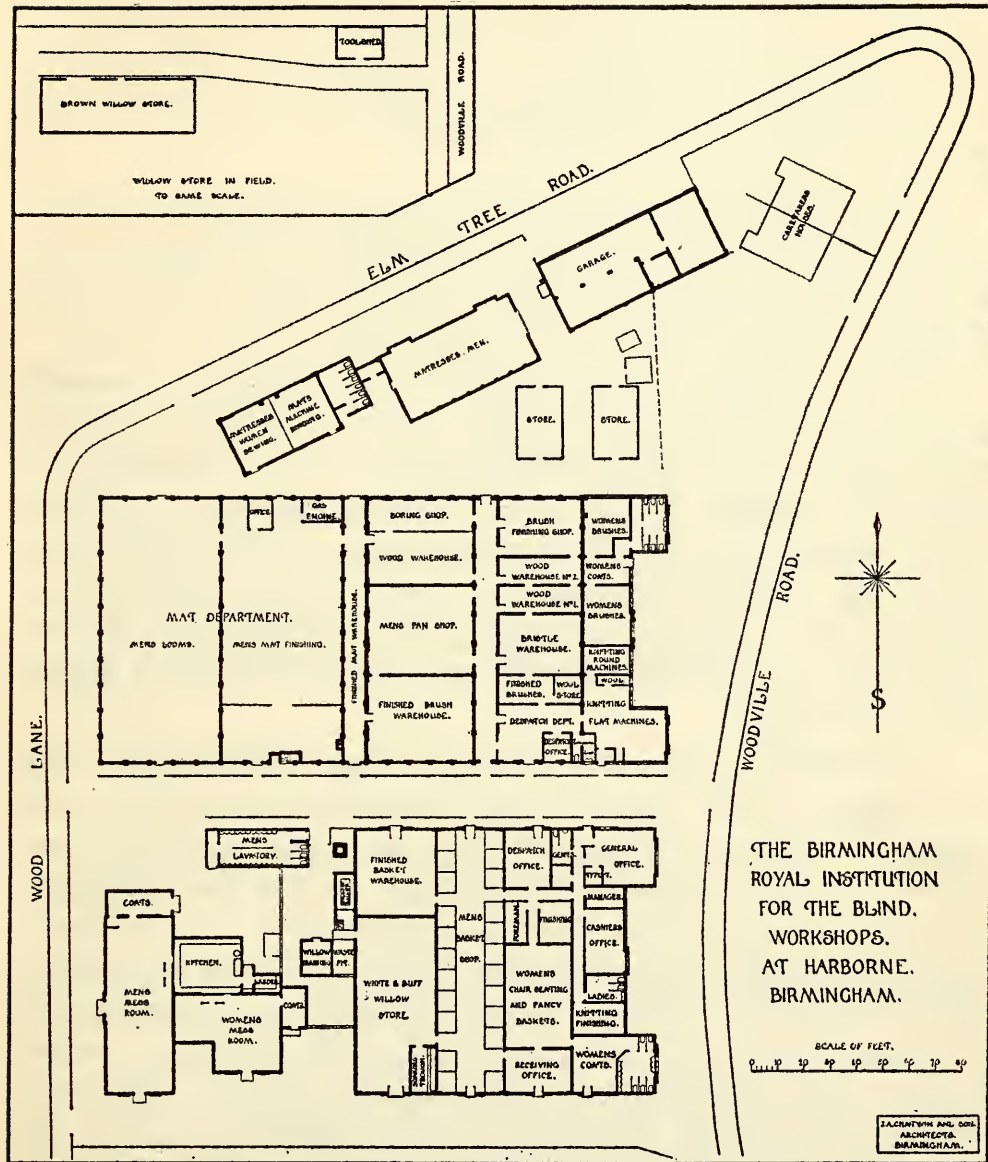
Blind representation should be permitted on the workshop management to give the worker a better opportunity of appreciating and helping to overcome difficulties, thereby broadening his general outlook. Co-operation between management and workers in this direction has been found to develop mutual goodwill, adding considerably to the smooth running and efficiency of the workshop.

The lay-out of the factory is of extreme importance, as much from the point of view of the worker as the management. Convenience is the key-note of success. The opportunity of illustrat-

ing this point is taken by appending hereto a plan of the workshop over which the writer has the privilege to preside. The workshop in question, as will be seen from the plan, is composed of a number of single floor blocks, a system which, one appreciates, cannot always be adopted because of limited floor space. Each department should have its own store for raw materials, which should be conveniently situated. Owing to the growth of the workshop illustrated the original plan has been modified and the arrangements in this respect are, therefore, not ideal. Adequate lavatory and coat-room space is provided, as well as a well-equipped kitchen and canteen where meals are served at moderate rates. The canteen is managed entirely by the workers through their own committee, with a representative of the management as its chairman.

Ventilation is important, especially in a brush-makers' pan shop, where up-to-date methods of drawing away the fumes from the pan should be employed. Light, heating and sanitation are matters for which careful provision has been made. These are important factors having their effect on the comfort and efficiency of those who work under their influence from day to day.

This paper is submitted to the Conference in the hope that it will evoke helpful and useful suggestions for extending the avenues of employment, and that those who are called upon to manage workshops for the blind will realize the opportunities this affords for service to those members of the community who, though deprived of sight, are doing their best to become independent and useful citizens.



PLAN OF THE WORKSHOPS FOR THE BLIND
BIRMINGHAM, ENGLAND

WORKSHOP MANAGEMENT

GEORGE DANBY

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The question of Workshop Management opens so many doors to discussion that it is manifestly impossible to do justice to so large, complex and difficult a subject with this paper, which I have the honor of introducing to this Conference.

Every manager or superintendent of an institution naturally is of the opinion that his system is the best. Probably it is the most suitable under the existing conditions, but the question for argument is whether, by altering the present conditions, a system can be adopted that will give more work for the blind and greater satisfaction to the management. I feel sure that managers of institutions for the blind throughout the world are open to considering, and if possible, adopting, any suggestion for the betterment of the blind.

A manager's position in a factory where sighted people only are employed is not a bed of roses, but where blind persons are engaged in industrial occupations, then his couch is a thorny one indeed. To be a successful (but perhaps not popular) manager, he must be sympathetic, a strict disciplinarian, and have the patience of Job and the wisdom of Solomon to meet the various problems peculiar to blind people. In addition to trading and industrial matters he is confronted daily with the home troubles of many of his workers, who, quite naturally, look to their manager for advice and assistance in their difficulties, and in his leisure (?) time, the social side has to be considered—concerts, whist drives, dances, etc., organized to keep the younger element interested.

In Scotland there are five institutions for the blind; viz., Aberdeen with 71 blind employees and 42 trainees, Dundee with 75 blind employees and 43 trainees, Edinburgh with 101 blind employees and 87 trainees, Inverness with 16 blind employees, and Glasgow. All are conducted on similar lines, but one only (Glasgow) is controlled by a Joint Committee representing the South-west of Scotland, which is responsible for all blind persons within that area. The Royal Glasgow Asylum for the Blind is purely

industrial, dealing only with blind persons over the age of sixteen years. At present six hundred blind workers and trainees are employed, all between the ages of sixteen and fifty-five years, plus fifty sighted employees. For the year 1929-30 the gross sales were £70,225:10:0, 90 per cent of this turnover being wholesale goods sold all over Scotland by our travelers. The following trades are successfully carried on in competition with sighted firms:

TYPES OF EMPLOYMENT CARRIED ON BY BLIND WORKERS IN THE
ROYAL GLASGOW ASYLUM FOR THE BLIND

<i>Types of Employment</i>	<i>Males</i>		<i>Females</i>	
	1925	1930	1925	1930
<i>Trades:</i>				
Baskets	70	96	3	2
Brushes	39	50	3	16
Mats	37	34	3	3
Bedding	51	57	45	65
Upholstery	24
Furniture	22	45
French Polishing	1	7	26
Wire Mattress	14	22
Boot-Repairing	30
Knitting	18	15
Chair-Caning*	12*
<i>Occupations:</i>				
Firewood	39
Chair-Caning	18
<i>Travelers:</i>				
Blind	2	11
Sighted	2	2

*Now considered an occupation.

These figures do not include laborers. The large increase in the number of blind persons employed during the five-year period 1925-30 and the increase of sales from £45,000 in 1925 to £70,000 in 1930 show that the system at present in vogue must be a successful one.

As this institution was the first to adopt the "Minimum Wage" (a standard wage irrespective of earning capacity) a few remarks on my experience of this system of payment will, no doubt, be acceptable.

Every manager and all committees will agree that the industrious blind worker should be assured of a living wage, and by committees adopting the minimum wage the blind worker is relieved of the worry as to whether he will receive sufficient pay at the end of the week for the sustenance of himself and his family,

if he has one. The greatest obstacle to its success, however, is the worker himself. It is generally agreed that a uniform wage induces malingering on the part of the lazy and indifferent worker and often discontent and jealousy on the part of the efficient and conscientious one who, quite naturally, feels he is penalized and not receiving the compensation for blindness he deserves, with the result that his output also suffers. That the minimum wage means diminished output is beyond argument, but it also means less waste of material and better finished articles and so increased sales. It was granted in this institution before I became manager and, unfortunately, granted without any conditions attached to it. As we all know, whenever a precedent is created it soon becomes a general thing and extremely hard to break, and any institution contemplating the minimum wage should attach such conditions as would prevent malingering or other abuse of the committee's generosity. Such abuse may be prevented, if an earning capacity is fixed that each worker must reach before he becomes entitled to receive the benefit of the minimum wage; also the manager should have full power to deal with malingerers as he thinks fit without any appeal from the worker to the committee or other individuals. A bad or dishonest worker would not be tolerated in a workshop for the sighted, so why should managers in workshops for the blind be troubled with them? A respectable workshop is no place for a lazy man or woman. I would also like to see some encouragement given to the industrious employee. If the earning capacity, say for the basket department, were fixed at 50 per cent of the wage to be paid as a minimum, then surely the worker who earned 75 per cent of the minimum should receive a portion of the 25 per cent difference. This easily could be worked in the way of a monthly bonus, and would encourage a man to do his best. The problem of the minimum wage, although difficult and open to strong argument both for and against, ought not to be beyond the power of managers to solve. The system of piece-work as practiced in workshops for the sighted is not ideal for the blind; their earning capacity being, at the most, only 50 per cent of the seeing workers, it is quite natural for them to try and "speed" in order to increase their incomes, the result being faulty work and "unsalable" goods. A system of payment where a low earning capacity would be fixed for a totally blind person and another, say 25 per cent higher, for the semi-blind, to be reached before the worker became entitled to receive it, would, I think, be acceptable. It is only reasonable to expect the semi-blind man, who has often a fair amount of sight,

to be capable of earning more than the totally blind person. My experience teaches me that the semi-blind man, in most cases, regulates his "speed" by the totally blind one.

MEETING OF MANAGERS

The managers of institutions in Scotland have permission from their committees to meet occasionally in order to discuss privately matters of business and to come to agreement on certain lines of action as regards workers and working conditions. These meetings have proved very beneficial; closer communication between managers is to be desired. I hope some day to see the two largest institutions in Scotland united. We are only one hour's journey apart, yet commercially in opposition, manufacturing the same goods. This position has the tendency to lose trade and keep prices low. Where institutions are only an hour's journey apart, why not each specialize in certain trades, instead of competing against each other in the regular products like baskets, brushes, mats, etc.? Centralization of blind workshops is necessary where practical. This meeting of managers in Scotland is, undoubtedly, a forward movement.

PROBLEMS OF MENTALLY DEFECTIVE AND INEFFICIENT BLIND

This is a subject requiring the attention of managers and committees of all blind institutions. Every institution has its mentally defective cases. In Scotland there are 176 blind persons who are certified mentally defective, and 112 known to be so by voluntary agencies but not certified. No provision in the way of special homes has been attempted, so far, and many of these cases are qualifying in institutions to become workers and, eventually, to earn 3s. to 5s. per week doing indifferent-quality work and be termed "journeymen." This is altogether wrong and not fair to any party concerned. The quality and quantity of their work is damaging to the intelligent and competent blind worker and very misleading to the public.

There is a vast difference in dealing with sighted mental cases and those of the blind. As regards the former, the authorities are responsible only for those who are sufficiently mental to be kept under restraint—the others being left to obtain a precarious existence in any way possible; but in the case of a blind person, the authorities are responsible for the individual for life, irrespective of his mentality. There are in many institutions a number of, shall we say, "feeble-minded" blind whom it is impossible to train sufficiently to be considered wage earners. They possess an undeveloped brain which neither medical attention nor

training can alter, yet, in many cases, they have been allowed to finish their training period automatically and become classed as "journeymen," receiving the same pay (in some cases as high as 52s. weekly) as the clever and capable worker, and occupying valuable space in the workrooms. How are we to provide for this section of the blind? My reply is: By providing suitable homes where they can be cared for and kept doing certain occupations that would be useful and keep them interested. In return they would be well cared for and receive a small allowance as pocket-money. These homes need not interfere to any extent with the freedom they at present enjoy. You may say: If they are mental, why not send them to ordinary mental homes? Blind people are happier as a community than segregated, and to place one or two mental defectives in "homes" crowded with sighted ones who would have no sympathy for blindness, would be cruelty; they would be happier and better cared for if special homes were provided for them. There is another side to this question and that is the misfortune of such persons marrying. Everyone must agree that the marriage of a mentally and physically fit blind person is to be encouraged and is a blessing, but we cannot help but deplore the union of mentally defective blind persons. The effects of such unions are far-reaching and have terrible results. In our own institution we have a case, the third generation—a strong healthy lad but a mental case. He is making progress in his training, will automatically become a journeyman at 50s. weekly, and will eventually get married probably to a person as badly handicapped as himself. As the law does not prevent such marriages, the best way is to take such steps that they will never receive sufficient money to plunge into matrimony. The cost of such homes would, in the end, be much less than paying wages of which, as at present, 90 per cent is augmentation. If I have dwelt too long on this subject, I ask your indulgence.

DISCIPLINE IN BLIND WORKSHOPS

Many public men and citizens consider it would be easier and less expensive to give an allowance to all blind people which would make them independent of working; a section of the blind also have this opinion. It may be less costly—it certainly would be easier—but would it be a step in the right direction? In my opinion, every blind person who is trainable and capable of working should be (like his sighted brother) made to do his best to support himself when granted facilities, and should not be allowed to consider only: "How much can I get for nothing?" The

majority of blind workers are never so happy as when they are busy at work. They are self-respecting and hate to feel that they are receiving "charity." They give no trouble in the workshops and willingly abide by the rules and discipline of the institution. Unfortunately, it is often the "few who lead the many," hence the necessity for rules and regulations and for the managers strictly to enforce these. The blind have, for years, demanded sighted conditions in their workshops and, when granted, it is for the officials to see those conditions carried out. The check system of time-keeping should be adopted and payment stopped for loss of time; smoking to be strictly prohibited in workshops and toilets; gambling and intemperance during working hours to mean dismissal. Our officials are instructed to report all serious cases of insubordination to the manager for him to deal with, and an index file is kept which records every item of interest regarding the worker, any breach of rules being entered and the punishment inflicted by the manager being recorded against it. A worker is never dismissed without due warning but, if the offender ignores that warning, dismissal surely follows. To insure discipline, a manager must not threaten unless he is prepared to execute. A system of shop stewards is in operation, the workers in each department electing their own representative. This is helpful in many cases in dealing with the workers' conditions. Access to the general manager must come through the foreman of the department which it concerns, and any deputations of workers to the joint committee must come through the general manager. A complete record is kept of the actual earning of each worker, reckoned on the trade union rate of pay ruling in workshops for the sighted and, in case of sickness, he receives two-thirds of his pay for a specified period.

SIGHTED WORKERS IN BLIND WORKSHOPS

A difference of opinion exists among committees, managers and often blind workers as to what percentage of sighted craftsmen should work in workshops for the blind. I know of one institution where only one sighted man is working in a department of fifty blind journeymen, while other institutions have, in some cases, 20 per cent sighted labor. As a blind worker is always in need of more or less sighted supervision and help all his life, it is necessary to employ a percentage of sighted help in order that the articles made shall have that little "touch" in the finishing to make them "equal." However clever a blind man may be at his trade, little things occur that, if allowed to pass, may make a really good

article into an unsalable one. If, by adding 10 per cent extra sighted labor, your trade will increase sufficiently to allow 20 per cent more blind, why not do so? We are all more or less dependent on each other, and our main object is to find employment for blind people, even if we have to employ more sighted in order to do so.

FOUR PROFITABLE INDUSTRIES FOR BLIND WORKSHOPS

A description of four industries at the Glasgow Institution may be of interest and helpful to those interested and seeking fresh employment for their blind workers. I refer to furniture-manufacturing, wire mattresses, riddles, etc., upholstery, and shoe repairing—all of which are successfully carried on. Furniture-making was commenced some years ago, but never taken seriously as a trade for the blind; the articles manufactured, although good, (considering the conditions prevailing at the time) were hopeless for competing in the open market among sighted firms.

In 1925 the present management, seeing the possibilities of furniture-making as a blind industry, took steps to re-organize it and make it a success; extensive accommodations were provided, modern machinery installed, and efficient instructors engaged. The department is divided into three sections—machinery, assembling and polishing—semi-sighted men only being allowed to work the machines. The preparing of the timber, such as sawing, planing, sandpapering, dovetailing, etc., is all done in this section. After this the timber is transferred to the assembling room where totally blind men build the articles. It then goes to the polishing room where semi-blind girls do the polishing, and a sighted workman hangs the doors of wardrobes, fixes mirrors, etc. The articles, when finished, are good salable lines and retailed all over Scotland.

Furniture-making is one of the most interesting industries in which an intelligent blind man can be engaged. Many institution managers have inspected this department and have expressed their appreciation of it, yet only one institution (Manchester) has had the courage to commence and it is, I am pleased to say, making remarkable progress. Undoubtedly there are great possibilities in furniture manufacturing as an industry for blind people.

Another successful department is wire-mattress- and riddle-manufacturing. We employ twenty blind and one sighted man to make spring mattresses and riddles, the machine for making the springs being worked by a semi-sighted man. Large quantities of wire riddles are also manufactured for use in foundries,

workshops and farms. These riddles are chiefly made by totally blind men.

The boot and shoe repairing department has been in existence only four years but has made great headway. Thirty blind men and boys are at work repairing about four hundred pairs of boots weekly. We do all kinds of repair work, have the latest machinery for finishing, and the quality of our work is equal to any sighted factory. If properly managed, this is a trade which blind labor can do quite well.

Upholstery is an industry easily adaptable for blind and semi-blind workers. It is an interesting occupation and there is a good demand for the work when completed. Several institutions do a little but few, if any, consider it as an industrial department. When I say that we have twenty blind workers re-upholstering furniture and making new "suites," you will probably agree that it can be made a successful department and is worth consideration.

I must apologize if I have, in any way, trespassed on the paper *Workshop Occupations*, submitted by Mr. Starling. I can only say I am anxious that these industries shall receive the consideration they deserve by the various committees and managers.

TRAVELERS

I often think that institutions could increase their sales substantially by employing more blind travelers. The disposal of goods made by institutions which employ a large number of blind people is necessarily a difficult matter and can be successfully accomplished only by a systematic way of canvassing, not only the particular town in which the institution is situated, but a large area of surrounding country. The number of travelers employed by us in 1925 was four. We have today thirteen who practically cover two-thirds of Scotland. There is no sentiment in business and customers will not send orders simply "to help the blind"—they prefer to give a "cash donation" instead and purchase in the open market under competitive conditions. Therefore, the quality must be good and reliable; a good sample is useless if the articles, when received by customers, are not the same quality as the sample shown.

TRAINING

I have always been of the opinion that every blind person between the ages of eighteen and thirty years should be trained to a trade or profession in which his ability would have scope for development. Great care, however, must be taken to select the trade or profession most to his liking and, more important still, that

which is suitable to the district in which he will reside and gain subsistence. New industries are very difficult to find and this is accentuated by the fact that trades which were at one time considered pre-eminently suitable for the blind are now, through changed conditions, becoming useless as a means of livelihood. Such industries, as mat-making, certain kinds of basket-making and brush-making, are no longer the happy hunting-ground of the blind craftsman. It is, therefore, up to managers and committees to investigate any likely channel that may lead to a successful issue. Trainees should be classified by the trades for which they are most suitable and their work frequently reviewed in order that their earning capacity may be judged before they finish training. It has been said that output ought not to count where the blind are concerned; in my opinion a training that does not place its subjects in a position in which they will find the fullest development in employment to procure a fair measure of remuneration can be regarded, to a great extent, as not fulfilling its purpose. An earning capacity ought to be fixed before they can become journeymen; the mere serving of three or five years apprenticeship should not constitute them skilled workers. A factor of great importance in instruction and training is the teacher; educational experts advocate a theoretical training in a technical school. This is useful up to the age of eighteen years, but after that the trainee must be made to understand he is no longer at school but in an ordinary workroom under workshop conditions and regulations similar to an ordinary sighted apprentice. Given expert craftsmen with an enthusiastic interest as instructors, the best results must ensue. The main objects of instructor and trainee must be quality of work together with a fair output and remuneration for labor.

PENSIONS FOR THE BLIND

For many years the workers were asking for a pension. In 1926 a pension scheme was introduced which entitled blind workers at the age of fifty years, with ten years service (inclusive of the apprenticeship period), to claim a pension of 25s. weekly for males and 15s. for females. This, with their blind pension of 10s. weekly, gave them an income of 35s. and 25s. respectively. This privilege was not taken advantage of as we expected, men between sixty and seventy years of age continuing work and occupying room that was required for younger people. In 1929 the committee decided that retirement should be compulsory at the age of fifty-five years, immediately relieving our workshops of twenty workers. Personally I hope to see the retiring age reduced to

fifty. In many cases it is more economical to give 25s. pension than to pay augmentation which often amounts to two-thirds of the wage given.

SOCIAL ACTIVITIES

Following the lines of large commercial firms, a social club for our workers was started in 1925. It was decided that it should be self-supporting and the membership in a few weeks reached three hundred. A fee of 8s. per annum was charged for males and 6s. for females, apprentices in their first year being admitted free. Dancing classes were held, whist drives arranged and a jazz band formed. Concerts were given weekly in the large hall adjoining the institution. Domino and rambling clubs were formed; departmental dances soon followed; a swimming club and choir, which had been dormant for some considerable time, revived; the brass band of twenty-four performers, by the generosity of the committee, purchased new silver instruments and many engagements in various parks, etc., followed. The enthusiasm continued, and in 1928 the Parks Committee of the Glasgow Corporation was approached for a portion of a public park to be reserved for the use of the blind. They kindly granted the request and fenced off a large corner of the Alexandra Park. They also built a fine pavilion for our use. During the summer months, skittles, football, tug-of-war, etc., are indulged in, light refreshments being sold in the pavilion. Manchester was the first city to have a similar club, Glasgow being the second. Friendly rivalry between the two clubs exists; Glasgow has challenged Manchester and is taking a team of thirty blind persons to Manchester in order to play whist, dominoes, skittles, etc. This kind of social work is all for the good of the blind and I hope to see the time when every institution has similar organizations.

In conclusion, should this paper be the means of improving the conditions of the blind workers, I shall feel amply rewarded for my efforts. It will, no doubt, lead to much discussion which I trust will be beneficial to us all.

DISCUSSION

PROFESSOR GÉRARD BORRÉ (BELGIUM): I am glad to learn that in the country just referred to, the blind are in a privileged position compared with what is going on in Belgium, for example, but I should like to ask the gentleman what wages the blind in those workshops are getting compared with the wages received by sighted workmen in the same industry, because it seems to me that in this question a comparison of wages is necessary. We were told yesterday and this morning that the blind were able

to make a living, but we were not told the ratio of pay to that of sighted workers.

In Belgium we have workshops also, and we have observed that the output of the blind, even of the most skilled, never exceeds half that of the sighted workman. Now, under these conditions the wages of the blind never exceed half those of the sighted.

We have also various ways of increasing wages, but these are merely makeshifts, since he who must live on charity is scarcely to be envied. The problem as a whole is how we are to regard the intervention of the State.

But before recommending any particular occupations or adopting new methods, we should assure ourselves of what the blind worker can earn by his own efforts. The whole discussion rests upon that basis. First, we should know the extent of public and private aid; and we should learn how much the blind are able to earn in every country in relation to the earning power of the sighted workman.

MR. F. R. LOVETT (GREAT BRITAIN): I am in rather a different position from most of the delegates here, because, to my very great pleasure, this became an official conference as soon as your president invited the Government to be represented, and I stand here as the representative of the British Government and speaking on behalf of the Government Department which deals with the blind throughout England and Wales. We probably have, therefore, in our department, as wide an experience as exists anywhere of what is being done in workshops in England and Wales with about three thousand workers, and we are able through our inspectors to compare the various practices of the various workshops and to draw some conclusions.

Now I want, if I may, briefly to make two or three suggestions which have come out of our experience. The chief one is this: that the greatest benefit that you can do to blind persons is not to give them your pity or to give them relief and assistance; the greatest benefit that you can do them is to give them the opportunity of living a full life themselves.

Therefore, in our workshop practice we urge all our workshops to keep their training and their charitable accounts separate. We want the workshop side to be a purely business proposition, and we want to find that the training account of the workshops is working for a profit or at least not for a loss, and we believe that if the items are properly analyzed out it enables the management to see whether the training is efficient or inefficient, and thereby in the long run enables them to employ more blind persons.

It is a very intricate and complicated matter. Mr. Danby has already suggested to you one of the difficulties, namely, the way that the wages of the workers are calculated. But I think Mr. Danby would agree, even if you pay a minimum wage, which I may say we in England on the whole do not favor—but even if you pay a minimum wage, I think Mr. Danby would agree that in your accounting you should only enter in your training account the economic value of the work done. That, I think, is the essence of any effective workshop practice, the separation of the charitable from the training account and the attempt to make your training as purely a business-like organization as is possible.

Another point very close to that is the enormously important question of marketing. I am afraid that over the last hundred years there has been too much of a tendency to push articles on to the world because they are articles which it is easy for the blind to make, and not sell articles which

the public wants. It seems to me the most urgent need in workshop practice is constantly to search out what the demands are, and do the utmost to train your blind to produce articles which are in demand. One of the troubles which has occurred particularly in the North of England, where for many years the cotton trade has had an enormous demand for what we call "skips"—great, big, heavy baskets—is that, due to the economic depression, the demand for this kind of basket has gone and the workshops have become almost ruined.

It does seem to me essential that there should be a constant study of the public demand for articles and a constant attempt to train the blind to provide just those articles.

SEÑOR PEDRO FAJARDO (CHILE): It is with considerable emotion that I address you—distinguished teachers in institutions for the blind. Let me first express my warmest thanks to the American Government and to the Committee on Organization for the kindness shown in inviting my country to take part in this Conference, which will certainly be of great benefit to the blind.

In the name of my country and of the Society of Santa Lucia whose representative I have the honor to be, I submit to the Conference the following suggestions:

1. As the only means, in our opinion, of providing economical and profitable work for the blind, I propose that a general competition be organized with the idea that all blind people may submit work made by themselves.
2. That the best work be given a prize and be patented, in order that the blind may in future have the sole right of manufacture.
3. That the jury be located permanently in some central institution of the United States of America.

I hope that this humble idea will be welcomed by you and will strengthen your earnest desire that the blind should become independent.

I come from Chile, a distant land. We arrived here after a journey of twenty-eight days; and I feel very happy to be among you. Chile, a country situated in the extreme south of America, is perhaps unknown to many of you. It is a young country and very anxious for progress and peace.

I shall conclude by once again congratulating the land of George Washington, which produces men like the organizers of this Conference, men who are honored by mankind.

M. DONATIEN LELIÈVRE (FRANCE): It was stated yesterday that efforts had been made in France to secure employment for the blind in ordinary industry. First the telephone was tried. Operation of the standard board, even of the "flash" type, is now an accomplished fact and the necessary modifications have been accepted by the government and put into effect by philanthropic associations, particularly the Valentin Haüy Association.

Two years ago we placed a group of blind persons in a chocolate factory. Their work consisted in wrapping chocolates in heavy paper and then in a tissue paper. After a test period of three weeks they were placed on a piece-work basis and given permanent employment. At the present time they are earning from nineteen to twenty-one francs per day, while this work done by sighted women pays wages which fluctuate between twenty-three and twenty-seven francs. But in this way the blind can follow

their occupation and at the same time secure other employment, such as that of organist or choir singer. Thus they have a new occupation and are enabled to increase their earnings. We advocate the admission of the blind into ordinary shops. They cannot work in every kind of shop, but through specialization splendid results are obtained, and we are convinced it is in this field that their final emancipation will be found.

MR. P. N. V. RAU (INDIA): On this subject I can only make a small addition. I wonder if it is asking too much if we should say that a rule be reached or an understanding be arrived at to the effect that such occupations which can be successfully followed by the blind should be reserved for them, and that sighted people should not compete with the blind in the manufacture of articles which the blind can undertake. If sighted people agreed to do this, the blind could earn their living by such occupations.

MAJOR EDWIN WAGNER (POLAND): I have heard much here about professional and educational matters, but I have not yet heard anything about the blind as citizens and as ordinary people. We must not forget that we as citizens and ordinary folk have our obligations like sighted people. I am afraid that blind people think that everybody has to work for the blind and that the blind have no obligation to work for the happiness of others, for social happiness, for the welfare of humanity as a whole. We must persuade every blind person that he has his responsibilities, and I suggest that this Convention consider this aspect of the subject.

At the present time there exists all over the world a very important question, namely, that of universal peace. I propose that this conference declare itself for peace, and I move a resolution that we, the blind of this Conference composed of delegates from the whole world, say: "Down with war: long live peace for all humanity!"

SEÑOR PARDO OSPINA (COLOMBIA): As the representative of my own country, Colombia, I once more urge the Latin-American delegates to get together for the purpose of discussing problems of particular interest to the blind. I have in mind the management of workshops and would point out what has been done in Bogota at the Colombian Institute for the Blind.

In this regard, tailoring is an occupation which has produced splendid results for the blind of Colombia. It cannot be said that the wages obtained are equal to those paid to the sighted, but in any event there is not much difference. Piano-tuning is a profession which in the course of time may produce satisfactory results in Colombia, although we have not yet definitely adopted it. Scientific masseurs may easily secure remunerative employment.

The suggestion of Señor Pedro Fajardo, the Chilean delegate, about the patenting of work done by the blind, is a very good one. I think that all we delegates should study the subject carefully, and if it prove feasible, support it. We should then consider ways and means of giving it practical and definite form.

I again invite the Latin-American delegations to get together to study and discuss all the plans which we have separately brought with us, in order that Spain and all the Latin-American countries may worthily appear before this Congress and do effective work.

DR. CARL STREHL (GERMANY): As to this talk about different occupations and how to make it possible to sell what is made by the blind, we in Germany have found that there must be protection and so we put a pro-

tection mark, a label, on everything that has been made by the blind. It is much better to bring everything on to the market in this way and not to mix articles made by the blind with things manufactured in the big factories. If the labor of the blind all over the world could be protected by such labels, I think it would make it possible to find a better market.

MR. DANBY: I asked permission of the Chairman to answer one or two questions which were put about my paper. The main one was one by Professor Borré. He asks what are the earning capacities or salaries of the blind. The minimum wage paid to the blind person compares very favorably with the sighted worker of similar trade. Whereas the sighted worker in the basket industry will earn, say, £3:10:0, but very possibly will stay only for three or four weeks at that, the average wage of the blind person is £2:10:0 a week for fifty-two weeks of the year. With holidays off and insurance payments off, the £2:10:0 is the clear money he receives.

Mr. Lovett mentioned the custom of keeping the actual earnings of a blind person separate from what money he receives. I would like to say to Mr. Lovett that that has always been so in Glasgow. The actual earnings of a blind person on piecework rates for that particular trade are reckoned and put in one column, and the money he receives in addition to that, making up the £2:10:0, is placed as augmentation. The earning capacity per person in our institution for men will average fully 50 per cent of the money received, that is, 25 shillings actually earned, and they receive £2:10:0. In many cases blind persons are earning over and above the £2:10:0, but in other less fortunate cases they earn considerably less, and that makes the average of approximately 50 per cent. I would like to have that understood.

As regards the disposal of goods—I was asked some questions just now as to what I meant by placing in the open market. Well, I think I stated fairly clearly that we carried on this business with success. By “open market,” I mean we go first to our metropolis and sell nothing under cost price, which is material, trade-union-wage pay, plus a percentage for overhead charges and then any profit we can get on top of that. I trust I have made it clear.

CHAIRMAN SINCLAIR: The Chair wishes to make one very brief announcement. Mr. Tamori of the Japanese Delegation has prepared a paper on the occupation of massage, and that paper he has placed with the Chair for insertion in the “Proceedings.” That has been done and we will have an opportunity there to read the paper.¹

¹ See p. 523.

MUSIC AS A PROFESSION FOR THE BLIND IN FRANCE

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Probably the most original development in the work for the blind in France is that in the professions of music and piano-tuning. After stating the conditions under which these professions were started and became widespread, and mentioning the results obtained, I wish to speak, also, of the serious difficulties which they are now encountering; for all these different angles of the problem must be considered if we wish to know to what extent the French experiment can be carried out in other countries.

Valentin Haüy, the founder of the Paris School, did not intend this school to turn out musicians but to train manual laborers; music was considered only a recreation. But this attitude was changed by unforeseen circumstances in the second quarter of the nineteenth century. Pupils of the National Institution (*Institution Nationale*) had sometimes been asked to play in Parisian churches for special festivals, and this encouraged some remarkably gifted blind men who were in this school at that time, to establish a higher musical education, including harmony, counterpoint, and composition, as well as a thorough study of the piano and organ. Shortly after this, Claude Montal, another blind man in the school, who had been a carpenter in his youth, persisted in spite of punishment in tuning pianos and taking them to pieces. He soon proved that a blind man can become, not only an excellent tuner, but also one of the best builders of pianos in Paris. The National Institution was already equipped with the necessary instruments for musical instruction, so it was easy to establish a first-class school of tuning. I am sure that the reason this change was successful was because the teaching at the National Institution was practically in the hands of the blind themselves. The intimate understanding that these blind men had

of their own abilities, plus their inner desire to adapt themselves to the society of the seeing, caused a complete change in the school, which, perhaps, could only have come from within. But if this change was a success, we must seek the explanation in outside conditions.

Perhaps, in the musical development of a nation, there is an especially favorable period for the professions of music and piano-tuning. It is the time when music, although understood and appreciated by almost everyone, has not yet become so popular that, I might say, it loses its commercial value.

Thirty years ago, on a trip to Italy, I felt that if the Italians had not secured as good results as we had, perhaps it was because music there was too popular, so that the excessive competition reduced the earnings of the many musicians. At about the same time, when the English also did not get as good results as we did, it seemed to me that in England, on the other hand, musical culture had not penetrated society. Perhaps France was in a peculiarly favorable position; people wanted organs well played, and there were hardly any volunteer organists; middle-class people all wanted music lessons for their daughters, and there were very few schools which prepared good teachers; piano-tuners, also, lacked satisfactory technical training. Whatever one thinks of this opinion, it is too general a view to be of any practical importance. The three principal causes of our success seem to me to have been: the good-will of the clergy, the favorable attitude of the public, and the organization of committees of substantial citizens for financial aid.

One can easily understand that the good-will of the clergy has been the principal factor. Indeed, most of our musicians have started as organists. The idea is to build the position of a teacher on that of an organist. The salaries of organists vary greatly, according to the importance of the parish and local circumstances; but even when the organist's salary is very small, the organ is usually the essential factor of his success. It is the organ which gives the musician an opportunity to become known and to have his talent appreciated. People hear him play at the church services; they speak of him afterwards at home and to their friends. It is around the organ that the group of pupils gathers. They seldom want lessons on the organ or harmonium, but wish piano, violin or singing lessons. Every pupil who graduates from the National Institution can teach the piano, and at least one orchestral

instrument, so an organist can make a position for himself as a teacher.

The good-will of the clergy has been just as helpful to the blind women. Ever since 1860, they have been in demand as music teachers in convent schools. Living a carefree existence in these schools, they find that such positions, while paying only small salaries, are well suited to the needs of women almost inevitably destined not to marry, on account of their infirmity.

Public opinion responded to this effort of the clergy. We all know that in most of the professions open to the blind, one of the principal obstacles to be overcome is the distrust of the public which we call in France "the prejudice against blindness." The man who sees does not believe in the work of the blind; he considers it useless *a priori*. We know how hard it is to overcome the inertia and incredulity of employers even in occupations which are perfectly adapted to the blind and which sight has nothing to do with, such as telephone operating, for instance. Now, in the sphere of music, this prejudice is less strong; perhaps, I can even say it is a little in our favor. Public opinion readily admits that in the realm of sound the blind are superior to those who see; that by a sort of mysterious compensation, their sense of hearing benefits by the loss of another sense.

However, general and wide success would not have been possible without a system of volunteer assistance, especially adapted to the needs of musicians. It was first organized by the Society for Placement and Aid (*Société de Placement et Secours*), the members being graduates of the National Institution, then in a larger way by the Valentin Haüy Association, founded by Maurice de la Sizeranne. Recently, other societies, general or local, have made their contributions to this great undertaking; notably, the American Braille Press (for which we are indebted to American generosity), whose musical editions are especially valuable in this respect. I can mention only a few of the forms which this assistance takes: cheap editions of music; an office for the transcription of music into braille to meet the individual demand; a braille music library lending its scores gratis (the Valentin Haüy Association has more than 20,000 scores); an information office, where musicians scattered all over France can get information about new music or, if they need it, advice on making up a program, choice of a mass, etc.

It is easily understood how useful such societies can be. I will give details about only one of them, the Employment Office, which finds for the applicant a position suited to his needs, sends him to this position, and helps him to get settled there. The musician who on leaving school returns to his home is seldom able to make good. In spite of the considerable advantages he finds in the environment of his family, he very often simply vegetates miserably. By what good luck can he find at home the work he wants—the only work which, specialized to excess, I might say, by blindness, he is capable of doing? The plan is to send a musician to a place where the position of organist is vacant, where there is no music teacher, or piano tuner—sometimes several hundred miles away from his home. Remember, also, that he is often of humble birth, and must suddenly mount several rungs on the social ladder, and that, frequently, the proximity of his family might hurt his respectable position as a teacher. Therefore, a great effort has been made to get just the right position for each man.

At the Valentin Haüy Association we have had the good fortune to have a splendid man who has given most of his time to this task. M. Mahaut is blind, a former pupil of the National Institution of Paris, where he was later a teacher, and knows all the difficulties of the blind from his own experience. He is an organist of the first rank, a pupil of the famous César Franck, and won the *Premier Prix* at the Paris Conservatory. He travels all over France giving organ recitals everywhere and proving, by his example, what a blind man can do on the organ. He has organized a systematic drive for positions as organist. For this purpose, he has personal contacts with the clergy, everywhere, but in most French cities the Valentin Haüy Association has correspondents who watch for these positions. In the large cities, there are regularly organized committees; in many small towns, sub-committees. Thanks to this network all over the country, the committee is likely to be informed as soon as a position is vacant. The applicant sent to the position will, usually, find kind and sympathetic people who will throw all their influence in his favor. If he gets the position, with or without compensation, very often friends of the blind in that city will help him to find lodgings and pupils. The Valentin Haüy Association will help him with money in the beginning, during a period which varies according to the case; sometimes this

financial aid is given for years, but usually a few pupils are soon found. In most cases, the blind musician is soon earning his living; a few years later he is, perhaps, able to marry, to have his own home, and to know the joy of being head of a household.

To estimate properly the results obtained, let us put this question: Given the external circumstances of which we have been speaking, what proportion of the blind can earn their living in the profession of music and piano-tuning?

We have just received a pamphlet on this question written by a professor of the Institution at Paris, M. Philippe Thomas. In this report, published in 1929, he studies the situation of former students of the Paris school over a period of forty years, from 1888 to 1928. Unfortunately, these statistics are limited to the male pupils but they are absolutely reliable. Let us see, then, what M. Thomas says about the practical results of musical instruction at the Institution at Paris, during the last forty years.

Professional teaching at the National Institution has a triple basis: all those who are capable of receiving a musical education are urged towards music; those who are quite without talent learn a trade; between a profession and a trade is piano-tuning, which is a little of both and which everyone tries except really talented musicians. Some make it their trade, others have it as a supplementary occupation.

Now, out of 614 pupils, 343, or about seven-twelfths, earn their living by music. Among these musicians, 200, or one-third of the total number of pupils, earn their living entirely by music; the other 143, or almost one-fourth of the total, have some other work besides music, usually piano-tuning.

The positions of these musicians vary considerably. Some of them are teachers only. One of these is at the Normal School of Music (*École Normale de Musique*) of Paris, and is the author of some very good textbooks on music. He has made a splendid position for himself.

Most of them are both organists and teachers. Several are famous, like M. Louis Vierne and M. André Marchal, who have recently made concert tours in the United States. They, and a few others, have first-class positions as organists in Paris. There are thirteen blind organists in Paris. In the provinces, eight former students of the National Institution are organists in cathedrals. Most of our musicians, however, have settled in small towns. It is important to understand

why a small town offers a blind man better opportunities than a city. I think we all admit that a blind man has no blindness; therefore, it is not because of special talent that he special musical ability given him as compensation for his turns to a musical career, but simply because he will encounter fewer obstacles along this line than in other kinds of work. We must expect, then, under these conditions, that the proportion of real artists will be small; most of the men will become average musicians, but successful only in proportion to the amount of talent they possess. For these men, the competition in big cities is too severe. If they have to struggle against many rivals, they risk total failure. In little towns, I cannot say that their contacts are already made at the start, as, for example, those of a country doctor; everyone needs the doctor when sickness comes, but people can get along very well without a music teacher. Nevertheless, when there is only room for one or two teachers, if the blind man has the position of church organist, which is, of course, a considerable advantage, and if his presence prevents rivals from settling in that town, he should be able to succeed in his profession, provided he is intelligent and active and has had thorough musical training.

In addition, in these small towns, a musician can do both teaching and piano-tuning. In a large city, people would think he lowered himself by such an inartistic occupation. Rival teachers would take advantage of this. But in a small town, it often happens that there is no piano-tuner, and people must send for one from the nearest city; so they would be grateful for a musician with diverse abilities. If he organizes little concerts and takes part in local festivals, he can soon become a real personage.

Besides these musicians who are teachers, there are about fifty who earn their living as pianists or violinists, playing for receptions, balls and cinemas. These are the least talented. Sometimes they play the harmonium in a little church or chapel. They also give lessons at low prices to working people. Doubtless, they make a little money in this way, but they are not in the same class with organists and teachers. They do more piano-tuning than the former class.

Music has also this great advantage: Under favorable circumstances it may lead to a business—dealing in music and musical instruments; and, for the blind man who has resources, business is a good choice. In this case, he usually

has a wife, or some member of the family on whose help he can depend. Piano-tuners, especially, often succeed in this type of business. Some of them peddle sheet music on their rounds of tuning. The more fortunate ones have shops where they have pianos for rent or sale, and other musical instruments. In M. Thomas' report, he mentions sixty-seven former students, or more than a tenth, who have succeeded in business. Several even have shops in Paris. Usually, a loan from a Committee of Aid is the foundation of such an enterprise for, naturally, the problem of capital is essential.

To sum up: M. Thomas states that 70 per cent of the former students of the National Institution have become self-supporting and receive no financial aid, either from their families, or from Committees. Another good sign is that 260 out of 614 students of the first music school (the one in Paris), or almost half, have married. They have their own homes, and have assumed the expense of educating their children. In provincial schools, where, for lack of funds, the musical instruction is not so thorough, the proportion would not be so favorable. However, the above statistics show that, given a thorough musical training, the blind make music a paying profession. This is very satisfactory but we must not be dazzled by the incomes of prosperous business men, or great artists; we must not forget that the blind musician, although he usually takes pride in conquering fate and becoming an independent worker, almost always has a difficult life, which demands constant and energetic effort.

This remark brings me to the somber side of the picture. At the present time, the work of which I have spoken faces very serious difficulties. If in France we have worked out an original method of adapting the blind to life among the seeing, if it is true that the blind from birth have been in a certain favorable position in our country to achieve independence, the future seems to us uncertain—even the near future.

Three matters of varying importance have, one after the other, threatened the results we have achieved.

The first was the separation of Church and State in 1906. The property of the Catholic Church was practically confiscated, so that the salaries of organists in many places were greatly reduced. At that time we discussed in our special periodical, *Le Valentin Haüy*, the question: Shall we continue to train blind musicians? These doubts however have passed without doing irreparable harm. As time goes on, organists'

salaries are gradually being restored to their former level. The principal portion of them consists of "extras"—fees for weddings, funerals, etc., and these fees are not affected by the law. Besides, the profession of organist, even though less lucrative, still gives the musician an opportunity to make contacts with people who will give him support. The present situation is more advantageous to women than to men. The convent schools were secularized, but blind music teachers remained popular, and the freer life of the secular schools suits more applicants.

The second blow was the depreciation of the franc. Not only did this mean reduction of salaries for many organists, but middle-class people, who liked music and wanted lessons, lost a great deal of their money. Salaries are now being raised a little; possibly in time they may be larger. New strata of society, acquiring musical culture, will doubtless in time compensate for the falling off of middle-class patrons. The last reason which remains to be examined however, will, obviously, prevent a complete restoration of the profession.

This last reason is not national; it exists all over the world and new phenomena enhance its importance. It is the sudden and extraordinary development of mechanical music and the radio.

[The first victims were the piano-tuners.] Many people who formerly insisted on having a piano and having it kept in order, now want a phonograph or a radio set.] For the last two or three years, the Committees report that they cannot find new positions for piano-tuners who have no other trade. To hold on to the already established positions is all one can hope for. This development of mechanical music in France coincides with a scarcity of guides, thus further complicating the situation. The business of a blind tuner is often scattered over a wide area, his customers living in all sections of the town in which he has settled. It is essential, therefore, for an absolutely blind man to have a guide who will steer the tandem bicycle on which the tuner makes his rounds, and who will accompany him on railway journeys. Until the War, and even immediately following the War, as vocational training was still badly organized in France, a blind man could find a child of twelve or fourteen to help him, without much trouble and at small expense. But now, on account of the progress of technical education, this supply of help has disappeared and, in most cases, a guide is now so expensive that a blind

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man cannot meet competition. A blind tuner suffers more from this change in conditions than a blind musician, who is also affected by the scarcity of guides, but can often give his lessons at home. [The time seems to have come in France when piano tuning, formerly a principal and often most lucrative profession, must become only a supplementary occupation for the blind man.]

Like the piano-tuners, the minor musicians who earn their living playing for dances and cinemas are hurt by mechanical music. They resent bitterly the fact that people can now dance without their assistance.]

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The most serious consequence of mechanical music for the French blind musician, however, is the decreasing demand for music lessons. There are two causes for this tendency: first, the increase in the number of conservatories of music during the last thirty years, which forces the blind music teacher into ever smaller towns on account of growing competition in the larger places; and second, and chiefly, [the recently developed similarity of education for boys and girls in France. Formerly, all middle-class young girls took music lessons; the study of music was a necessary part of their education. Now that girls as well as boys go to high school, take a bachelor's degree and often enter a profession, they have no time for desirable accomplishments.]

We must be prudent about drawing conclusions from this depressing evidence. If I thought that the French experiment was a complete failure, and that nothing could be learned from it, I should not have spoken about it to you today. The essential thing is to get rid of the vanity which always prevents reforms, and to keep an open mind capable of learning and heeding the lessons of experience. Nothing can prepare us better for this, Ladies and Gentlemen, than a World Conference, such as that in which we are now convened.

It seems to me that the measures to be taken can be condensed into three formulas. First, there should be more rigorous selection among the less talented; competition is too great and it will be necessary to direct these into occupations which the very advantages of music as a profession have led us in France to neglect. Besides massage, which has given good results, there are stenography and typewriting, telephone operating and, also, the liberal professions. Second, we should perfect the technical training of those who still wish

to enter the profession of music. If the study of music has been made more thorough, the blind must do even better to maintain their position among the seeing.

Then the third, and last, measure is to have more generous financial aid. Our admirable Aid Committees were organized with quite insufficient funds. The financial aid which the young organist just starting out in his profession receives is ridiculous compared with that given by the English to their blind workers. Here is a means of livelihood which has been tested and proved. It seems reasonable to give financial support, when necessary, to this profession, rather than to try others which will cost more and not give such good results. I should like to see every musician, embarking in his profession, given instruments to do his work, a piano or a violin, and in addition, financial aid for so long as he needs it, so that he can wait for pupils without getting into debt. The idea is to give the blind man a supplementary salary, as compensation for the special difficulties which impede his work. The idea of a supplementary salary is the great lesson that England has taught us. Sometimes I dream of a generous foundation which would grant a small subsidy to every organist's position which is held by a blind person. What an encouragement to the clergy to choose blind men as organists; and how pleasant for those blind men, who, certain of a living income, could wait patiently for pupils without the humiliation of asking for financial aid!

In spite of present anxieties, I am confident that music will continue to provide for many blind men, though not so many as formerly, a useful, dignified and independent life.

I appeal to society in general for help in maintaining this program, because society should help those activities, preferably, which are best suited to the needs of the blind. There is no other profession in which the blind man feels his inferiority less, in which blindness matters so little, and none which can give him such deep satisfaction.

DISCUSSION

MR. A. K. SHAH (INDIA): I should like to mention the occupation of play-acting. It has, as you know, both an educational as well as a professional value. I have not yet heard or read anywhere about the possibilities of play-acting in relation to occupations for the blind, but I think there are possibilities here also for the blind. It has been tried in our part of the country with some little success. Especially now with the advent of radio, where voice is essential, the blind can be employed with great success. I should like to hear from delegates from other countries where the possibilities of the stage and the radio studios are being explored.

SEÑOR ALEJANDRO MEZA (MEXICO): As a musician, it is my duty to say a few words about music as a profession for the blind. I am glad to say that in many points I agree with Villey. I only want to summarize some points of great interest. Music as a profession is spreading throughout the world, and for this reason the education of the blind should more than ever be directed so as to determine whether music appears to be their real vocation, since otherwise the blind would not find it profitable to enter upon a musical career. For this reason I would say that music should be encouraged as a career for the blind, only in the case of those students who are gifted for the art. Let the blind enter the enchanted palace of music to enjoy music as a fine art, but consider well before giving music to them as a profession, and study carefully the aptitude of the student.

DR. ERNEST WHITFIELD (GREAT BRITAIN): In a measure I was a little disappointed that the Chair decided to take Professor Villey's paper separate from Captain Baker's because the problem of music, as an occupation for the blind, does not differ from other so-called higher occupations. What we have to realize is that in the first place, the possibility of openings cannot, if we want to be fair to blind students, be separated from the course of education which they are called upon to follow. In consequence, I was very much interested and delighted to hear the realistic attitude taken up by two delegates from Mexico, the last speaker, Señor Meza, and Señor Beteta earlier this morning.

There are many of us in England who have come to the conclusion that we must, above all, be realists. Now, we very often hear it said that blind men should have the best possible education; that it is their right; that without the best possible education they cannot fulfil the objects of life in the realization of their best selves. We must, however, not be too narrow when we treat of human things, and we must consider that education is only one of the factors which will enable a man to realize his best self. There is another very important factor, and that is his environment and the attitude of the world towards him.

If you educate a person and take him possibly out of a poor environment, train him to get used to luxury (which he does through the many years of his studentship), teach him to appreciate the finer things in life, and then throw him into the world and give him no means of exercising the stimulated aptitude and impulses of his nature, you are doing him not only a disservice, but you are exercising gross cruelty on him. I therefore maintain, with our Mexican friend, that we have to be realists.

The problem of education, as I see it, divides itself up into three parts: First, general education; second, demeanor towards the world; and third, treatment. Now with regard to music, I touched on that point last night. There are a great number of openings for musicians and they are being exploited. In orchestral music there is the teaching of such instruments as the saxophone, the clarinet, the drums, and possibly the violin. To my mind, there is a large opening in what is called the small band business, small orchestras in cafés, etc.

PROFESSOR PIERRE VILLEY (FRANCE): I wish to state that I am in full agreement with the speakers we have just heard. I think I said when I began that I was not talking of the training of musical artists. I was speaking particularly of the position of the organists in France. I ask you: Can you, in other countries, organize something similar?

Concerning the first point raised, may I say that in France, in my opinion, only the very great artists can hope to earn a decent living with the organ. I am entirely of the opinion of the second and the third speaker that it is dangerous, that it is criminal to lead pupils into the field of music when no definite openings are available for them. That is simply ruining their lives.

One must not put the cart before the horse; one must first be assured of openings. When you are sure of securing openings for musicians of average ability, then you can train such musicians. It is very likely they will find it more pleasant than manual labor, and that it would be better for them, since the efficiency of the blind is only half of that of the seeing man. Until then, refrain from it and train as musicians only those who are exceptionally talented.

EMPLOYMENT OF THE BLIND IN WORK FOR WHICH SIGHT WAS FORMERLY CONSIDERED ESSENTIAL

E. A. BAKER

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J. F. CLUNK

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Due to arrangements under which this Conference is being held, the subject of Placement as covered by this paper has been dealt with in a manner suited to the occasion. We concluded that you would be more interested in the methods used, than in tabulated results.

Our ideas are presented as the result of experience. We do not suggest that they are final or infallible, or that they represent the sum total of practical methods. We present this outline in the hope that it may be of assistance to you in your work.

SALES TALK

Business executives appreciate and often insist on brevity. Placement objects must be thoroughly understood. It is extremely important that the prospective employer should be given the proper initial impression; that is, work requiring hand skill is sought particularly, and workers capable of average or greater production only will be under consideration. The use of pictures of men and women already successfully placed is invaluable, and good pictures do much to help the prospective employer visualize the possibilities in his own industry. We have many such pictures and we are glad to supply them at cost price to any agency. Incorporate some well-concentrated philosophy into your sales talk. Be positive and dynamic and sell your proposition with as much enthusiasm as you would sell any high-grade article, for this is a high-grade business and it deserves your best. Know what you are looking for and tell the employer about it in your most positive manner. Do not beg and do not demand. Induce co-operation by logical reasoning, an appeal to his sporting instincts, and the cultivation, possibly, of a sense of admiration for

your ingenious presentation. The employer wants to know how blind people do things, and co-operation must be secured by intelligent understanding rather than amazement and belief in supernatural ability. Explain in easy language how mental pictures are secured by the detour methods of the other senses and keen judgment. Prove that the eye is just a convenient way of securing impressions, and that all roads to comprehension are not destroyed by the loss of the eye. Explain involuntary reactions when danger appears, and why it is that the average person who meets a handicap must be a better thinking unit than his social and mental equal who lacks the necessity for concentration. The questions of risk, insurance, efficiency and temperament must be answered frankly; and it is better for the agent to introduce answers to these questions before they are asked, than it is to wait for the employer to formulate suggestions based upon preconceived prejudice or fear.

ACCIDENT AND COMPENSATION LIABILITY

It is poor policy to accept fear of accident as an employer's excuse. Modern industrial plants happen to be favorably designed for blind workers, since every effort is made by the employers to provide against accident to the non-thinking sighted worker. All this is added to the careful selection of the blind worker for the given location, coupled with his natural caution. Modern-made machines are easier to operate and are far less dangerous than were the old type. They require less mechanical skill and less effort from the operator. We have yet to find a compensation law that specifically discriminates against blind labor. Insurance rates are based upon accident frequency. Due to careful placement methods, coupled with the natural caution of the blind worker, our experience indicates that he suffers fewer accidents than his average sighted fellow in the same type of industry. A blind worker involves less liability for the employer than the worker with one eye. If the worker with one eye loses his sight, the employer is frequently liable for total disability compensation, but if the blind person has an eye injury, he collects only for lost time. Injuries to other parts of the body bring only normal compensations.

NORMAL STANDARDS

Never sell blind labor on a subnormal or an abnormal basis. Do not permit the employer to think he is going to receive a super worker or that he will be burdened by a dead weight. When a process on which a blind worker has been successfully employed

is changed and requires sight, the blind worker should be immediately transferred. Be content with those jobs in which blindness is no handicap and at which a blind person possessing proper qualifications can produce equally with the average sighted worker and without special arrangements. If you desire a contribution from the firm then seek and get it from the treasurer. Do not attempt to make the production side of the plant contribute, even though the company might be willing. Working space and machinery are the producing assets of the employer. Employees are simply engaged to secure normal production from such equipment. An employer cannot afford to have an inefficient auxiliary any more than he can afford to have an inefficient operator. Therefore, if we are to place a blind person as an operator, we must keep our employer's problems in mind, and we must meet his requirements just as others do. We never say that we are looking for a job for a blind person but rather that we are seeking those operations which require hand-skill, and where a person with no sight or partial sight may secure the same quality and quantity of production as does the average worker. It takes less time to break down preconceived prejudices with this approach, than by emphasizing blindness at the outset. Ultimate success depends on your ability to indicate a proper understanding of an employer's viewpoint and problems, and a sincere desire to render a justifiable service.

AFTER-CARE

Never permit any blind worker to remain on his job after he ceases to deliver normal value to the employer. After-care calls should be made frequently enough to keep in touch with the problems of the employer and employee. Changes in equipment affecting the blind person, and changes in physical conditions of the worker that create worry in the mind of the employer are dangerous to the success of the placement. Be certain that the blind person understands that he holds the job only so long as he can merit it, and that removal will be necessary when he fails. Keep the employer from being worried about what he can do with an inefficient blind person, or with one whose removal is necessary because of plant changes. Maintain the employer's good-will by good after-care service and you will keep a permanent opportunity for a blind person in the mind and plant of that employer.

TEST OF GOOD SELLING

The placement of the first person in a shop is a demonstration of sales ability, but the making of successive placements after the first has failed or has been removed is the real test of how well

the employer is sold to the idea that we are proceeding on a normal basis. If the second placement cannot be made after the first has failed, then the employer has not been properly sold and the original labor and expense are lost. Initially, the proposition must be sold on principle, with the blind employee as an individual kept in the background. When the principle has been thoroughly accepted, the failure of one blind employee will not prejudice the opportunity for others.

QUALIFICATIONS OF PLACEMENT AGENTS

Many organizations believe that best results can be secured by sighted agents, but we have found that a combination of blind and sighted workers is more successful. Here again normal standards must be maintained. Lack of sight alone is not a qualification for placement work. Personality and ability are fundamental requisites, just as for any other high-grade line of salesmanship. In addition, the following characteristics are essential: ability to analyze unfamiliar industries; facility of adjustment to changing conditions; ready grasp of process detail; decision and ability to conduct a satisfactory demonstration; and finally, the placement officer must typify all the best characteristics of the blind person he is seeking to place. The blind placement officer has a psychological advantage in making the initial approach, in analyzing factory processes, in demonstrating operations and, finally, in placing the blind worker. Sighted placement workers are essential in a supplementary capacity. They are particularly valuable in after-care work. A blind agent speaks from personal knowledge and experience, while a sighted agent always must deal with the subject in the abstract. A judicious combination of both blind and sighted placement workers will insure the best results in both placement and after-care service.

AGENCY BACKING AND SUPPORT

To ask a placement agent to go out and make placements without the full support of his organization is worse than the task given to Moses when he had to make bricks without straw. The placement worker without the proper backing may be compared to a skilled workman without tools. If the placement agent is to be held responsible for results, he must be given authority in the selection of workers for opportunities and the removal of those who prove unsatisfactory. Politics, undue influence and pressure must be eliminated; and no one should be placed unless the placement agent is satisfied. Results cannot be properly demanded

from the placement staff if undue influence from other officials of the organization is permitted.

The placement department cannot properly undertake to solve all the economic problems of all blind people. It does occupy a definite place in the program of any properly developed organization for the adult blind. Expenditure for placement and essential after-care can be readily justified. Sheltered workshops require a large initial investment and, usually, unremitting subsidy. A placement is surely an investment, and successful maintenance of a worker should be insured by after-care.

Some blind persons can be served better through a placement department than through sheltered workshops, home industries, etc. It is readily conceded, however, that there are many blind persons who are not sufficiently suitable or capable to be satisfactorily placed in outside industry, and for these the subsidized workshop or the home industry represents the better solution.

WHAT CAN BE DONE IN INDUSTRY BY THE BLIND?

The answer is simply that it depends on the kind, size of industry and the types of persons to be placed. Keeping in mind that we have only very ordinary ability coupled with blindness, we have attempted to seek those jobs that could be performed by any blind person with ordinary ability and with normal energy and determination. A few illustrations may serve to make this clear:

Nut and bolt: Tapping machines, bolt threading, assembly of nuts on bolts, packing, milling machines, drilling cotter-pin holes.

Tobacco: Stripping by machine and hand, feeding wrapping machines for cigars, feeding moisteners, packing cigarettes in boxes, setting up boxes.

Soap: Operating cutting machines for cutting slabs into cake sizes, feeding stamping machines, sealing cartons, delivery from chip-filling machines, hand wrapping of cakes where centering of printing is easy.

Packing houses: Linking sausages and "wieners", wrapping hams.

Candy: Wrapping bars from enroving machines, feeding enroving machines, wrapping suckers, feeding moulding machines, packing.

Automobiles: Machine parts on drills, presses, reamers, assembly of parts on benches, stuffing cushions, making upholstery buttons, assembly of tires on wheels.

Wheels: Lacing spokes, assembly of parts.

Wood boxes: Bundling shooks, delivering from printing press, hand and machine-nailing, repairing.

Paper boxes: Operating staying machines, ending machines, wrappers, corner cutters, breaking stock, carton forming.

Rubber: Wrapping tires with paper, assembly of valves in tubes, cutting stock for tires, assembly of beads, building rubber hose, re-winding hose strips, buffing rubber soles and heels, stringing washers on wires for heels, packing heels, operating press for stitching rubber soles on cloth shoes, hand-wrapping golf ball cores.

Breweries: Setting up cartons, repairing cases, sleeving bottles.

Electrical: Building cores for transformers and motors, operating drills, punch presses and other production machines of similar types in all metal industries, winding coils, taping coils, assembly of small parts, packing lamps, loading and unloading lamp-painting machines, wiring fixtures, skinning cables.

Radio: Building transformers, skinning cables, machine work on drills and light presses, assembly of chassis in cabinet, assembly of variable condensers, coils.

CONCESSION STANDS

Stand-operation is not stand-keeping, for the individual is a business man and not a policeman. This part of a placement program is necessary if men and women beyond the factory age are to be employed, or if those who lack mechanical skill are to be given a chance. No one type of stand is sufficient for our needs, or can serve all persons. Dry stands are those which serve only package goods such as candy bars, tobacco, and perhaps soft drinks. Canteens extend these dry lines and include such foods as sandwiches, soups, pastries, milk, coffee, and tea, and often one hot dish such as a stew, baked beans or a roast. Cafeterias serve the regular and complete line of foods with a variety of menu.

Classes of Stands

Dry Stands: Dry stands as found in most office buildings furnish the best opportunity for the man or woman who must depend on himself most of the time. Hospitals, city halls and public buildings use this type of stand. If an operator is found incapable of managing the more intricate detail connected with a canteen or cafeteria, the agency will probably find that the dry stand will be more suitable. The permanent investment on the

part of the organization is often even larger than for canteens or cafeterias but the after-care requirements are less.

Canteens: Canteens can be operated by one blind person and one sighted assistant, and the limited lines, plus the small space, make this type of stand more desirable for most men and women of average ability. Again, the permanent investment is not as large as for a cafeteria, although if high-grade equipment is installed, the investment of the operator may be nearly as great.

Cafeterias: In general, we have found that a cafeteria is practical only when a blind person with aptitude can be assisted by a capable sighted relative who has more than a pay-roll interest in the success of the business. For the right type of blind person a good industrial cafeteria offers every chance of expression of business ability and can be made to yield good returns. However, the loan investment is usually greater than most agencies can afford for any one placement, although the permanent investment is not excessive.

PRINCIPLES

Profiting by the experience of others, we have attempted to avoid the difficulties experienced elsewhere. Our stands are a combination of chain-store and independent ownership. They are chain-stores, in that all operating rights are held by the Institute, and any operator can be removed at will; nor may he sell, lease or dispose of the concession in any way. Regardless of his investment in equipment, he only has operating rights. The business is individual in that the operator is responsible for his purchases and contracted liabilities. He enjoys the full profits and is permitted to continue indefinitely subject to satisfactory service to his patrons and management acceptable to the Institute. A good operator may be promoted to a larger stand that will bring him in a greater income, and a poor one may be removed without notice for mismanagement. Permanent fixtures are placed and owned by the Institute and are loaned to the operator. These include such items as show-cases, plumbing fixtures, counters, shelving, light fixtures, Working apparatus is purchased and sold to the operator at cost without interest or carrying charges, and he is asked to pay at least five per cent of the sales per month on this account or loan. These items include such things as dishes, cutlery, steam tables, coffee urns, stoves, refrigerators, cooking utensils, etc. It is a well-known fact that all of us take better care of our own property than we do of another person's, and this system places the responsibility for proper care upon the operator. All repairs due to

wear and tear, to remodeling due to increases in business, painting and so on, are done by the Institute as part of its investment in the opportunity, and this is charged off on our books in an account known as Placement Assistance. Operators are encouraged, and are often required, to pay for their own adjustments and repairs where stand profits are exceptionally good. Copies of our agreement forms such as we make for both firms and operators are attached hereto. (See pp. 175-177.)

Cafeterias may require a great deal of space and, of course, depend upon the nature of the service that must be given. Canteens need not exceed two hundred square feet, and we find that they are best if we can have them from eight to ten feet in depth from front to back and from fifteen feet to twenty feet in length. Dry stands for public buildings and hospitals vary from the telephone-booth type, which is thirty by sixty inches, up to the larger stands occupying a space of six feet in depth and twelve feet in length.

VOLUME OF BUSINESS

Canteens and cafeterias should sell about \$4 per month per employee in the plant, and of this amount the operator should make a gross profit of from 30 per cent to 40 per cent. Thus, on a staff of three hundred persons the stand should sell \$1,200 worth of goods and the gross profits should be from \$360 to \$480. Out of this, the operator must pay all expenses except those for raw materials. Hospital stands should average about \$1.50 per bed per month, and the gross profit on this business should be about 25 per cent, although in the United States it is nearer to 30 per cent, because of the lower prices for candy and tobacco. The best location for a cafeteria is in the basement of the factory, but a canteen should be located on the working floor and preferably in the center of the shop and on the lowest floor of the plant. Hospital stands should be near the main entrance or in the main corridor or rotunda and not in the outpatient department where only the poor come for treatment. A small stand properly located is to be preferred to a large stand poorly located.

SUPERVISION

A sighted staff-trainer should be employed to train all operators at their work in their own location, and this trainer should be permitted to spend from one to two weeks with each new operator. The training must be given in such a manner as to make for the independent functioning of the operator; and the

trainer must gradually shift the burden of buying, planning and organization to the operator so that when the training period has passed, he will be at home in his new business. We have not found it necessary to maintain a training centre for this kind of work, although such a centre would be valuable in determining the fitness of applicants before they were placed, and would undoubtedly save much worry and labor turnover. Apart from the chief advantage of determining the fitness of prospective operators, a training centre can be of little service in reproducing the conditions found in actual practice, because of the great variety of conditions. Irregular after-calls are made by our sighted staff-trainer and supervisor and the operator never knows when he will have an inspection of his service and operating methods. Each operator is given a set of books. At the end of every month an inventory is taken and a balance sheet is prepared for him showing the exact condition of his business. If gross or net profits are not as large as they should be, concentrated attention is given his stand until the problem is worked out. Sometimes it means change in management through the removal of the operator. Invariably this attention means better co-operation on the part of the company and its employees with whom we are working. The highest standards of cleanliness and efficiency must be maintained, and blindness is no excuse for poor conditions.

COMPARISON WITH OTHER INDUSTRIES

From April 1, 1928, when the Department was started, to December 31, 1930, the total cost of placement service in Ontario, including salaries and expenses of placement officers, investment in stands and loans to operators on equipment, etc., amounted to \$52,000. The total loans to operators during this period were \$22,000. Operators are asked to make repayment at the rate of 5 per cent of their gross sales per month, but they are not pressed for payment during slumps in business or until their sales are fairly well established; and such repayments usually start about the fourth month after a stand is opened. Thus far, \$3,465 has been returned to the loan account. Due to the accounting assistance from the Institute and increasing experience of operators, these repayments are steadily increasing in spite of business depression. The actual total cash returns to blind persons placed on all jobs during this period amounts to \$156,000.

Investments in Ontario placements were heavier during this period, since the general depression forced us to concentrate on cafeterias, canteens and dry stands as against industrial placements.

The GRANTEE further agrees that prices charged for merchandise shall not exceed regular retail prices.

The GRANTOR agrees with the GRANTEE to allow the GRANTEE to remove on the expiration of this lease all property, fixtures, and fittings installed and owned by the GRANTEE for the purpose of conducting the business before described.

THIS AGREEMENT AND ALL ITS TERMS SHALL continue after the expiration of the above period subject to cancellation upon thirty (30) days' notice by either party, and shall inure to the benefit of and be binding upon the parties hereto, their successors and assigns.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF THE PARTIES HERETO have hereunto set their hands by their proper officers in that behalf and affixed their corporate seals thereto.

SIGNED, SEALED AND DELIVERED

in the presence of

AGREEMENT made this

day of

19 BETWEEN:

THE CANADIAN NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR THE BLIND, a body corporate, having its head office in Toronto, Ontario, hereinafter called the "Institute" and herein acting by , hereunto duly authorized.

OF THE FIRST PART,

AND

, of , hereinafter called the "Operator",

OF THE SECOND PART.

WHEREAS the Institute has acquired from the the right to operate a concession stand or canteen in its located at St., AND

WHEREAS the Institute desires to assist the Operator to establish himself in business.

WITNESSETH:—

1. The Institute hereby grants to the Operator the enjoyment of the right to conduct said concession stand with the understanding that such enjoyment is and shall be personal only to the Operator and may be terminated or ended at any time by the Institute.

2. In consideration of the covenant of the Institute in the foregoing paragraph, the Operator undertakes,

- (a) To persevere in the conduct of the said business until at least such time as he satisfy the Institute that he has given same a fair trial and not to abandon the said business without the approval of the Institute.
- (b) To devote his full time and attention to the conduct of the said business, being on duty daily from A. M. to P. M.

- (c) To notify the Institute in event of his inability through sickness or other cause to attend to said business, and
- (d) To keep proper books of account in connection with said business and allow the Institute or its nominee to inspect such books at any time in order that the Institute may exercise supervision over the conduct of said business.

3. The Institute hereby leases to the Operator the equipment herein-
after described in List "A" at an annual rental of \$ _____ repre-
senting _____ per cent of the cost price of said equipment, payable
in installments of \$ _____ per month, the first of which shall be-
come due on the 1st day of _____, and the Operator in
addition to paying said rent, undertakes,

- (a) Not to represent himself as the owner of said equipment.
- (b) Not to part with the possession of said equipment, and to notify the Institute promptly of any attempt to dispossess him thereof, obtain a lien or execute an process of law thereon.
- (c) Not to alter said equipment without the written consent of the Institute, to keep said equipment in good repair and to advise the Institute regarding its condition on the 1st day of January in each year and at any other time upon request.
- (d) At the termination of the lease to surrender to the Institute said equipment in good order and condition, except for reasonable wear and tear.
- (e) To be responsible to the Institute for damage and depreciation caused to said equipment by his fault or negligence and for any other loss due to his failure to observe the terms and conditions of this lease.

4. The Institute hereby sells to the Operator the equipment herein-
after described in List "B" at the price of \$ _____ payable in
instalments of \$ _____ per month, the first of which shall become
due on the _____ day of _____, with the
understanding that the Institute shall remain the owner of such equipment
until complete payment of the price, and should the Operator make default
in his payments, the Institute shall be entitled to cancel said sale, recover pos-
session of said equipment and retain as liquidated damages, all amounts paid
on account thereof by the Operator.

5. The Operator further agrees that, upon his ceasing to conduct said
business, the Institute shall have the first option to purchase all merchandise
and equipment belonging to him and being used in the operation of said
business, at the wholesale price for the merchandise and at such price for
the equipment as would represent the actual value thereof after due allow-
ance for depreciation.

LIST "A"

Equipment Leased:

LIST "B"

Dated at _____ this _____ day of _____ 193

.....
In the presence of:—
.....

DISCUSSION

CAPTAIN BAKER: Mr. J. F. Clunk, who is associated in this paper with me and who is the National Supervisor of Placements in Canada, will follow with a specific explanation and discussion on the placements in general industry.

MR. JOSEPH F. CLUNK (CANADA): One of the first questions to be answered in the consideration of a Placement Department is: Who shall be served by this type of service? We say that an individual shall be considered from exactly the same angle and point of view as though he had not lost his sight.

What would you be doing if you were not blind today? The answer to that question determines our entire action with regard to our analysis and service to the individual. Obviously, if he were of a mechanical turn of mind, a factory worker coming from a family of factory workers, there is no reason for assuming that he is going to be a *maestro* in music.

And furthermore, there is no reason for assuming that he is going to be endowed with that indomitable spirit that is going to make him a business executive and dominate mankind. So on the other hand, if a man is a business executive or has been of a clerical type and is a mental unit in society and business under ordinary circumstances, we have no right to condemn him to any type of a factory job just because he acquires a characteristic held by some other factory worker.

Where shall this man be placed? Assuming that he is an ordinary individual, lacking in the initiative required for independent personal adjustment—the ordinary worker, or the ordinary person who comes in off the street—so far, without making any intensive effort to secure a large variety of industrial opportunities, we have found practical jobs in over forty types of industries. That means industries such as automobiles, steel, tobacco, candy, rubber, and so on. And by a practical job we mean a job at which an individual without sight may secure the same production for the same wage as does the average worker now employed by the manufacturer; or, as some would have it, by the average sighted worker.

Furthermore, we have yet to place any blind person on a job at less wages than the sighted beginner, nor have we permitted him to continue unless he received compensation in proportion to his production, and we never permit him to remain on a job unless he is a normal producer.

How will this placement be made? Frankly, it is just hard work. You will never get jobs for blind persons in industry sitting at your own desk. The sales talk must be brief, must be to the point, and you must know what you are looking for. After you have satisfied the employer that you are not going to wreck his machinery or ruin his entire organization, then you must continue your sales talk by demonstrating and proving the practicability of the job you are seeking. In other words, seeing is believing, and a fifteen or twenty minute demonstration on a particular machine or bench job does more than hours, weeks or years of negotiation.

Obviously, a totally blind person must possess the same sales ability, business judgment and ability to meet the employer from the president to the foreman, as any sighted salesman of a high grade commodity.

The person then placed on his job after the sale is completed, is taken to his job by the placement agent and is trained on his job. Instead of the years, weeks or months of expensive intensive training at some new task or

some new trade, we find in placement service that the average blind worker, if he has the ability to fit that job, will learn the task in the same length of time as does the average sighted employee, and that means a few hours a day or two days at most instead of expensive long-time training with the possible hope of future remuneration; and you get action immediately and you know whether or not the man is going to make good, and you don't have to market his products, and you don't have to worry about whether he is costing a lot of money if he earns a normal wage in the same length of time as does the average sighted worker and in most cases in less.

After-care is absolutely essential. The employer must not be left with a blind person on his hands who may in future, even though he first qualifies, proceed to become a problem either because of changes in equipment or changes in process or changes in the personal factors of the individual.

The organization for the blind must relieve the employer of the necessity for looking after the care of that individual, regardless of what change makes that man a problem to the employer. Detailed, intensive after-care is only insurance to protect and perpetuate the opportunities for which you have labored so hard.

In conclusion, we believe that a placement program properly conducted, properly supported, will minimize to the individual, to the greatest possible extent, the factor of blindness in his own light, and will bring to him a normal adjustment in his own community, and keep him from becoming a segregated unit either in business or in industry.

MR. HENRY HEDGER (AUSTRALIA): I might tell you that, although I am connected with an institution which provides employment for the blind, it never pays to place a man outside if you can possibly help it. I will explain that tonight at the round tables downstairs, but in looking through this paper, I feel that it doesn't give us quite enough definite information as to what is being done so that we can judge as to the value of placement-work so far as it has been done in Canada.

Now I would like to put these questions to Captain Baker:

1. How many blind people are there available to place?
2. From the experience already gained, what prospects are there of securing permanent employment for a fair number of blind, and what wages are they earning?
3. How many blind persons have been placed to date?
4. What is the cost per man as placed to date? That is to say, I want to know as a fact from the statement that has been made in this paper, that it costs less to place a man in placement and supervise him after he has been placed than it does to train him and supervise him under workshop conditions.
5. Do blind workers receive more consideration from private employers than they would get in ordinary workshops for the blind?
6. Is there any way to show the number of those who would be considered mentally and physically fit to be placed on outside work?

If I can get this information before tonight, I would like to have it because I intend to deal with this question very fully when we get downstairs.

MR. CLUTHA N. MACKENZIE (NEW ZEALAND): I just beg the liberty to speak for a few moments. I think that Captain Baker's paper is one of the most instructive contributions we have so far had and I can indorse

heartily all that has been said, for I have already had the privilege of spending a week or ten days at Toronto in going into the details of the work.

Nothing that has been said is in any way accentuated or exaggerated, and the work has been done in a very practical spirit and I would strongly recommend to those who contemplate extending this sphere of work in their own countries to go to Canada and study it there on the ground. I went myself into several factories and saw these men actually at work under conditions in which it certainly would appear to be impossible to tell them from others with sight who were doing such jobs. There they are, settled down and working high-pressure drills and the like and doing the job just as efficiently as their sighted next neighbor. As far as I could see, speaking roughly, I imagine about \$25 to \$30 a week were their earnings, or £5 to £6 in British currency.

I could not very well imagine at first any direction in which we could apply their practice to New Zealand, as our country is mostly rural, but after going into the matter in detail, I am certain that we can find jobs for some of our people there. It seems to me essential, however, that in any country where work for the blind is to be highly developed, there should be a general aftercare fund, which can help the blind in taking up outside active work with proper supervision and can give them the necessary financial start.

In conclusion, may I say that I do think this department placement work is a very fine new development in the work for the blind, and I do hope that people will give it the credit which it really merits to a very great degree.

M. PAUL GUINOT (FRANCE) : I have but two minutes in which to speak ; I have but two questions to ask. I have just heard some very interesting statements regarding Canada. I was in Canada last week. I learned that in Montreal the blind workers earned, on the average, fifteen dollars per week if they were single and twenty dollars if they were married. I have also learned that of these fifteen dollars or twenty dollars, a considerable proportion came from the funds of charitable or benevolent organizations, so that the salary was in reality approximately only fifty per cent of the sum of fifteen or twenty dollars.

Since Captain Baker seems to secure better results in Ontario, I should like to know whether this is due to a better organization, or merely to a greater activity, intelligence, and professional and social ability of the blind of Ontario as compared with those of Montreal. This is my first question. I think that by generalizing one arrives at conclusions which are far from reality.

I am blind from accident. Until the age of twenty-five I was able to see. I am entirely convinced today that as a blind man I do not possess all the faculties which I would have enjoyed had I continued to see. One of my friends says correctly that when one is blind one does not see clearly. Well, it would be advisable therefore that in this Conference where we are all searching for the truth we should not be led into error by figures and salaries, wages, etc. which do not correspond with the truth.

My second question is merely to answer the one put by the Australian delegate. The Australian delegate has asked us an extremely important question which I believe I have understood correctly—if not, you will tell me so. Inasmuch as a given number of blind exist, and since millions are spent for

their education, assistance and social betterment, what is the result from the economic point of view, what is the economic output of this given number of blind people? This is a question which the Conference should consider and to which I should appreciate an answer. For my part, I do not believe it is possible to answer it.

CAPTAIN BAKER: In order to make this as snappy as possible—and a Placement Department is a snappy department—the questions on placement service cannot be answered in this manner, in a hurried fashion, but I will be glad to give you any information that we possess at the round table tonight, or any other place.

We have with us a history of one placement made in an automobile plant where the history was given to the parliamentarians or the legislators of Ontario to show them how a placement was made and the methods pursued. Mr. Myers who is the Assistant General Secretary of our Institute for the Blind, will read that paper.

MR. R. MYERS (CANADA): Before any blind person is placed by the Canadian National Institute for the Blind, an experienced blind Placement Officer demonstrates in the factory by doing the work under the supervision of the factory officials.

If the demonstration is successful and the prospective employer is satisfied that blindness is not detrimental, then the placement officer and the employer mutually agree upon the most suitable job for the particular blind person to be employed.

This blind person is carefully studied before he or she is placed. Training is given him by the Placement Officer of the Institute and the blind person is immediately removed if he fails to make good.

The blind worker who is totally blind or possesses less than ten per cent of good object vision is placed at work in a restricted area where all supplies and materials are within his own reach.

A case in point is Mr. Norman Hill, a totally blind worker employed by the Steel Company of Canada at the Lakeshore plant, Toronto. Mr. Hill operates a semi-automatic eight-spindle nut-tapping machine. The width of the machine is about six feet. His supplies of nuts are at his left. These are shovelled by him into a feeder which is at the left of the machine. Immediately in front of him is a specially adjusted table according to his height, which forms part of the machine and from which he operates. He stands feeding the nuts into slots working constantly from left to right. These nuts are caught by the spindles. There is a certain caressing motion of his fingers as he runs his hands over the nuts and spindles, hands continually moving with no hesitancy until the operation is completed, upon which he detaches a spindle, throwing the threaded nuts into a tray situated in front of him on the other side of the machine. He then places the spindle back into its slot and the operation is repeated.

A comparison was made with that of a sighted worker on the next machine immediately to his right. It would be difficult to distinguish which was the blind worker. Mr. Hill's production of twelve thousand threaded nuts a day compares with any other operator in the plant. His average earnings are twenty-eight dollars a week. Before entering this plant he had never had any experience, in fact had never seen or had any idea what a semi-automatic, eight-spindle, nut-tapping machine was like. Mr. Hill has been employed nearly three years. Before entering the Steel Company, Mr.

Hill worked in a stock piano factory, tuning pianos, at ten dollars per week. The factory had closed down.

In all cases a blind operator possessing 10 per cent or less vision is ordered not to travel without a sighted guide. He is not permitted to enter the factory building without sighted assistance.

In operating machines the blind worker is placed on equipment considered "fool-proof" to the average sighted operator. His movements are very much limited in number and distance.

There has been a distinction made of a blind worker who can distinguish boxes or barrels at twenty feet or less, who has been placed on a job where he may be required to secure his own supplies.

Following actual placement, a system of aftercare is established. The blind worker is not left to "go it alone." He is watched as to progress. This is done with a view of helping the worker obtain a proficiency if possible, equal to that of the sighted worker. Wages are allowed to be paid only in accordance with earning power. The point of view of the employer is always ascertained. If the worker does not give satisfaction he is removed. It is always considered essential to keep the good-will of the employer and if one blind worker fails another is found to fill the job. The worker who fails is encouraged and efforts are made to find a more suitable job compatible with his mental and physical outlook.

GUIDE DOGS FOR THE BLIND

DOROTHY HARRISON EUSTIS

President, L'Oeil qui Voit, Vevey, Switzerland

It is only with a certain amount of trepidation that I present the subject of educated dogs as guides for the blind to the convention here assembled. This trepidation arises not from any lack of faith in the ability of the dogs nor from any lack of personal knowledge as to what the educated dog can mean in the life of a blind man or woman, but comes rather from the fear that I will not be able to present the subject in its full worth now at this first opportunity to speak of dogs as guides for the blind before a convention of such importance as this one.

Our coming together is occasioned by an international desire to better the educational and the occupational conditions of the blind of the world. As I have had the personal opportunity to observe how greatly the educated dog can better conditions for the blind person educated to his use, I am going to tell you of what I have studied and seen as well as what has been accomplished up to this time.

When I say that I think we should start our study of the question with a short resumé of the history of the dog as guide for the blind, many of you will doubtless be surprised for there are probably many of you who think, as I once thought, that there can be no such history. If we are to judge from the world of art we could say that there have been dog guides for many hundreds of years, but this is beside the point for we have no way of knowing whether the dogs really accomplished anything or not. We do find, however, that Herr Johann Wilhelm Klein, the founder of the Institute for the Education of the Blind (*Blindenerziehungs-Institut*) at Vienna, published a book in 1819 on the education of the blind. In this volume Herr Klein deals at some length with the subject of dogs especially trained for the use of his wards and deals at length not only with the methods of training the dogs but also with methods by which the blind can make use of the dogs so trained.

The information from this volume was digested and reprinted by Dr. L. Gaebler, of Berlin, in 1929, but, as Dr. Gaebler tells us, we have no way of knowing whether Herr Klein's suggestions were carried out or not. The scientific use of the dog

as guide seems to have been a result of the Great War. During the war there was a society headed by Geheimrat Dr. Gerhard Stalling of Oldenburg, Germany, which trained search dogs for use in the German army. As the war progressed and the numbers of war-blinded continued to increase, Dr. Stalling conceived the idea of the use of dogs as guides. He carefully studied the problem and worked out a method of instruction for the education of dogs for this work. In August, 1916, the Oldenburg Society under Dr. Stalling organized the first permanent school for the sole purpose of educating dogs as guides for the blind. As a result of the marvelous work of the dogs educated there, the Prussian War Ministry thanked the school for its work some eighteen months later (April 27, 1918) when the real value of this work became evident. To facilitate its work, the Oldenburg school had opened a branch school at Breslau and in April, 1925, this school was taken over as a working unit by the German Association for the Blind (*Reichsdeutscher Blindenverband*). In 1923 the German Shepherd Dog Society (*Verein für Deutsche Schäferhunde*) opened a school at Potsdam. Other schools were opened as time went on and many trainers educated dogs for the blind of their own districts.

At the present time there are recorded as in use in Germany some fifteen hundred educated dogs with war-blind and some twelve hundred with civilian blind. If we were to add to this number of recorded dog guides the many dogs which have been turned out by smaller schools and private trainers, the number would probably be quite close to four thousand dogs actually in use in that country of the real origin of the service.

In 1925 and 1926 I visited Germany for the observation of the work of training dogs for police work, but became greatly interested in the work the dogs were doing for the blind of Germany. As a result of my interest I wrote an article which appeared in *The Saturday Evening Post* in 1927, describing the work then being done in Germany. The immediate result of this article was a demand by letter from American blind persons asking if the story were true and if so where such dogs could be procured. Most of these letters came from blind persons who thought the trained dog could be shipped to them and they could use it. They overlooked the fact that it is necessary that they be trained to use the dog.

One letter from among these took my attention strongly as it was from a young blind man who said he would like to test out such a dog under American conditions and if the dog worked

successfully he would then like to organize a non-profit-making school in America to make such dogs available to America's blind. After an interchange of letters this young man decided to come to Switzerland to be trained with such a dog. The Potsdam School very kindly put their school at our disposal for a study of the methods of education of the dog and the blind and a study of the many difficulties which arise in the work. As a result of this study an educated dog was ready for her new blind master when Morris Frank of Nashville, Tennessee, arrived in Switzerland in the early part of 1928.

Mr. Frank finished his schooling in the use of a dog and returned to the United States alone with his dog—the first time in his life of darkness when he had been able to go where he pleased and when he pleased without a human guide. He visited the largest cities in the East—New York, Philadelphia, Washington, and Cincinnati; he visited little country villages in his home state of Tennessee; and everywhere he wished to go his dog took him surely, quickly and safely.

Some six months later I received a letter from him that the dog was a success in every way and under all conditions of traffic and that as a result he had made the plans for his school, had interested the blind and was ready for the first class of blind in January, 1929. Since then 61 dogs have been educated and turned over to their new masters. Of these, seven, for reasons mentioned later, were unsuccessful.

Neither Mr. Frank nor I realized how difficult the question of trainers would be. A search of Germany revealed the fact that while many trainers had trained dogs as guides for the blind there was a relatively small number of really good head-instructors there.

This study brought out some interesting facts as to why the good trainers were so scarce. It was truly a case of "Many are called but few are chosen." The first great point of difficulty was that a "trained" dog was dangerous as such a dog simply obeyed commands as given by a seeing master. The dog as a guide for the blind needed to be educated rather than trained, so that he obeyed such orders as were safe to obey but if this sightless master gave an unsafe command the dog must of *his own volition* disobey that command and definitely let his master know *why* the command was disobeyed and *what* he must do to arrive at his objective safely. This difference between the training and education of the dog at once disqualified many trainers who did not understand dog psychology to the point necessary to

educate the dog rather than to train it. Then came the problem of educating the future masters to use the dogs. Many trainers capable of educating the dogs did not have the knowledge of human instruction nor the specialized knowledge of the psychology of their human pupils to enable them to bring the master and the dog together as a working unit. So once more another large percentage was disqualified. Next the schools for dog guides found that even in this small portion of instructors who could educate both dog and sightless masters there was a large percentage who soon became disqualified because their nerves could not stand the enormous strain which the work entailed. The end result has been that in Germany, a nation of dog lovers, dog trainers, and dog educators, they have been able to retain as competent instructors of dog guides only between 5 per cent and 8 per cent of the selected apprentices who started the work. At Oldenburg, for example, they have had as many as fifty apprentice trainers at one time and their present corps of ten instructors is all that remains as a "survival of the fittest" after fourteen years of constant work. At Potsdam there were ten trainers tried out before one was retained as a third man in the corps of three trainers working there.

This difficulty of finding competent and reliable men in Germany for the work, was made harder by language and immigration difficulties if the work were to spread to other countries. For America I found that there was always the "quota" to be considered even though the trainers could be brought over for varying periods of time as "specialists" in a line of work which Americans were unfamiliar with. Italy, however, presented a different problem, for there we found not only a language difficulty but also the strongly expressed desire to have only Italians as instructors.

These difficulties pointed very strongly to the acute need of a school *somewhere* which could educate instructors for this work in the various countries which were becoming interested in educated dog guides as a liberating factor in the lives of their blind, and so following the organization of "The Seeing Eye" in America, *L'Oeil qui Voit* was founded in Vevey, Switzerland, through funds donated privately.

This school was organized with two main purposes. First, several countries were inquiring about the work of dog guides and asking for some trial dogs that they might be studied under the conditions peculiar to the country—just as Mr. Frank wished to try out his dog in America before suggesting the actual start of a school there. *L'Oeil qui Voit* has as one purpose the edu-

cation of the *trial dogs* for those countries which are interested in including this forward step in their programs for their blind. Thus there were ten dogs trained for Italy of which eight were successful, eleven trained for France, of which eight were successful, and three for Switzerland, where all were successful.

The second and equally important rôle of *L'Oeil qui Voit* is the training of instructors for the countries which have decided after trial that the dogs are an actual economic advantage in the lives of their blind. Thus the school is interested in the actual trial of the dogs in various countries, in the training of instructors for those countries and the establishment of independent schools there. Once a national school is established and furnished with competent instructors, then *L'Oeil qui Voit* drops out of its work except as it may be called on for aid or advice in the solving of problems which arise in administration or technique of education.

Such is the history of the dog-guide movement to date. Now let us consider briefly, the dog, his work, his adaptations and his shortcomings and, equally briefly, the question of sightless masters, their adaptations and their shortcomings.

On account of the importance of his work it follows naturally that the dog to be educated as a guide for a sightless master must be selected with great care. In our own work we have selected mostly females as they are less apt to be distracted by other dogs or dogs of the opposite sex than are males. That such selection is not fundamentally necessary is shown by the fact that all of the German schools use males to an average of about 50 per cent. At least two of the German schools castrated many males as an experiment, but have since discontinued such castration and now use either males or females, each of which may be either normal or unsexed. All seem to work equally well though greater care must be taken in the use of the entire male both by the instructor and the sightless master. The dog must be of sufficient age to enable it to take the education and stand up to the work and yet not so old that its life of usefulness will be too short. Dogs used vary in age from fourteen months to three years of age when training is started. The normal life of the dog allows from six to nine years of actual use with his sightless master. The dog must be large enough to "control" his master in case of danger and yet not so large that he is unwieldy or his appetite is too great. He must have a coat that permits work in all conditions of weather and feet which will not go sore under any condition of footing. And last, but by no means least, he must have the intelligence to take the education.

In his actual work he must know and respond to several commands if it is safe to do so or disobey if obedience would be unsafe for his master. The dog works in a special harness which places the dog next to the left knee of the master and which enables the master to feel every move of the dog-guide, such moves being the signals by which the dog tells his master to step down or up, turn right or left, stop for an automobile, etc. Every master must take a three to four weeks' course of training in the use of his dog. In spite of the rigid selection of dogs to take the education the experience of all schools has been that from 2 per cent to 4 per cent of the dogs so selected fail at some state of their preliminary education, while about 5 per cent more fail in the actual turnover to the sightless master. In a very few cases the dogs which fail in this latter case can be turned over to a different master but in most cases the dog must be discarded.

When the dog has actually been turned over to the new master, when they have finished their work and gone home, totalled figures from all schools show that about 3 per cent of the dogs are returned to the school by the blind. In most cases the reason is because the blind person cannot accommodate his home living conditions to having a dog with him. In a general way instructors feel that if a dog is returned within three months it is due to the failure of the blind person to adjust himself to the use of a dog, whereas if the dog is returned after three months it is quite apt to be the result of some fault developing in the dog which unfits it for service. In this latter case it is impossible to say whether the fault has developed as a result of faulty reactions of the sightless master or not. That such faulty reactions do occur, we know. That dogs are actually spoiled by misuse we also know, but in a general way we blame it to a faulty dog, if the dog returns after the third month with his master. A very natural question here is that, if we do actually know that some masters misuse their dogs, why do we not make a more careful selection of masters to have dogs?

Such more careful selection is much more easily advised than practiced. No school has yet evolved any method of examination by which it can tell which blind person will make good with a dog guide and which one will fail. The records of every school are filled with cases of seemingly perfect students who have failed and seemingly impossible students who have made good.

In my own experience I think of Dr. B. who came to the school a physical wreck and with will power diminished to a vanishing-point. The ordinary course of instruction for the blind

master lasts from three to four weeks. Dr. B. seemingly could not succeed either in physical effort or in will power to put confidence into his dog. At the end of eighteen days he had completely ruined one dog through his own faulty reactions and was at the stage where he could follow his dog around the block alone, but could not cross a street. Yet Dr. B. ultimately made good, went home and is an exceptional worker at this time, going where and when he pleases in the busiest of large cities.

As another instance I think of Mr. L., a very gifted man of just past forty years who had been sightless for seven years. He seemed to be an ideal type of student because of his intelligence. Yet it took ten weeks of hard work both for him and his instructors, it took three dogs along with that ten weeks, and then he went home. He is using his dog now in a great city, but it is still a question with me as to whether or not he will continue to make good.

Just the opposite of Dr. B. is Mr. B. in Italy. He came, not too prepossessing as a student, but he quickly took up the idea of the work and when he left the school he was a wonderful worker even in the heaviest of city traffic. Some months after his return home he was still an excellent worker and then for some unknown reason he commenced to go downhill until his deterioration produced the result that his dog lost her acuteness and developed habits of carelessness until now his report on a dog guide is that he feels that it should only be used for pleasurable exercise. Also there is the case of Mr. de R. in France, who seemed to be an ideal pupil, made good in his work at the school and went home only to disobey the advice of the school the first week home as to how he should start his work there. Such disobedience resulted in breaking the bond of confidence between both dog and master so that neither would work with the other.

When we reflect that some of the men considered the best prospective pupils have failed and others considered poor have made wonderful success; when we consider that in Germany not only blind, but blind and deaf, blind deaf-mutes, and blind with one leg and one arm gone, have been successfully educated to the use of a dog guide, then the committee which selects the blind must naturally hesitate to say "no" to any deserving blind person who needs a dog and applies. If the instructors fail to teach him to use a dog he is no worse off than before and if they succeed he has a liberty which he could gain in no other way. Such is the attitude of all schools toward the blind who ask for dogs and seem to be unsuitable because of reasons related to

those cited above. There will always be a percentage of failures of sightless masters, but this should not be counted against the dog service for it is better to have tried and failed than to have refused the applicant in the first place.

There are, however, certain types of blind who cannot use a dog. It should not be the desire of the movement to place a dog with those who cannot use him. The dog is a liberating factor in the lives of some blind people. He is a friend ever-ready to help. The dog is not a luxury, as statistics show that 50 per cent of owners of dog-guides have been helped to a higher economic status and 90 per cent to a higher physical and social status. It is not the idea of any person interested in the work, I am sure, to advocate the placing of dog-guides with all blind persons—far from it. The dog-guide is suitable for the man who can use him in his *daily life*, who wants an aid in making himself a free economic unit in his community, who wants a wider, freer life. For such a man the dog can and will make good far beyond the dreams of his future master.

When we consider as a last thought that the entire output of a finished instructor working full time is only from twenty to twenty-five dogs per year, then we realize how important it is to find the man who can use the dog to the fullest extent and then make it possible for that man to have the dog that he may achieve the independence he so desires.

DISCUSSION

DR. LOTHAR GAEBLER-KNIBBE (GERMANY): For two years, that is, since the Commission for the Promotion of the Use of Guide-Dogs was appointed in Vienna, I have had the pleasure of collaborating with Mrs. Eustis, and I now pay a special debt of gratitude by sincerely thanking Mrs. Eustis in the name of all the blind of the whole world who have been benefited through her efforts.

It must be fully recognized that Mrs. Eustis, with a thorough knowledge of the subject, has made herself a specialist in this field. She made available her experience in Germany to the whole world, and before this assembly I should like to say that any country and any blind person who has not a guide dog yet is to be pitied.

It is a general saying that the loyalty of the dog is the best quality which he can give to his master. Therefore I say here to all who are doing work in favor of those who share my fate, "Give a guide dog to every blind person!"

DR. MIGUEL MÉRIDA NICOLICH (SPAIN): I wish to congratulate Mrs. Eustis most warmly on her splendid advocacy, before this Conference and in her many published articles, of the dog as a guide for the blind.

I myself have a dog which I secured in Oldenburg, and besides congratulating Mrs. Eustis, I wish to offer my public testimony to the splen-

did service which the dog guide gives to the blind. It is indeed a means of regaining happiness, freedom and independence.

Of course, all the blind will not be able to use dog guides to advantage—for instance, paralytics—but those blind persons who possess a measure of activity and freedom of movement and who are well educated as blind people, such as those who have lost their sight in advanced or middle age, if they are able to adapt themselves to the temperament of the dog and the dog's temperament to their own (even when these are somewhat opposed to each other), can in this way regain in a measure their freedom and independence. I at least think myself quite independent and feel completely happy when going about alone with my dog guide.

Mrs. EUSTIS: M. Guinot, who is the president of the Federation of Civilian Blind of France, has asked me to make the announcement that his Federation, which is in Paris, has opened a bureau and handles all information having to do with guide dogs for the service of the blind in France.

WORK FOR THE BLIND IN ITALY

AURELIO NICOLODI

*Commendatore Dottore; Director, Istituto Nazionale per Ciechi
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The problem of finding and supervising work for the blind is very serious; enthusiasts in this field have wrestled in vain for a solution during a long series of academic congresses.

The inconclusive results of these congresses left the blind, even if intelligent and trained, still in a state of tutelage and dependence on charity; nor could they rise to the dignity of independent men. It was for this reason that the Italian blind, meeting at a congress in Genoa in 1920, founded a national association, which took the name of *Unione Italiana dei Ciechi* (Italian Association of the Blind), and which had the definite aim of studying and solving the problems attendant on blindness by means of knowledge drawn from the actual and personal experience of the blind themselves.

Education, training, assistance, representation of the blind in the Administrative Councils of Institutes, the establishing of a printing press and a library for the needs of the whole kingdom—in short, none of the great problems which have so long oppressed the blind was neglected, and for each, thanks to the cordial co-operation of the Fascist Government, was found a solution, on the basis of the practical proposals studied and put forward by the representatives of the blind themselves.

Regarding education and training, the foundation of any scheme of work, a single but comprehensive program was obtained from the Government. On the lines of this scheme it was decided to utilize existing institutions, choosing those which specialized best in the various activities—that is, elementary instruction, music, intellectual professions, and manual work.

In regard to music and the intellectual professions, all the barriers that hindered the free competition of the blind with seeing people were thrown down, so that today our blind may not only take their university degrees and State diplomas, but may present themselves in competition for professorial chairs and schools, or in conservatories.

These victories were difficult to win, but the question of manual work presented still greater difficulties.

If one excepts the case of the piano-tuners and masseurs (who in our professional schools for the blind always represent the highest degree of intelligence and initiative and who nearly always succeed, sooner or later in making a position for themselves with an adequate number of clients) the efforts of the Italian Association of the Blind to organize the other workers, who in Italy as elsewhere constitutes the greater number, were impeded by the following difficulties:

(1) The smaller output of blind workers.

(2) The absolute skepticism on the part of the public, and particularly among employers, concerning the actual possibilities of the sightless worker.

Thus it happens that the blind man is obliged, to his great moral disadvantage, to work apart from the society of normal men. On the other hand, workshops solely for the blind are unprofitable, because of the smaller output in comparison with that of seeing workers and the difficulties experienced in the immediate disposal of the products of their work.

Nevertheless, there is one point which may be considered as the keystone of the whole question. Every piece of work goes through various phases, and it is particularly in this passing from one phase to another that the blind man is outstripped by the seeing man because, while the latter at this juncture proceeds with rapid movements, the blind man must go slowly and with great uncertainty.

Let us then have the blind worker specialize in a given phase of a given process, and be assisted as needed by seeing workers and by machinery in those phases in which the work is more difficult. Then we shall have eliminated at one stroke the chief cause for his smaller output.

The solution of the problem of profitable work for the blind man can be only one of two:

(1) That the blind man shall be placed in industry, and there given a special sphere of activity (every industry always has some department in which his work may be as efficient as that of a normal person), or,

(2) That special workshops should be set up, in which the blind worker, assisted by seeing men and by machinery, may profitably carry on his own work.

The question was suggested to His Excellency Benito Mussolini precisely in these terms. The head of the Government was

pleased to consider it with the same cordial sympathy which he had already shown to all the preceding reforms proposed to him by the Italian Association of the Blind. He declared that he frankly preferred the former solution of employing the blind in industry in general but that, considering the unfavorable period that all the industries of the world are passing through, he wished to reserve this scheme to be taken up again at the right moment. Meanwhile, he has made arrangements for putting into practice the second solution, that is, the establishing of special workshops for the blind.

To prevent these workshops being oppressed by commercial and economic cares, he has guaranteed to them not only the cost of their establishment by a special concession that does not wait upon the national budget, but also the sale of their manufactured goods by means of the partial assignment of Government orders for supplies.

It is necessary to emphasize the fact that these workshops will not be controlled by private speculation, and will enjoy certain fiscal privileges, and for these reasons will be able to insure for the blind operative an adequate wage certainly not inferior to that normally earned by a competent seeing worker.

In this way, with the establishment of the workshops which in their turn will afford the best proof of the working capacity of the blind and the best arrangement for their acceptance in industry, the problem of work for the blind in Italy may be considered on the highroad to successful solution.

To be exact, one must add, however, that a solution of this kind is relatively easy only in countries like ours, which have a scanty proportion of blind people.

In Italy, the number of the blind who are in a condition to work, that is, those from eighteen to fifty years of age, does not exceed five thousand. Happily, too, blindness is well on the decrease there, thanks to the hygienic laws so rigorously observed. Nevertheless, we could not have solved the problem of the blind, bristling, as it does, with initial difficulties and questions as to organization and development, without the help of very special circumstances:

First, because, in the person of the head of the Government in Italy, we have a man whose intellect is so marvelously alert and comprehensive that no problem escapes it, and whose goodness of heart never ceases to interest itself in all those who suffer, until their sufferings have been relieved.

Secondly, because the characteristic of the Italian Government is absolute unity of aim, without any difference or partiality

of one province over another, so that each feels part of an inseparable whole :

Finally, because the problem has been studied and presented by the blind themselves who, in order to destroy the old theories under which the sightless had always to submit themselves to the guardianship (not always disinterested or even beneficial) of benefactors, banded themselves together more than ten years ago, to form a national association for the furthering and safe-guarding of their own interests.

I need only add that all these fortunate circumstances only serve to increase my pleasure in expounding to this Congress the practical results which we have accomplished in Italy, not only because, in the fervor of Renaissance that kindles our whole country, it is fine and right that the blind also should have their share of sunlight, but also because their noble contribution to the country's work testifies to that true and fruitful result of civilization, which is seen in the transforming of grief and despair into peaceful, industrious work.

SECTION 4

TECHNICAL AIDS AND PROVISIONS

THE FAR EAST

April 16, 1931

MUSEUMS FOR THE BLIND

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A museum, originally a temple dedicated to the Muses, became later a building devoted to the collection, preservation and exhibition of the works of the Muses, as of rare and instructive articles in the arts and sciences. Such a museum was and is for the general public. According to this, a museum for the blind would be a similar institution for the use of the public who are blind.

No such museum exists; nor is it likely that one will ever be gathered together.

There are in our field, however, two restricted museums distinguished as follows: the first, as being collections of object-teaching material for tactual instruction; and the second, historical collections of material having to do with studies about the blind, and with labors for the blind or by them; such as special books and pictures on blindness and the blind, or tangible apparatus for the use of and by blind people.

Fundamentally important as tangible objects may become to school children who cannot make use of visual instruction, I shall treat but lightly of these tri-dimensional picture-books and shall expand rather the significance of our historical collections proper.

Now all of you, my hearers, will not be equally interested in each one of the five departments into which the French have scientifically subdivided their museum, the *Musée Valentin Haüy*. Mr. Eagar, Secretary of the Committee on Personnel and Program of this Conference, in assigning to me the subject "Museums for the Blind" would like to have emphasized the value of a historical collection of appliances and other instrumentalities invented for the education and use of blind people. Obviously, however, I must do more than simply refer, as above, to the various definitions and scopes of the existing museum collections. I must expand each of these and even try to indicate somewhat the degree to which each sort of collection meets the end it is intended to serve.

A museum, as already said, is a collection of materials displayed for a definite purpose; or it may be the building in which

the collection is housed. Berlin has such a building, the major part of which is given up to articles from the world of the blind. Boston likewise has its museum building, part of Perkins Institution, also of two stories, confining its upper story, as it does under double lock and key, to specially made pedagogical appliances of the past and to table games, pictures and casts, while it displays to the visiting public in its lower story cabinets of school object-teaching material for actual use by its present pupils. Its special reference library on blindness and the blind is housed elsewhere. Paris devotes a room or rooms in the Valentin Haüy Association building to its museum, as does Vienna in the state school, to its *blindiana* collections. In 1909 I saw these continental exhibits and admired them and I then and there brought home the nucleus of our present miscellany of tangible apparatus. More recent visitors tell me that all three of the great European museums have amassed such a wealth of material that they have outgrown the limitations of available space. The only lesson that people having propensities in museology need learn from this is that either they must envision in advance the devouring space requirements of such indulgences or narrow their scope. Let me illustrate from American university experience. Enthusiasts once started a social museum at Harvard. But after a few years of collecting everything from the fast expanding science of sociology, they were compelled to display only illustrations of housing for the poor and for the atypical classes of society. Yet even now students are said to give it only spasmodic use. The professors of the Department of Social Ethics, for example, find it decidedly more worthwhile to take all their classes to observe uncommon institutions at work. Each fall they bring about one hundred students to spend a whole afternoon at Perkins Institution where we welcome them for our own as well as for their benefit. The completest possible museum of dead and laid-out materials, including the literature of the subject, even if used for months together, will make a less vital impression upon the average college student than a single hour of conducted visit to the living museum of the actual thing in operation.

Notwithstanding this, the special museum has its invaluable place, particularly if it is historical. The thorough and ambitious student must needs know how things were in the past and so be able to contrast them with what they have become. He learns important lessons through studying all the stages of development in between. In imagination he can raise dead material to life again and thus the better comprehend the living present. So

special museums are needful. Every specialty should install one or more of them, make access to them easy and invite their use. At this point let me state categorically that while some of us over here may mean by "museums for the blind" mere collections of stuffed animals and other specimens for object study, most Europeans would exclude these as they would exclude embossed books for class study, saying as they do that such things are tools indispensable to school instruction. I observed in every institution for blind youth of the German-speaking countries visited, great roomfuls of object-teaching materials and was assured that their elementary teachers could not get along without them. I am told now that they resort to this still life material only when they cannot provide the pupils access to things that are alive, and, as far as practical, in their natural habitat; that whereas formerly even domestic animals were killed and included, today all stuffed dogs, cats and barnyard fowl have been burned up and children are taken to feel these things while alive and capable of imparting the impressions other children get in the great museum of nature.

Very few American schools have gathered object-teaching museums, seemingly preferring to consider our pupils as children in the dark and, therefore, to teach them as closely as feasible according to the means and methods of our universal public school system. Indeed, some of our big cities prefer to conduct classes of their blind children in this vast melting-pot. In New York City a fund exists for bringing its blind children to the public Museum of Natural History where, in care of their teachers, they are allowed to handle certain specimens. No doubt such visits are educational as well as enjoyable, but they are tiring and time-consuming and at least one local school for the blind admitted to me that it had utilized the opportunity only once.

Dr. Howe gave Perkins Institution no such collection, and yet his older pupils, because of frequent contact with living things at home, didn't seem to lack a fair understanding of nature and geography. And Dr. Hayes, who now heads the psychological department of two of our institutions, appears to show in his American Association of Instructors of the Blind convention paper in 1922¹ that the older students in the several schools examined had somehow acquired approximately correct concepts of things. But the European-born-and-bred Anagnos, soon after becoming director, began assembling his object-teaching galaxy and had his teachers make systematic use of it. We have done

¹ Hayes, Samuel P. *Preliminary Study of the Influence upon School Success of the Age at which Vision is Lost*. A. A. I. B. Proceedings, 1922.

so more or less unto this day, but spasmodically and according to the alertness and the thoroughness of individual instructors. Obviously all teachers of primary reading should put into their children's hands immediately every object needed in order to clarify and vitalize the lessons—as a stuffed squirrel, to illustrate (we'll say) what is meant by a bushy tail. Similarly, teachers of geography can rarely so adequately explain any foreign product as through showing actual specimens to their pupils in substitution for the pictures that the textbooks provide for other children. If, as a Chinese saying has it, a picture is worth ten thousand words, then it follows that three-dimensional objects would seem to be indispensable for blind pupils if the spoken or read word is to be made related to experience.

Now for the historical museums on blindness and the blind—that is, material collected and systematically arranged, labeled and exposed specifically for study of the subject of blindness and the blind; in other words, *blindiana* material proper. This may be: First, texts and other literature about or by blind people, such as the history of their education, and complete sets of reports of schools, associations, conventions, etc.; also argus-eyed newspaper clippings on any or all departments of public or private provision for the blind, since these items about the doings of blind persons are what the public is interested to read; second, albums of pictures of the blind in all walks of life, or galleries of tangible replicas of monuments to celebrated individuals who were blind; third, congeries of so-called tangible apparatus—special appliances and embossed types for finger reading made for or by the blind. The four great museums have all three of these departments represented in more or less completeness, particularly of local material.

The *blindiana* museum I know best was born of a visit by Mr. Anagnos to Vienna in 1900. He being a philosophical student of his subject and desirous of writing on it, the *Museum des Blindenwesens* stirred him to have one of his own. Anyway, he gave Director Mell a carte blanche order to send to Boston a duplicate copy of any picture or plaque and of every book in any language bearing upon blindness and the blind; and he also opened accounts with book dealers in Leipzig, Amsterdam and London. The desired material soon began to arrive fast and furiously. Fortunately, Mr. Anagnos had so worded the scope of his Howe Memorial Fund that it could be applied to the purchase of any *blindiana* either tangible or intangible. How happy he must have been that he had had such vision! His boys' princi-

pal instructor became agent; his newly appointed librarian, curator; and in 1907 there was published a catalog of 197 pages of his literature in English, comprising as it did the major part of the Perkins Special Reference Library on Blindness and the Blind. Mr. Anagnos' successor, catching his spirit, continued collecting and in 1916 issued Supplement No. 1 to such a catalog and in 1930 Supplement No. 2—a total of 462 pages.

Dr. Mell continues to send over germane literature. We possess this literature in nineteen languages, but have so far published only catalogs of that in our own tongue, exactly as the lists of continental Europe are confined to literature in their tongues, and I have discovered in them very few translations. No work for the blind has yet shown itself as cosmopolitan or international as it should be. Our collection had grown large before much use was made of it, for until 1921 it was mostly dead material awaiting the resurrection day. Then my Harvard course on the Education of the Blind began, which by means of this special reference library could be and ever since has been carried on academically and systematically. Without it there would have been no such Harvard course. To date 135 student-teachers have read widely in this literature, under tutorial guidance, and have carried into their teaching at home or abroad admiration and respect for their profession such as they could have gained in no other way.

Some psychologists have described this library as the "literature of opinion." It is so; and for that very reason the more truthfully mirrors the emotional and sentimental growth and development of our subject. Were it limited to books in English made factual through research and by means of the measuring stick, it would be no library but only a little shelf of a dozen or twenty books. While Dr. Best, the author of *The Blind*, America's compendium on the subject, praises this library for its fullness, he writes that he himself made little use of it, but admits that he gave all his spare time during eight years to hunting up his wealth of data in some score of general libraries in this country and England.

Now it is both to save just such labors for which few Americans would have the patience, and to encourage more and more people to become students of our subject that museums of this sort become invaluable. Without access to them many of the contributors to Mell's *Handbuch des Blindenwesens* could scarcely have written their articles. Without such access heads of schools and of agencies would seldom be able to make adequate reply to the many questions asked them. There is a relatively small collection

at the University of California, one in the Pennsylvania Institution at Overbrook and one at the American Foundation for the Blind, in New York City. Each of these serves some definite purpose. Possibly there are others elsewhere. But not even every German, Austrian and Scandinavian institution has more than a minor collection. It does have that, however, since every teacher there must be conversant enough with the history and other literature of his profession to be able to pass a stiff examination in it. A great day will shine upon American education of the blind when every one of its teachers shall similarly acquire a professional state of mind towards his work. It is one of the tragedies of blind youth as we know it that their would-be educators and teachers assume office so lightly and at the expense of these pupils while at their most impressionable stage of life.

Concerning the profound effect of a conscientious use of a research museum, my invaluable assistant in the training of teachers writes:

"As I look back thirty-nine years to the time when I began teaching blind pupils, it seems to me that there was very little of the professional attitude on my part; nor was such asked or even encouraged. Here was a subject to be taught; here was a group of pupils. The business of us teachers was to teach the subject, to fill up that 'inclined plane of little vessels, then and there arranged in order, ready to have imperial gallons of facts poured into them until they were full to the brim.'¹

"As teaching, it was not unsuccessful. I enjoyed it; was fresh from a college atmosphere; and had bushels of brand-new shining theories which had not been worn down through use. On the whole, I think the pupils enjoyed their work. They still tell me that they did. But even had I then been professionally inclined I could have found little material for study; and no one at Perkins felt that more was necessary to teach in our schools than normal or college preparation. Naturally I fell in with the idea.

"Mr. Anagnos had not yet begun collecting the books and other material, which now form our unique collection of *blindiana*. Even after it was begun it did not seem to mean much to the practical side of our teachers' lives and occupations. I remember browsing rather wistfully among the books as they came in, wishing I knew something of their contents; but they were soon hidden away in a remote corner of the

¹ Dickens, Charles. *Hard Times*.

library and for the most part were 'out of sight, out of mind.'

"When the school moved to Watertown and the collections were adequately and attractively housed and access was actually invited, I began to study them more. But only during and after that first series of lectures at Harvard, which someone aptly named a 'protracted convention,' was there much purpose or interest in a study which still seemed remote. Shortly after this series of lectures, Superintendent Wampler of the Tennessee School for the Blind asked for instructors who could give summer courses on the Education of the Blind at the George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville. The opportunity was given to and accepted by our kindergarten and myself. In preparation I read, studied and wrote literally night and day, growing more fascinated hourly with the research. Our then librarian aided me with suggestions in the choice of books and other duplicate material which I took in a huge box with me for my pupils' study. Mr. Allen had wisely insisted from the start that such courses must not be mere lectures, when the 'imperial gallons of facts' were to be outpoured, but laboratory courses in which the students were encouraged to delve for themselves and reach their own conclusions. My eighteen Peabody students were enthusiastic, receptive young teachers already in service. They were an inspiration to guide, and afterward were sincere in their professions of the uplift the course had been to them. The biggest part of this uplift came from the Perkins material to which they were given access, and which for the first time in their lives they could revel in. They found out that the education of blind children was a bigger thing than they had before conceived. At any rate my own outlook broadened immeasurably, through my continued study and teaching at both Nashville and Watertown.

"Meanwhile the 'Harvard Extension' course had broadened into a regular course of the Harvard Graduate School of Education. I took it, using the credit it brought as one step towards my degree of Ed.M., thus combining general and special methods in education. When a 'Special Methods' course in the theory and practice of teaching blind children was to be begun at Perkins, I was invited to become its leader. I accepted with alacrity and have pursued the work with increasing joy. It was a new thought, a pioneer work in education of our kind. We wished to give many American teachers of the blind the professional attitude towards their tasks. We

wanted them to feel that they were not teaching arithmetic, or what not, to a group of children, but were educating them to live better, fuller, more efficient lives. We wanted these teachers to understand, as far as is humanly possible, what blindness means in a child's life, in what ways it sets him off from other children and handicaps him; also wherein lie his best abilities and strong points, and how we can cause him to take advantage of them. In short, we wanted them to be not mere teachers of this or that, but educators who are not teaching how to live at some future day, but are helping them to live full lives today; are setting little plants into favorable soil, that they may live and grow all the time; are not teaching learners but guiding them and fitting them wisely and vigorously, and also understandingly, for the sterner competition outside of school walls. In such education, the teacher is not dominating the situation, but is providing the proper conditions—the material, the interest and the inspiration—and encouraging the child to develop according to his ability and his bent.

"This is the brief story of how one teacher thinks she has grown towards being an educator. It is in truth the story of how our museum with its *blindiana* collections has inspired me to obtain a broad professional vision. Our collection gives us the stories of the tentative beginnings of the work, its struggles toward recognition as a worthwhile undertaking, its gradual growth towards efficiency, largely through trial and error, and the honest efforts of many conscientious persons trying to find solutions of the thronging problems. It shows us the vast and pathetic need of the adult blind—so much more to be commiserated than the children—and leads us to reconsider and labor for the most helpful effort of all, prevention of blindness. This and much more the museum has meant to me.

"A member of this year's class, one of our most efficient and valued older teachers says, 'Why didn't I take the Harvard Course before? I am so glad to have taken it now, and wish more than ever to pursue the reading and the study that it has opened up to me.' Her inspiration for the problems of everyday has been widened, and her interest in the problems of blindness has increased. All the young candidates so trained acquire a breadth of vision and understanding of the problem and an ability to 'jump in' and teach from the first day, without loss of the children's time or without confusion

and hesitancy on their own parts, that persons without such preparation seldom or never show.

"Frequent letters come from those who have had the privilege of living and studying here in the shadow of the museum and who under the inspiration of our leaders have caught the vision and are following the gleam."

I have here cited the service to teachers as typical. Its use to students and executives of other phases within our field might be made quite as vital.

Coming now to our collection of pictures, most of which are of the blind as street musicians and mendicants, a study of them shows how universal and common these occupations have been. Even today the typical beggar is pictured as blind. "Give a penny to Belisarius" is proverbial. Those of us who persist in begging for blind people might acquire merit from collecting such pictures as a museum hobby!

Finger examination of a lot of busts and plaques of people and scenes from blindness would even bring encouragement and enlightenment to those students whose eyes are closed.

Lastly, what about collections of so-called "tangible apparatus" and correct data as to the time, place and occasion of each? The museums for the blind at Paris, Vienna, Berlin and Boston include them; and to the casual observer they are the most interesting of all *blindiana*. They may be arranged to exhibit the ingenuity of man to provide ever better means for overcoming certain handicaps of blindness. This department at Paris is said to be especially full in the history of embossed types. Ours has a multitude of different devices or machines with which to write in braille, or of slates to relieve our pupils' minds of mathematical computation, but, more than anything else, of ways for the blinded to keep his lines straight in pencil correspondence. What an instrumentality for conserving to other uses the inventiveness of hundreds of kindly people it would be if they could learn from a single visit to a museum of such articles that there is nothing really new under the sun!

The National Institute for the Blind, London, which already owns a considerable collection of pedagogical and entertainment devices, announces that it is about to establish a museum of them for continuous and permanent demonstration, and that it is even now seeking additional specimens for a temporary loan exhibition. This is a most worthy project; let us hope that all the world will contribute.

"Museums for the blind," then, serve to promote investigations in the field of blindness and to direct the amelioration of the lot of blind people. Such a museum is undertaken on the assumption that the most immediate need of students concerned with this question is not merely enthusiasm or sympathy or self-sacrifice or money, but wisdom, discretion, the scientific interpretation and comparison of facts; and this application of the inductive method may be encouraged by setting before the student in graphical illustrations the evidences of progress in various countries and putting at his command the fund of experience accumulated in various parts of the world.¹

DISCUSSION

SEÑOR J. A. PARDO OSPINA (COLOMBIA): I wish to refer to the paper presented by Mr. Edward E. Allen, one of the most distinguished personalities in the work for the blind in America. Assuredly, as Mr. Allen says, the equipping of the schools with practical appliances is the basis of a complete education of the blind.

In South America, and particularly in Colombia, we are anxious to become fully acquainted with all the appliances and all the educational methods in use for the blind, and I suggest that the Organizing Committee furnish the South American delegates with material illustrative of these things.

One of the most serious problems confronting the blind of Spanish speech is the deficiency, or total absence, so to speak, of braille presses. We are wholly dependent on the presses of the Argentine and Mexico, and to some extent upon those of Barcelona and Madrid. That is to say, we have in the South American Republics no libraries, nor means of producing books sufficient to supply our institutions. Therefore we are particularly interested in securing from this Conference suggestions as to ways and means of providing our schools for the blind with embossing presses.

When I speak again I shall refer at greater length to some factors in the education of the blind.

PROFESSOR AUGUSTO ROMAGNOLI (ITALY): In regard to the proposal of Mr. Allen, I agree fully that in every school for the blind there should be a museum suitable for touch sensations in order that the blind may form concrete ideas of things. I might observe, however, that such museums should not contain a large and extensive collection of models, but rather a selective collection of representative models. Such a proposal would entail much less expense and would be in keeping with the Italian procedure of simplifying and speeding up the education of the blind, thus limiting specialized instruction in the special schools to this essential training and enabling the blind to pursue and complete by themselves their knowledge of academic subjects and of matters of everyday life. Thus they are able to find their way about quickly and alone in the great museum of life.

PROFESSOR PIERRE VILLEY (FRANCE): I should like to say just one word about Mr. Allen's paper on the museums in Europe.

¹ This last paragraph is borrowed with adaptations from Prof. Francis G. Peabody, *The Social Museums as an Instrument of University Teaching*, Cambridge, 1928.

I had ordered a parcel to be sent to me from Paris, that would reach me here in New York. If it had been here, I should have been able to show you the first writing apparatus built by Braille in 1826, and to show you also the first form of his alphabet in 1829, which is rather different from the second, not published till 1837.

I am sorry the parcels are not here. I may mention several things I wish you could see—the alphabet of Barbier, which you know is the source of the alphabet of Braille, and also the writing apparatus of Barbier, made in 1823.

LIBRARIES FOR THE BLIND

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The development of a library service for the blind commenced in this country about fifty years ago, when a less auspicious period for the welfare of such a movement could scarcely have been found. During these years we have had our own domestic troubles. The country has seen the rise and fall of three types, and its presses are now busy with a fourth. The older libraries established in the 'eighties and 'nineties have experienced the loss of their early collections of line-letter books, and two later collections of literature in raised dots are now fading out of the picture. Librarians are beginning to wonder just when this fading-out process will stop. Moon type has been used from the beginning. The small collections from which the libraries for the blind in America developed were in this type. They were the property of the home-teaching societies organized in Philadelphia and Chicago and were later taken over by the public libraries of these cities. Grade two, in both book and magazine form, has been in circulation here for the last twenty-five years. Ignoring the fact that work in American braille and in New York point is still carried on to some extent, the larger libraries of today are made up of collections in three types, grade one and a half, grade two and Moon, so that for library purposes the term "uniform type" seems slightly ironic.

The history of the types has so affected the library movement that we must go back a moment and review this history in order to understand conditions which prevailed some fifty years ago. We take pleasure, on this occasion, in recalling our European origins and proclaiming our great debt of gratitude to the French and to the English for their gifts of the two alphabets now in use the world around. But when our school presses began to make books for the blind—about 1833—these books were in raised Roman letters, the uniform type of that period. The first braille book was not embossed until 1837. Braille, as we all know, was not accepted in France until 1854, and in England, in 1868. Under the energetic leadership of Dr. Howe a large collection of books in line letter was published in America before

Mr. William Wait, another brilliant leader, challenged the usefulness of the line character and championed the cause of a dot alphabet. To a librarian, it seems an unmitigated tragedy that we did not at that time follow in the footsteps of the French. But just as braille was introduced into England, the New York point type, sponsored by Mr. Wait, came into prominence here. In the 'seventies American braille appeared, becoming in time a formidable rival of the New York point. So, in the early 'eighties, when the library movement was started, it was in a world in which the seeds of discord had already been sown.

During the 'eighties the collections now owned by the Free Library of Philadelphia and the Chicago Public Library were organized. In the 'nineties the New York State Library, the Detroit Public Library and the Library of Congress opened their departments for the blind. Also in the 'nineties, the collection now a part of the New York Public Library was organized as a free circulating library for the blind. These may be called the pioneer libraries of the public library system. Service to the blind residents of their respective communities was assumed by these libraries as a natural obligation on their part to a small element of the reading public who needed special material. In the 'nineties the invention of the Hall Braille Writer, the stereograph, and the kleidograph quickened the type controversy. In 1904, Congress, following the example set by Canada, passed the free mailing law. Immediately the libraries with facilities for the blind were called upon to serve nearby communities where there was no such service. Moreover, and this is an important point, the libraries found it easy to extend this service because the demands from their own communities were limited. A few additional centers were established at the time. All of them gradually drifted into regional service. As they were most unequal in their resources, no strict division of territory could be made. A sort of gentlemen's agreement was soon achieved, however, by which residents of adjacent states were served, in so far as possible, by their regional library and were referred to larger and more remote collections as circumstances dictated. In this way there has been evolved a library service which operates through a group of libraries maintained, for the most part, as departments of municipal and state libraries, and which function as regional centers of distribution. The larger libraries give more than a regional service.

Prior to 1918 the literature of the period was in American braille and New York point types. Books were embossed by the

American Printing House for the Blind; by smaller presses, such as the Clovernook Printing House for the Blind, the Howe Publishing Society for the Blind, and the Xavier Free Publication Society; and by several presses of the larger schools for the blind. The Universal Braille Press, the Braille Institute of America, the Pax Publishing Society, and the American Brotherhood and Free Reading for the Blind were of a somewhat later date. For many years, the state of New York, through an appropriation handled by the New York State Library, made a handsome contribution to the New York point collection. In 1907, through the inspiration of Mr. Walter G. Holmes, was founded the *Matilda Ziegler Magazine*, that great gift to the blind from Mrs. Ziegler. The *Outlook for the Blind*, an ink-print periodical devoted to the interests of this special subject, was begun in the same year. We owe a debt of gratitude to its founder and editor for many years, Mr. Charles F. F. Campbell, son of Sir Francis Campbell, the latter of whom we like to remember was born and brought up in the state of Tennessee.

Through philanthropy and through Government appropriations, books were produced. But so great was the cost of production that libraries acquired the greater part of their book stock at exceedingly high prices and the demand for literature in several types fell heavily upon them. The schools could and did choose the medium in which they preferred to work, but in the library world, where readers used books in all types, it was a discouraging period.

In 1918 the great argument of uniformity prevailed. This was the beginning of a new era. But while this long delayed blessing brought new life and zest to librarians from the first, there was no immediate "balm in Gilead" for readers. It was a trying period for them, and a considerable number, disgruntled by the loss of their favorite medium of reading and withstanding all persuasive arguments from librarians and home teachers, dropped from the lists forever, constituting a sort of "lost battalion" in the battle of the types. The records of the library with which I am most familiar show that many sought consolation in grade two. In 1914 the circulation of books in grade two in the New York Public Library was 6,300; in 1918 it was 12,300; in 1924 it reached its high-water mark of 14,400.

Though borrowers were impatient and sorely tried, progress came rapidly, considering the difficulties to be met. The impetus was due not only to the uniform type, but to the tragedy of the War as well. During the War, the Permanent Blind Relief War

Fund was organized for the benefit of the soldiers of the Allies. The work of this organization, now the American Braille Press, was international from the first. Valuable contributions in the field of magazine literature, music and books have been published and distributed by this press throughout the European continent, England and America. The *Braille Musical Review*, its latest magazine venture, or rather the English supplement, is proving of value to musicians of this country, judging from the nature of the requests made to our music library. Another war activity continued for the civilian blind is the braille work of the Red Cross. Making braille manuscripts by hand had never been taken up on this side of the Atlantic until the appeal was made on behalf of the blinded soldiers. Small training classes were organized by the Red Cross in communities throughout the country. Hand-copied books were placed in the library at Evergreen, the re-educational center for our blinded soldiers. Under the present plan of organization books made by Red Cross transcribers are placed in the various libraries for the blind. In some communities, circles are working independently of the Red Cross, but the greater part of this work is under its supervision. The last *Annual Report* of the Red Cross Director of Braille states that over two thousand volumes were added to the libraries of the country in 1929-30, and that approximately seventy-five blind people were given employment as proof-readers, instructors and supervisors. Among other interesting items, the report shows that much was done in meeting the needs of students in high schools, colleges and universities. In this work the Library of Congress, in giving its facilities and lending its prestige, has acted as joint sponsor with the Red Cross and given that organization invaluable co-operation.

In 1919 the annual income derived from the fund set aside by the Federal Government for textbooks was increased to \$50,000; this was increased at a later date to \$75,000. In 1921, the American Foundation for the Blind was created. From the first, the work of the Foundation has been of prime importance to the cause of reading. Its first service came [at the time of acute need, when the number of titles in braille bore a certain resemblance to hen's teeth]; it was in the form of an appropriation for books made by the Veterans' Bureau and obtained through the efforts of the President of the Foundation. About 6,600 volumes were published, [the most notable single contribution made to the grade one and a half collection.] These books were placed as indefinite loans in the various libraries. Many new books have been obtained by the Foundation since that time through a campaign con-

ducted over the course of several years. The Foundation was also influential in introducing the use of two-side printing in this country, a matter of significance to librarians. A matter of much more significance, for which the Foundation is responsible, is a legislative measure recently enacted by Congress authorizing the appropriation of \$100,000 a year for books for the adult blind. The funds previously granted by the Federal Government have, of necessity, been used almost entirely in providing textbooks and supplementary reading for the school children of the United States.

In responding to calls for more books, the Lions Clubs have been very generous. They not only have given over fifty titles, which means many volumes, but have for years financed a braille magazine for blind children, the first of its kind in America.

The field of magazine reading has been greatly extended in recent years. The braille edition of the *Reader's Digest*, a print magazine in which the leading articles from the current periodicals appear in condensed form, has made a notable success. In the *Weekly News* and the very recent *March of Events*, we see successfully carried out this same policy of utilizing material edited by experts. The advent of the *Braille Musical Review* and of *Our Special*, this last given over to the feminine world, point to the fact that the general field is well covered and that the magazines of the future will be devoted to special interests. A useful list of braille periodicals and of ink-print magazines relating to the blind has been published by the American Foundation.

A survey of library work for the blind was initiated in 1928 by the American Foundation for the Blind, at the request of the Committee on Work with the Blind of the American Library Association. The data gathered from this survey is of special interest, since it records the progress made at the end of the first ten years of the use in America of braille grade one and a half. We had reached the end of what might be called the transition period of types. There were found to be (in round numbers) ten thousand readers using the libraries at that time. Information including the number of readers in each state, extent to which each type is read in each state, and other facts relating to library conditions at that time may be determined by examination of data now on file. Statistics on work with the blind are not subject to swift fluctuations. The data obtained as the result of this survey will be useful for some years to come. It will form a basis for an interesting comparison of figures some years hence when we hope another census of readers may be taken. I wish we

might put on a Five-Year-Plan for the encouragement of reading among the blind in America, and watch the results in 1936. In 1929 the circulation for the entire country was over 298,500 volumes. In 1930 it was over 325,000, with the figures from one or two of the libraries not yet received—an increase of 26,500. These figures have been reached at the end of a very difficult period.

There are two special libraries of print, or shall we say letterpress, material in America on the subject of blindness. One of these is in the Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind. Begun by that institution's second director, Mr. Anagnos, and zealously maintained by Dr. Allen, the present and third director, it is "possibly the greatest single collection of literature upon the blind in the world—certainly in the English language" to quote from Dr. Harry Best. This library is well described in the "Special American Issue" of *The New Beacon*. But this collection is for reference only. A student on the subject must travel to Watertown in order to use it. The second library is owned by the American Foundation for the Blind. Though it was begun only a few years ago, it already includes a great mass of useful material. It is organized as a circulating library and orders from any part of the country are filled by mail.

But history is in the making, even as I get these notes together. Word comes that the Pratt-Smoot Bill has passed. This means that the Federal Government has granted an annual appropriation of \$100,000 for books for adults. It means that the great expense of supplying books for adult readers will be borne to a large extent hereafter by the Federal Government and no longer entirely by libraries maintaining departments for the blind. It means that 1931 will serve with 1904 and 1918 as milestones in the long lane leading to a well-organized service for finger readers. The bill provides that the appropriation be spent under the supervision of the Library of Congress. In order that readers in all sections of the country may receive the greatest benefit from this fund two problems must be considered; that of book selection and book distribution. Book selection for embossing books is not easy; the number of books from which to choose is too vast, the number which can be put into braille too small, and the demand to be met too varied. While weighing the merits of titles for the more important work of the presses, we might do well to bear in mind the service of the hand transcribers. They may be depended upon to make almost any book by hand if we will remember to point the way. They can take care of the literature which should exist somewhere in braille, but for which a press edition

is not necessary. The quarterly list of additions to the hand transcribed books which appears in the *Outlook for the Blind* give some interesting illustrations of this.

The second problem, that of book distribution, is still less easy. The group of libraries now serving the country were organized as individual libraries and not as parts of a unified plan of service. Naturally, the work suffers from a lack of co-ordination. The matter will bear considerable thought and discussion. It has been suggested that the libraries now established be treated as depository stations, receiving books from the Government as indefinite loans. If this plan is carried out, perhaps the idea of regional libraries for material in grade one and a half might be continued. But what of the service in grade two? What of the hand-copied books of which each library has its individual collection? On these points, the regional plan falls down. One suggestion for co-operative effort has been frequently put forward; that different libraries undertake to develop certain features of the work, where the demand for certain material is unusually limited, for example, books in foreign languages published by continental presses. Such literature is usually in a highly-contracted form and there is little call for it. It is not, as a rule, used by the English students of foreign languages. The textbooks and supplementary reading used by these students are from either English or American printing houses, and are much in demand. I believe that the call for foreign literature in a highly contracted form might be easily met by one library. And I feel sure that the segregation of this and any other little-used material would result in an improved service to readers. I would put music in this class of special work. No doubt, as better facilities for the distribution of music are developed, many individuals will form their own music collections; but probably there will always be need for one lending library. The New York Public Library now owns over six thousand braille volumes and pieces of music. The collection is growing rapidly and, as there are funds for the purpose, we hope in time to acquire what might be termed an adequate music library.

There is another suggestion which I am sure we would all welcome; that is, for a central reserve collection where books once popular, but now no longer so, might be retired. The number of copies of a book kept in such a collection would be determined by conditions. This provision is made in other library systems, why not in ours, where space must be so carefully considered? I do not presume to say where space for this could be found; but if it could be carried out, the plan would be of great assistance.

Of almost equal importance with book selection and book distribution is the necessity for more and better book publicity. We learned long ago that readers, as a rule, could not come to their libraries. The Federal Government recognized this fact, long ago, and undertook through the free mailing law to carry books to readers. But we librarians have been a bit dilatory, I fear, in devising measures for bringing books to the attention of our public. In some aspects, libraries for the blind are more in the nature of mail-order houses than ordinary libraries; and we have failed to develop that most important feature of mail-order houses—their catalogs; we have failed, to a great extent, in setting forth our wares and giving them the proper amount of advertising. We have made some efforts in this matter, however. Nearly all libraries issue ink-print catalogs and some, from time to time, have published embossed catalogs. But we need to do more than this. Why not provide, in a very modified form, some of the usual library tools? As yet, we have no braille catalog for children. An index for articles which have appeared in braille magazines and not in printed form has been requested. Complete lists of material on any popular subject might be made up. A union subject-catalog issued and kept up according to subject matter might be useful when the collection is considerably larger.

And in this connection, more publicity might be given to the *List of Books in Grade One and a Half* brought out last summer by the American Braille Press. This catalog, compiled as a service from the New York Public Library, is a complete list, or it attempts to be a complete list, of the collection in grade one and a half. The total number of titles included is 1,846; 951 non-fiction and 895 fiction. The first edition of five hundred copies was distributed to readers in New York State and to libraries for the blind, through the generosity of the American Braille Press and the Lions Clubs of New York State. A second edition, with a supplement under date of March, 1931, will be issued shortly. Copies of this supplement will be sent to those who have received the original catalog. The price of this catalog with two supplements a year will be \$2.00. Orders should be mailed to the American Braille Press, 74 Rue Lauriston, Paris. In the matter of its author entries, the usage, or order, of the American Library Association has been followed. If readers swear softly over the filing of the "Mc's" and "Maguires" or the substitution of "Clemens" for "Mark Twain," let them rest sure in the knowledge that these details are the mandates of the "A. L. A." and not the idiosyncrasies of any one librarian. Standardization is especially desirable in braille

catalogs. We know that "a place for everything and everything in its place" means greater convenience to those who are blind; and we would do well to remember this while preparing braille lists and to try for uniformity in every possible way.

In the matter of book announcements we have sought and found space, to some extent, in the pages of braille magazines. Editors have been most kind. An illustration of the value of even a little book advertising may be seen in the instance of three books which rarely left the shelves of a certain library, although they had been announced through the medium of the printed catalog. These books had been made by hand, on special request. One entitled *Climates* had required extra editing and had caused some difficulty. After making two transcribers unhappy, a third had been found who gallantly persevered through eight volumes. Though weather claims the attention of us all, there was nothing on the subject in braille, and the book might easily have interested a few readers. But there was almost no call for it until a brief announcement of it in an embossed magazine brought it into favor. The other two books were more or less experimental. The subjects were popular in other libraries, why not in ours? The titles were *Any Girl Can Be Good Looking* and *How to Tell Fortunes With Playing Cards*. The latter one had been requested by a reader, but the book on good looks was the library's own venture. Both were short. They were pushed whenever possible, but not until they had received a short write-up in *Our Special* did they come into their own. Now there is always a waiting list for them.

The creation of an international bureau of information would be of immense value to libraries. We are kept informed through the columns of *The New Beacon* of all matters of importance affecting the blind in England and, in particular, of all publications from the National Institute for the Blind in London. But the extent of the collections available in European countries is almost unknown to us. In this matter, our greatest need is for a central office from which we could get reliable information concerning literature and music from the continental presses, whether for exchange or for purchase. Foreign literature from foreign presses is usually for the foreign born. There is no need to build up a large collection of such literature here; and, for this very reason, we would welcome all the more cordially some plan for the exchange of such books. We recently had a hurry call from the Middle West for books which the applicant hoped he could borrow from Germany, but his request could not possibly have been met in the required time under present conditions. But

if this request could have been made directly to an international bureau, perhaps timely assistance could have been rendered. To what extent this service would be used for foreign literature is largely a matter of guesswork at present. It suggests many possibilities of benefits to readers in both English-speaking countries; and there is no doubt of the urgent desire and need for as much information as possible concerning music published abroad. Our attempts to get catalogs of music from foreign publishers are so unsuccessful that we begin to suspect our own ineptitude on this point and, therefore, we embrace with enthusiasm any suggestion of help. May an international bureau come, and come quickly!

With the aid of Federal appropriations a highly desirable collection of braille literature will materialize in America within a short time. Its presence calls for a well-organized scheme of service, more technical aid to readers in their use of the collection and more publicity for the cause of literature. With these, and an international bureau of information, our service should become a great source of satisfaction and pleasure to library patrons who must use the sense of touch.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL LIBRARIES FOR THE BLIND,
WITH CIRCULATION FOR 1930

California State Library, Sacramento, California.....	34,907
Canadian National Library for the Blind, Toronto, Canada	22,256
Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	20,181
Chicago Public Library, Chicago, Illinois	28,169
Cincinnati Public Library, Cincinnati, Ohio.....	21,324
Cleveland Public Library, Cleveland, Ohio.....	14,701
Detroit Public Library, Detroit, Michigan.....	9,465
Free Library of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	32,261
Indiana State Library, Indianapolis, Indiana	1,826
Library of Congress, Washington, D. C.....	50,581
Minnesota School for the Blind, Faribault, Minnesota.....	9,338
National Library for the Blind, Washington, D. C.....	9,176
New York Public Library, New York City.....	40,538
New York State Library, Albany, New York.....	35,470
Oklahoma Library Commission, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma	1,235
Perkins Institution for the Blind, Watertown, Mass.....	15,901
St. Louis Public Library, St. Louis, Missouri.....	24,383
State Library for the Blind, Saginaw, Michigan.....	10,432
Seattle Public Library, Seattle, Washington.....	5,737

DISCUSSION

CHAIRMAN ELLIS: Owing to the fact that we in America are confronted with the problem of distributing a large amount of braille literature, which will be the result of recent legislation providing aid or books for the adult blind, this paper has a peculiar significance to Americans. The Chairman has taken the liberty to make four points that to him appear to be very significant, and I shall read them.

The first point that impressed me as I listened to the paper, was the need of an international bureau. Then the specialized libraries for technical subjects, such as music and science and foreign languages. Then the great problem of distribution to prevent thousands of volumes of braille books from lying on shelves of libraries and not being used. Publicity seems to be the solution for this problem. Then the great problem of retiring certain braille books for which there does not develop a suitable demand.

MR. HERBERT W. THOMPSON (AUSTRALIA): As one of the representatives of one of the largest libraries in the Australian Commonwealth—I might say the largest—I would just like to venture a few remarks from the Australian point of view.

We quite realize that we have moved up to a stage where something might be done to place the whole of our braille literature at the disposal of the English-speaking people. At the same time I would very strongly emphasize the fact that many hundreds of our readers in the Australian Commonwealth are seeking to hold on to Grade Two, and in view of the fact that many readers in this great country of the United States are using Grade Two more than ever, I rejoice to find that there is a feeling of coming together in the spirit of kindness to bring about the gradual adoption of Grade Two among the English-speaking peoples.

I might interest the members of this Conference in this one thought, that we are in the proud position in New South Wales of having the only woman's monthly magazine which is published in braille. We have also free postage; volumes are sent to the length and breadth of the country free of charge. Our library is maintained through the help of voluntary transcribers who supplement the standing orders which are sent to England and America.

So with the machine-made books and the hand-written books, we are in the proud position of having fourteen thousand volumes, magazines and newspapers.

DR. CARL STREHL (GERMANY): For us foreigners it is rather awkward to find that numerous books are sometimes in One and a Half, sometimes in Grade Two, and we hope that a uniform type, for the sake of the foreigners who are most anxious to read the English and American books, will soon be possible.

A second thing, we in Germany believe that there should be a general catalog printed. The German Government charged our institution to prepare a general catalog of the books contained in the eleven braille libraries, including the Austrian libraries. This catalog was very complete with all minute details and all data concerning bibliography, and it is quite easy now to find the different subjects, as we give in the back of the book the contents and the names of the authors.

Now in regard to having a catalog in braille, it is all well and good, and it is a good idea, but it should contain only general, not detailed, infor-

mation, for it is impossible to have an exhaustive catalog in braille print. The German catalog alone will be about eight hundred pages, but we ought to have one for the whole world. Every nation ought to have one, and every nation ought to have an exhaustive catalog in ink-print, and then every library ought to have a short catalog of its own books in braille. The braille edition should contain nothing but the short title and the name of the author, while the catalog in ink-print should give all the other details.

I hope after we have the national catalogs, we shall be able to collect them in one place and then to found a clearing-house so that it will be possible to interchange and to exchange all the printed books all over the world, page by page, book by book, or volume by volume.

We know very well that it is impossible for most of us to keep a big library of our own. We haven't got the space. But we need the libraries and we need the international exchange, and as we are not able to buy all the books that are printed in the United States, we, in Germany, are most willing to make an exchange even if we give you two volumes of the same book and you give us two different books. I think such exchange would be possible when arranged by international co-operation.

MR. TETSUTARO KUMAGAE (JAPAN): From my own experience, I think I may say just a few words concerning the libraries.

I have been a reader of the national lending library of London these twenty years. I have tried to get some books from America, but was unable to do so because I didn't know how to get into contact with the libraries or such systems in America. So I want emphatically to indorse the idea of an international bureau now. It would be a great help to us all over the world. We want to have contact with English literature and German literature, but we don't know how. So first, I wish to second the idea and the proposal that an international bureau be established, and secondly, I want to emphasize the point that a catalog should be published in braille. It is very difficult to find out those books from the ink-print catalog. I should like to emphasize with regard to libraries and periodical catalogs, of every kind all over the world; if you need Japanese books, we can give you many of them.

MR. S. C. SWIFT (CANADA): I wish to speak about a point which is of particular value and interest to librarians. I do not wish to enter upon any controversial topics, but I feel that the position of the libraries toward the presses, and the presses toward the libraries on this continent is of very great importance.

I may say at the outset that in my judgment, books published on this continent, broadly speaking, are altogether too dear. This is because of the excellence in binding and the high cost of paper, due to the processes through which the paper is put.

Now a library is in a different position—that is, the public library is in a different position from the private collection. In a private collection you want your fine bindings and your fine paper. I love a fine binding because to me a fine book properly clothed is, as Keats says in another connection, "a thing of beauty," and therefore a thing which is beautiful forever. But libraries for the blind are in a different position from a private collection. They must send their books to all sorts and conditions of people, into all sorts of homes, and therefore the cheaper—always, of course, in proportion to the good dot which is required—but the cheaper the paper, the cheaper

the binding, the cheaper the ultimate cost, the more copies will libraries be able to buy from their limited book account, and the sooner will they be able to discard those volumes and buy new and clean and fresh ones.

As it is now, when we buy our books from our American publishers they are beautifully bound, and they are so expensive that we cannot buy more than one copy at a time, and we feel that we must keep that copy until Gabriel blows his trumpet. Therefore, I urge all our printers to get busy and get cheap!

MR. W. R. HALLIDAY: As a keen braille reader, there is one point that I should like to emphasize with regard to libraries and periodical catalogs.

Most libraries issue from month to month notices of the additions that are made to the libraries, and I should urge that the notices should be accompanied, if possible, by some short summary of the nature and contents of each book, because titles are most misleading in some cases.

To illustrate my point, I just wish to tell you a little story about a home teacher of the old type in Scotland, who was very fond of giving to all the old ladies in his district a book called *The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come*. The title struck him as being most devotional. He found that all the old ladies liked the book immensely, and asked him to pass it on to their friends. Now this old gentleman was succeeded by a young man who found that everybody wanted to read *The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come*, and he thought he himself would look into it, and he found to his astonishment that it was a first-class blood-and-thunder yarn.

I only wish to give you that little story to show you how misleading titles might be and the necessity for some sort of summary to accompany each title in the monthly list.

M. PAUL GUINOT (FRANCE): I wish to say a word on the question of libraries and catalogs. I believe there are really two distinct questions involved. When considering catalogs I should like a point to be kept in mind which today evidently demands attention. From the explanations given here, and from common knowledge, it is evident that a braille library brings with it a serious objection, namely, that of space. It is to be feared that the great number of works to be put at the disposal of the blind will one day result in the impossibility of storage room, and this leads me to believe that a serious effort should be made in another direction.

In the United States, where the telephone and electricity play such a considerable part in everyday life and have attained a degree of perfection unknown in the Old World, it seems that scientific research work should be undertaken for the development and perfection of the talking-wire.

It is my conviction that braille publications, falling far short of furnishing libraries as extensive as those possessed by the seeing, can never serve as a medium of instruction for all the blind.

The talking-wire, on the contrary, occupies much less space and may be heard by those who do not read. Unquestionably the talking-wire is the field in which the fullest research should be made, with a view to making greater use of it in the education of the blind.

I should like to see this idea given consideration when preparations are being made for the compilation of a catalog, so that this international one which was referred to, as well as the national ones—which will have to be compiled—can all be utilized even when the talking-wire, having attained perfection, is put at the disposal of all the blind.

There is in this direction, for the international organization which is to be founded as a result of this Conference, a great source of activity, a justification. I am therefore cordially in agreement with the previous speakers regarding the establishment of an international organization to be charged with the study and the research work of a scientific, social and economic nature.

DR. ERNEST WHITFIELD (GREAT BRITAIN): I am very glad that several of the previous speakers have touched on the desirability for international co-operation in the production of braille.

Now, all those who have to do with braille production must be painfully aware of the fact that in spite of their pride in the volume of their output, that volume is insignificant when compared with the number of ink-print books that are published at the same time. I therefore maintain, together with many of my colleagues, that it is a great pity to waste any opportunity that presents itself for the multiplication of the numbers of books at the disposal of the braille-reading world.

Now you people in America are printing a great many braille books. We in England are also printing a great number of braille books. But, unfortunately, there is very little co-operation between the two countries; in consequence, there is a large amount of duplication, and this handicaps considerably.

The great obstacle in the way of getting uniformity seems to be a certain amount of "die-hardism" in both countries because, while many Americans say they will not relinquish Grade One and a Half, many of us in England say Grade Two is sacrosanct.

Now I, for my part, and there are many who think like me, assert that Grade Two is not scientifically constructed, nor is Grade One and a Half; therefore, could we not possibly come together in a state of cordial co-operation, think the whole matter out afresh, and try to establish a system which should be on the basis of the systems already in existence, because we cannot ride entirely roughshod over what has gone before. But I think that we can evolve a new system—I don't care what you call it; call it Grade X, if you like; it will hurt nobody's feelings—but let us get a new system and thus increase the profitable reading for the blind world. I think a great deal might profitably be sacrificed for the benefit of the blind as a whole. And, moreover, be it noted that this sacrifice is rather a sacrifice of personal feeling, of personal pride, and such a sacrifice as that is a gain in the end.

PROFESSOR PIERRE VILLEY (FRANCE): Listening to the present discussion, I have been struck with the wide difference of opinion existing in various countries on the subject of braille libraries. It is presented quite differently; on the one hand, from the point of view of available funds, and on the other, from that of the number of readers. The amount to be devoted to printing and the amount to be allocated to hand transcription work are entirely different according to the variation of these two factors. We have in Paris a library of a hundred thousand volumes composed wholly or in very large part of manuscript works, and I am convinced that had we diverted to printing the money required to produce only a quarter of this number, we should have done wrong, since we should have diverted that money from a much better use.

Therefore, I come to this conclusion: in this field also we require

international collaboration, but that collaboration should have as its object the guidance of each along his own path, according to the conditions obtaining in the case of each library. We are not seeking a general formula here.

NOTE.—At the session of April 29, before the reading of the report of the Committee on International Organization, Chairman Van Cleve called on Mrs. Sina Lichtman to read a paper on the subject of an international circulating library of music.

MRS. SINA LICHTMAN (U. S. A.): Listening to the excellent speeches and discussions here, I have looked back ten years to the beginning of my association with the work of the blind in music. Just at that time Nicholas Roerich, renowned artist and leader of culture, was founding the Master Institute of United Arts in New York. One of the departments of this young institution was, from the beginning, definitely dedicated by Professor Roerich to the work in music and other arts to be taught to the blind.

Our institutions grew, and finally Roerich Museum decided to erect a new building—the first skyscraper museum—where its institutions could expand further in their dedicated work for common welfare. Our department for the blind has also grown, but we feel as if we were beginning anew, since the possibilities are unlimited.

Most notable work has been done in music by the blind in all parts of the world, but much yet remains to be done. Through such noble men as the Honorable William Nelson Cromwell, Founder and President of the American Braille Press, who has brought the joy of knowledge to many lives, and Mr. Migel, President of the American Foundation for the Blind, who has brought joy of living and a new hope to many souls, your work is ever growing.

Those of you who are musicians know how difficult it is to get braille publications in music, from the classic to the romantic period and especially the present modern period. They are scattered throughout the world and much is still to be published. But that which exists should be gathered together in one central place in order to enable many blind musicians to find and use these great treasures of man's genius.

Through these ten years of experience with the teaching of the blind, it has been constantly evident to us that there is a vital need for the establishment of such a central focus for music—a center to which the blind musician might turn for advice, counsel, and information regarding the material available for his needs. There is also needed an available center for research into the possibilities for extending and augmenting such material.

Therefore, bearing this imperative need in mind, in behalf of the Trustees of Roerich Museum, our Institution, I have come here today to announce to you the founding of a music library of braille publications, as a division of the Library of the Roerich Museum. It is our purpose to collect music, to gather all existing music catalogues and musical material, and eventually to sponsor the music publications which are so greatly needed. To fulfil this purpose, we wish to co-operate with, and invite the interest of, all existing institutions, to the end that wider opportunity and possibility shall be afforded to the blind creator. Beginning with music, we will gradually increase the scope into other fields.

TECHNICAL AIDS AND APPLIANCES IN THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND CHILD

VLADIMIR DOLANSKI

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It is a universally known fact nowadays that technical aids and appliances are of far-reaching significance in the task of teaching young generations; and if pedagogy, after centuries of experiment, has arrived at the decision that the demonstrative method is the best in the teaching of children, it must be stated that in the teaching of the blind child this method is the one and only.

The lack of technical aids and appliances adapted to the needs of the blind was responsible for the fact that for many centuries education was entirely inaccessible to them. As a result of this they were steeped in ignorance and forced to bear its sad consequences.

The following discussion comprises:

- I. A historical outline describing by periods the ideas and inventions in the realm of writing for the blind;
- II. A description of efforts for improvement in the technical aids and appliances for the teaching of the blind;
- III. Conclusion.

The limited scope outlined in advance for this essay, as well as the lack of time which made it impossible for me to take advantage of all sources of valuable information, were the reasons for passing by many a fact in silence.

I. HISTORICAL OUTLINE

The tendency which the human mind has always shown to devote itself to research aiming at the solution of the most varied problems, entitles us to the supposition, that even far back in ancient times, man pondered over a way to enable those deprived of sight to read and to write.

But we do not come across any records of such endeavors earlier than in the Renaissance period, when science in nearly every one of its branches freed itself from tradition and ventured forth to seek new paths.

To make up for the lack of sight by touch—that was the idea that slumbered for a number of centuries before it was put into practice. At this time the chronicle of writing for

the blind begins, which comprises long periods and spreads over more than three hundred and fifty years. This chronicle tells of curious experiments (as Guilbeau says), of enthusiastic hopes, of sad disillusionments and constant new attempts.

The first experiment of recording thoughts in writing by the blind is found in Rome, when in the year 1575 an Italian, a certain Rampazetto, constructed a concave alphabet with letters engraved on loose blocks. By arranging these blocks, the blind could piece together syllables and sentences.

For the next hundred years we do not find anywhere any traces of further experiments whatever made in this direction. In the year 1676, however, we are informed by Burnet, Bishop of Salisbury, that while travelling through Schaffhausen, he saw a Miss Waldkirch, who was blind from birth, writing free-hand with a pencil very fluently and correctly. She learned this art from a Swiss scholar, Bernouilli, who, however, does not mention in his writings what means he used in arriving at this result, or whether he also tried to teach her to read.

Beginning with this time, we come across more and more often reports of blind people who were trying to fill this need in different ways and, as in the case of Frizeri and Sodi, used pins to write music. Other blind people again employed knots on a string, that were also supposed to represent musical notes; some there were, who, like the ancient Romans, scratched their messages on wax.

In 1714, an Englishman by the name of Henry Hill, was said to have constructed a writing machine for the blind, but we do not know what kind of a machine this was, because no description of it exists.¹

Most of the information about the blind of this period is supplied by Diderot in his *Lettres sur les aveugles*, where he mentions the English scholar Saunderson and Miss Salignac, and also the blind man of Puiseaux. Writing about Saunderson, he only mentions his appliance for mathematical figuring. In all probability, this scholar must have had also some means of writing, of which no record exists, however.

Miss Salignac was the first one to use paper for raised (convex) writing. She wrote by means of a pin, using it to perforate a sheet of paper spread in a frame and provided with a movable ruler that served as a support and guide. These pin perforations formed raised letters on the back of the

¹ Werner Schmidt, Staatliche Blindenanstalt, Steglitz, Germany.

paper. Of the blind man of Puiseaux we know only that he used raised letters.

In the same century, we find in German countries similar endeavors among the blind, of which we may mention Miss Paradis, of Vienna, who perforated letters on cards, and also Weissenburg of Mannheim, who employed a ruler for his free-hand writing.

Among the various means to which the blind have taken recourse in order to establish some sort of writing for their use, we find in 1783 a new idea by Adet and Hassenfratz based on the use of specially prepared thick ink that would enable them to write raised letters. This experiment failed, because the ink congealed while still on the pen. When Valentin Haüy began systematic labors in behalf of the blind, in 1884, he went back to the system used by Rampazetto but substituted raised letters for his engraved ones. This way of writing by means of movable letters was, of course, very slow. Nevertheless, it was kept in use through many decades, and as far as the teaching of mathematics is concerned, it has survived until the present time.

Following this, Valentin Haüy introduced a new way of writing, similar to the one already used by Miss Salignac, but distinguished by the fact that the letters were not perforated, but impressed with an engraving tool on paper that was stretched out on cloth, so that the back of the paper would show raised letters in connected strokes. To facilitate the keeping of a straight line in this manner of writing by free-hand for the blind, he introduced a special ruler and called it a *guide-main* (hand-guide).

Généresse, a teacher from the Quinze-Vingts, worked on a method to facilitate hand writing and in 1807 had introduced several varieties of *guide-main* that permitted the writing of raised letters simultaneously with the making of several duplicate copies. In spite of the need for it which was strongly felt, free-hand writing, even with the use of a *guide-main* could not gain ground, for it was too difficult for the majority of the blind.

In the same period of time (the year 1819) appeared Charles Barbier with his original idea of dot writing, thus breaking with the tradition in the history of writing for the blind. Barbier introduced to this effect a strip, into which were cut rectangles, called a "*guide à cellule rectangulaire.*" In each rectangle were marked certain numbers of dots, in two rows

running along the longer, upright edges of it. The number of dots in each of the two rows depended on the required letter, but was not supposed to be more than six dots. To be able to write by the Barbier system, it was necessary to get acquainted with a certain scheme, quite easy to remember, that mechanically designated for each letter of the alphabet the number of dots in the first and in the second row in the rectangle. His twelve-dot system Barbier himself named "*écriture nocturne*," (night-writing).

In 1825 a young man, only sixteen years old—Louis Braille—simplified the manner of writing invented by Barbier, thus initiating his convenient six-dot system. This system, in spite of its undeniable advantages, did not gain ground at once, because, as M. Villey said in his introductory speech in Paris during the celebration of the centenary of Braille's writing, this system met with very little confidence. It was even suppressed to such an extent, that pupils of the National Institution could use it only secretly. Much time had elapsed—more than 25 years—before it was officially accepted in the syllabus of French schools. From that time on, Braille's system began to earn recognition and we see how certain countries adopted it gradually in place of the discarded old type of raised Roman letters.

Without delving farther into the psychological analysis of the advantages of the braille system for the blind, but merely considering its practical significance, we can establish its three main qualities:

- (a) Smaller bulk of the books written by the dot-script as against those written by raised Roman letters.
- (b) Speed in reading and writing.
- (c) Possibility of making notes, writing down one's thoughts at any moment by means of a stylus and slate in pocket size, or by means of a ruler.

The negative feature of Braille's script, if we may call it so, is the fact of the introduction of a means of communication that is alien to the mass of seeing people, among whom we all must live and work. Blindness itself creates a certain divide between us and the rest of the world, and a different method of writing tends to make this chasm even deeper and forces us to form something like a separate small community in the great universe of the seeing.

The braille system concludes the period of inventions in the realm of writing for the blind, for further endeavors in

this direction brought actually nothing new; they merely contributed to the improvement of the inventions of their predecessors. But the activity in the technical improvements of already existing appliances and in the construction of new ones has increased considerably under the influence of a growing number of schools for the blind in various centers of Europe and America.

II. DEVELOPMENT OF APPLIANCES FOR TEACHING THE BLIND

Writing Appliances

Technical appliances and aids appearing from this time on are so numerous and varied, that in order to avoid chaos, we divide them into three fundamental groups:

1. Appliances for ordinary writing (*écriture vulgaire*).
2. Hand printing-presses (*écriture à lettres mobiles*),
3. Appliances for writing braille.

In describing every one of these special groups, it is impossible to enumerate the names of all the persons belonging to different nationalities, who have worked in this field. Neither is it possible to mention separately all the results of their ideas. We shall, therefore, limit ourselves to citing only a few of them.

The first group comprises a variety of boards and rulers for free-hand writing, and also writing machines.

1. In the year 1830 we find Gall's "typhlograph" in Edinburgh, where he employed a ruler similar to the one used by Barbier. Further, Guérault, pupil of Valentin Haüy, modified his teacher's method of writing, by preparing a board with parallel lines, alternating convex and concave. Both these writing appliances can be found up to the present day, the first one in Belgium, the second in France. In 1835 the Spaniard Isern constructed an apparatus for writing and for recording musical notes.

In 1838 Braille introduced the idea of writing Roman letters with the help of a ruler with rectangular holes, in which he perforated the separate letters. The regularity of the letters obtained with the help of these squares was an improvement on the script of Miss Salignac, but their weak point was the fact that the writing was very slow.

In 1847, Saintard presented to the Paris Institution his *guide-main* later known under three different names.

In 1857, Bourseul of Paris tried to adapt Morse's telegraphic alphabet for the use of the blind, but with a negative result.

Duvignaux, Barochin, Couteaux, Bruno and Passard constructed writing rulers that turned out to be impractical and have only museum value, illustrating endeavors of the human mind.

In 1858, in Barcelona, a writing apparatus made its appearance based on an idea by Lorens, who had modified Gall's typhlograph and adapted it to the convex linear script. In the same year appeared the apparatus of Charles Édouard Guldberg, of Copenhagen, which idea was later put to use by Galimberti of Milan, Martuscelli of Naples, Moon of Brighton and finally by Kamps, of Grave, Holland.

In 1859, in Prussia, Professor Hebold used for writing the already well-known ruler with rectangular holes, into which he introduced incisions for guiding the writer's hand, placed in the middle of the length of each side of the rectangle. This way of writing Roman letters has found widespread use in Germany.

In 1864, Ballu took up Braille's idea of writing Latin letters by perforating a sheet of paper and establishing five dots as a limit of the size of a letter. The Valentin Haüy Association prepared a special ruler, with which the blind could in case of necessity (e. g., to address an envelope) write ordinary letters. Unfortunately, this way of writing is very slow.

Almost twenty years later, we see the Count de Beaufort introduce his stylograph, permitting not only raised letters, but retaining even the characteristics of the writers. Moreover, he contributed the so-called "*mélo-stylographe*," which enables us to write raised musical notes. Beaufort's stylograph gave the impulse for the beginning of teaching ordinary writing in French schools. Since the acquisition of this method of writing presents great difficulties for the blind, it was dropped in the course of time and writing by rulers with rectangular holes was substituted for it.

In 1887 Miss Mulot of Angers introduced a ruler with rectangles and added an insert, the so-called "*obturateur*." But later, following the example of Quigneaux, Broutin and Proust, the National Institution and other French schools began to use the simple ruler of Braille, which not only serves to write dotted letters but also Roman letters, both convex and concave.

At the same time more or less, appeared Vostel's apparatus, later the Dutch scoptograph, and finally the device of the Polish scholar Wagner, which proved the best of all three, especially for blind persons who lose their sight in advanced years.

Quite a number of names are left, which we have to omit, because war times and post-war years have brought innumerable

models belonging in this category and constructed in the first place with a view to helping the war-blind.

In 1783 the previously mentioned gentlemen, Adet and Hasenfratz, prepared pens with an appliance for semi-liquid ink which mixed inside of the pen but this did not stay in use because the ink congealed in the pen itself. The same reason was responsible for the failure of Challan's experiments in 1824.

Because the use of ink presents great difficulties to the blind, as they do not know when they have a sufficient amount of it on the pen, a Vienna mechanic, Müller, in 1825, constructed a pen with a container inside the penholder that supplied ink to the penpoint while writing. In this way the blind could use the pen and be sure that the ink was always flowing. In the Vienna Institute for the Blind, such pens were used for a long time, with a specially prepared writing fluid. This method was used for free-hand writing, as well as for writing books and making drawings. But this method, too, was abandoned as impractical. A similar fate was in store for the ink combination of Vitali (1893), manager of the Milan Institute. The endeavors to enable the blind to write, led to the invention of the now generally used fountain pens.

The slowness of all methods hitherto employed by the blind in writing, led to attempts to overcome this handicap.

The first one to solve this question was Foucault (1837), a blind man from the Quinze-Vingts. He constructed a machine with the help of which he brought about writing at a speed of fifty letters a minute. This machine, called "*Raphigraph*" was used for many decades in French, Swiss and Italian schools. This machine was the prototype of later writing machines.

In 1847 appeared an apparatus by Thurber, of Boston, the letters of which were manipulated by a keyboard. Later we meet a typhlograph invented by Hughes of Manchester, based on the principle of a revolving disk, later modified by Lé vitt.

Finally, the apparatus of the watchmaker, Larivière, of Nancy, appeared. Generally, work in this direction proceeded very slowly. Only through periodicals appearing in raised type in English, French, German and Italian, and later through international conventions as well as national ones devoted to the problems of blindness, a greater interest and subsequently an increased number of inventions in the realm of the needs of the blind, have been brought about.

As a result of this, at the Paris Exposition in 1889, there were as many as ten different types of American machines, built

along the general lines of Foucault, but considerably improved. The actual purpose of the machines was achieved, as their speed makes them excellently adapted to the needs of those who write much professionally, or who pursue higher education. But their negative side consists in the fact that the blind person has no possibility of checking the written text by touch, and also that the high price of these machines enables only an insignificant fraction of the blind to make use of them. And thus a machine, originally intended exclusively for the blind, has spread against all expectations and has become an excellent means of communication for the seeing.

In the improvement of aids for the blind further advances were made by Recordon of Lausanne, Boveyn of Lille, Wagner of Switzerland, Mauler, Péphau and Saint-Gorgon, who constructed more or less similar machines for ordinary and braille script simultaneously. These machines were introduced at various congresses, as in Amsterdam and Cologne, and also at the previously mentioned Exposition in Paris. Judging by the description, these machines for the blind appear to have been better than all the other devices, although it is still to be determined whether practical application did not reveal any faults.

2. The second section contains hand printing-presses with movable letters. Among the persons belonging to this field and working in this direction, the following are to be considered.

Klein, a blind man, director of the Vienna Institute, made popular in Austria small printing presses of his own invention, consisting of one complete alphabet. Each slug has a Roman letter formed by a row of pins. The writing by this method is done so that a sheet of paper, spread on felt, is impressed consecutively by these slugs, thus forming words that appear on the back of the paper in raised perforated script. These printing presses were introduced into the Paris Institution in 1842. In Austria they are still in use.

Schiött and L. Guldberg, of Copenhagen, have introduced printing presses provided with raised letters with a running stroke. Apart from this, the blind Massé of Tours, Marchesi of Lodi, Gastaldon of Turin, Collard of Paris and many others have contributed principally the same ideas, which differ only in details.

3. The third group consists of slates and machines adapted to the braille script.

The writing appliances originally used by Braille were very simple and consisted merely of a ruler with cut-out rectangles

and a stylus. Only later, to obtain greater regularity in the dots, wooden tablets were prepared, with upright parallel slits. It was found, however, that constant use deformed the slits by the pressure of the slate pencil. Therefore, improvements in the tablets were attempted not only in France, but in every country interested in the fate of its blind.

In improving the tablets, it was also considered that the saving of paper was quite a problem. This was solved satisfactorily in 1834 when Fournier, a friend of Braille, and Laass d'Aguen began experimenting with it. Their efforts aimed at interlined writing on both sides of the paper. Normally, a space one dot wide was left between the lines of the dot-script, which means the loss of one-third of the written page. To use this waste space, Fournier and Laass d'Aguen increased the spacing between lines to the width of three dots and made room for more writing on the back of the page. In this way a sheet taking nine lines in ordinary one-sided writing, took only six lines on both sides of the paper, thus making twelve lines to the sheet.

In 1864, Ballu advanced the matter of paper-saving even further, introducing the inter-dot writing, by which the concave marks of letters appearing on the back of the paper, are placed between the convex dots of the front page letters. The Ballu method of writing saves 50 per cent of the paper. It can, however, be applied only in printing or in writing machines, and even then only with accurate apparatus; it cannot be employed in hand writing by means of a slate and a ruler, as the dots on page 1 are destroyed by the dots made on page 2.

At more or less the same time, the braille system was modified in New York in such a way, that the six-dot unit was written not in two rows of three dots each, but in three rows of two dots. The slates, therefore, had to be adjusted to this change.

Pablasek, director of the Vienna Institute, constructed a slate distinguished from all other previously constructed slates by the fact that it gave positive script; i. e., in writing, the dots rose on the upper part of the paper, and the entire slate was covered with rows of convex sets of six dots. Instead of the ordinary stylus for pressing the dots into the paper, the stylus was provided with a concave tip. By pressing this cavity against the paper as it lay on the above-mentioned slate, convex dots were obtained. This way of writing made it possible to check the written text immediately. But experience proved that it was possible to write thus only on thin paper, which did not take the dots permanently. For this reason these tablets did not find any wider use.

After many changes and improvements undertaken in different places, we have finally arrived at slates of various forms and sizes such as are generally used today.

Similarly, as for ordinary writing, work was begun on machines constructed for the dot-script.

In 1894, Hall's American machines appeared, and right in their tracks, Picht's German machines, a Swiss one by Constançon and a British machine by Stainsby-Wayne. These machines were gradually improved, so that it is possible now to write on both sides between lines and between points. The same Stainsby was the inventor of a braille shorthand machine.

Mathematical Devices

Next to writing, the problem that occupied the minds of the blind, as the ones immediately affected by the question of technical appliances and devices, was the very necessary device for teaching arithmetic, for arithmetic has the greatest possible application in daily life. It is true, that many blind, after a certain period of training, are capable of solving mathematical problems in their minds, but this is applicable only within certain limits, for the mind is in many cases incapable of remembering a number of figures, and it becomes necessary then to mark them down in some sort of way accessible to a person deprived of sight.

The most primitive aid in figuring is the device generally used in Russia, the so-called *boulier compteur*.

The famous English mathematician Saunderson, a professor at Cambridge University in 1711, who had lost his sight in early youth, used in his studies a device of his own invention. It was a square tablet consisting of a number of little squares in parallel arrangement. This tablet was a copy of the checkered sheet of paper generally used for figuring. Every checker had nine perforations, in three rows of three each, into which were inserted pins with round heads. The figure was indicated by the position that a pin occupied in one of the nine perforations of the checker. Zero, as the tenth figure, was indicated by a pin with a larger head, stuck into the center of every checker.

Saunderson's apparatus is very clever, but impractical in use, because the reading of the figures proceeds very slowly on account of the slight difference in the position of the pins that denote the numbers. This device was later changed by Niesen so that it could be used for algebraic problems.

Later, in 1780, Thomas Greenville, also an Englishman, made a mathematical apparatus of which a description can be found in *London Transactions*. (Vol. IV, page 131). It consisted of

a small box partitioned off inside into twenty-eight sections, containing groups of nails. The heads of these nails had small buttons in different positions which indicated the meaning of the figures and mathematical symbols. The lid of the box had a great number of openings arranged in regular rows, into which were inserted the nails representing figures.

Valentin Haüy applied to figures movable convex Arabic symbols that were placed on a board. This system had the drawback of making it necessary to re-group all symbols at the end of each problem and replace them in their proper partitions, which took almost as much time as the problem itself. This apparatus is nevertheless still in use, especially in schools where seeing instructors teach.

With the popularization of Braille's system, it began to find application in the solving of mathematical problems on paper. This system, though, was inconvenient, because it rendered a negative script and could not be verified without turning the sheet of paper, thus making it difficult to follow the progress of the problem.

The English slate developed by Taylor, which is most widely used in Germany, next to England, is based on a number of octagonal openings arranged in parallel rows. Figures are designated by means of small square metal cubes, on both ends of which are different symbols easily recognizable by touch. Each one of these cubes can be placed in the octagonal openings in eight different positions, and each one of these positions has its designated meaning. Eight more positions can be obtained by the same cube, placed upside down. This way sixteen different symbols can be obtained by each cube. A device, based on the same principle, but using pentagonal openings instead, is used in Holland, and here and there also in England, and is made in the Institute for the Blind in Grave, Holland.

The *Cubarithm*, introduced in 1886 by Oury in Paris, is best adapted to the needs of the sightless and is somewhat similar to the Taylor device. It appears as a set of metal cube-shaped units, every wall of which carries a combination of dots so arranged, that each cube, according to its position, can designate nineteen symbols, i. e., all braille figures from 1 to 0 (zero) and nine different arithmetical figures. These cubes are arranged in a rectangular tablet provided with square openings which conform with the size of the cubes. Both the Cubarithm and the Taylor apparatus have the advantage of not requiring a re-grouping after the problem is finished, in contrast to all those devices in which Arabic symbols are used.

The Schleussner apparatus is different from those described so far. A slate 25x32 cm. in size, (10x12½ inches) and 1½ cm. (½ inch) thick, has the two first rows occupied by perforations conforming to Braille's six-point symbols, formed like the French letter *é* and arranged in groups; the remainder of the tablet has rows of perforations which conform with the letter *g*. Placed in these perforations, which extend through to the other side of the board, are metal rods, the length of which is greater than the thickness of the board by approximately 1 mm. (1/30 inch). When the bottoms of the little pegs are even with the bottom of the board, their upper ends protrude slightly above its surface, resembling somewhat the braille dots. The tablet is supported by low legs, so that its under side does not touch the table. Thus, when the dots that are not needed are pushed down with a dull pencil, their lower ends go through the other side of the tablet, leaving on its surface only the dots that enter into the components of the problem. The first two rows are used to note down the problem, and the other rows serve to designate the required combination of figures.

The Schludner device differs from the above, in that it has only sets of six-points all over its surface and thus can be used to solve all mathematical problems, such as fractions, algebra, trigonometry, etc.

A device developed by Mahler, of Leipzig, which is applicable to higher mathematics, consists of a small box containing all the Arabic symbols, and all the mathematical symbols and geometric figures. These symbols and figures are provided on the back with pointed teeth, and are fastened by means of these teeth to a felt surface. This apparatus is especially useful in the case of children who go to school with seeing children, as it enables them to get acquainted with the presentation of different problems in mathematics with the help of their seeing fellow school mates.

The *Mathematikum*, an invention of Dr. Wilmers, a teacher at the Hanover Institute for the Blind, is a device aiming at a plastic presentation of mathematical figures. It is said to enable one to acquire a fundamental mathematical knowledge, including plane and solid geometry, trigonometry, mechanics, etc. As in every realm, technical science can point to a positive result here also, for the Institute for the Instruction of the Blind in Marburg reported, in 1926, that a machine had been constructed for mathematical figuring under the name of *Triumphator*, which was equipped with double symbols, i. e.: both ordinary symbols and braille, and

was, therefore, adaptable to the teaching of sightless as well as seeing people.

Appliances for Geometry

The science of geometry (plane and solid) is very useful in the practical life of the sightless, not only because it trains the mind in clarity, conciseness and exactness in thinking, but also because it facilitates to a certain extent the comprehension of many things that can be described only by the comparative use of geometric terms.

The elementary conception of parallel, rectangular lines, of angles, etc., facilitates, to a great extent, the blind person's familiarity with space, and it ought, therefore, to be a duty of every school for the blind, to make its pupils acquainted with the world of form. The simplest way of acquainting children with geometric surfaces, was by means of figures cut out of paper, cardboard or wood; later, perforated tablets were introduced, made of wood or metal, upon which the outlines of geometric symbols were traced by little pegs with round heads, or by stretching strings.

Among the more simple, but clever, devices belongs Hebold's appliance. It consisted of a wooden disc, 16 to 18 cm. (6 to 7 inches) in diameter, with 36 incisions on its circumference, placed at equal distances. The ninth, eighteenth, twenty-seventh and thirty-sixth incisions were marked by small nails for direction. To produce angles or closed forms on the disc, a thin string was used, threaded through different incisions on the circumference of the disc. To make the pupil reproduce independently certain symbols, a thick layer of felt or a flat cushion was employed, about 25 to 30 cm. (10 to 12 inches) square in size on which the blind drew outlines of the symbols by means of a string or a rubber band fastened by pins at required distances.

On paper, the sightless can draw figures by means of a little metal disc with sharp indentations on its circumference, revolving around an axis inserted in a handle,* and also by compasses equipped with a similar disc. Drawings done this way bulge out on the opposite side of the paper and thus cannot be inspected by touch during the drawing.

Professor Mattei's *Schemagraph* also gives negative drawings, differing from the previously mentioned system by the fact, that while the latter used the indented disc to draw its symbols, Mattei employs an engraving tool to draw continuous lines.

*A "tracing wheel."

Schleussner's drawing appliance consists of a drawing board, rectangular in shape and measuring 26x40 cm. ($10\frac{1}{4}\times 15\frac{1}{2}$ inches) and equipped with drawers for the necessary tools. The tools consist of a ruler with a scale, triangles and two pairs of compasses, and also very strong waxed threads. Under the pressure of a finger, these threads easily stick to paper or cardboard. One pair of compasses is adapted to the measuring of distances, the other has at the end of one of its arms an eyelet through which the string is threaded and is adapted to the drawing of circles, arcs, etc. With the help of these devices, the sightless can draw all kinds of geometric symbols by means of the waxed threads.

The knowledge of geometric three dimensional forms (solid geometry) also plays a not less important part than geometry in the practical life of the sightless. For this purpose, schools use the same wooden geometric objects as are customary in the schools for the seeing. The blind pupil, having become acquainted with the shape of the objects, ought to be able to reconstruct them out of sculptor's clay, making it possible for the teacher to judge whether the pupil's conception conforms with reality. Modeling is *per se* a reflection of the conceptions that the blind person forms in his mind of the surrounding world. The utmost significance is, therefore, to be attached to the teaching of modeling in childhood, regarding it as a preparatory pedagogical method, which aims at fitting the blind person for high school and college training.

Geography and Maps

None of the school subjects offers as many difficulties in plastic presentation to the sightless, as geography. Much time passed, therefore, before such maps as are afforded the pupils today, could be prepared and adapted to use. At first they were primitive affairs, produced by sewing on to cardboard or, later on, marking out on a wooden board, the outlines of boundaries, positions of cities and other points by means of nails with different heads, and tracing rivers and roads with strings.

In the absence of any better system, this was employed for many decades. It was only between the years 1840 and 1847, that Laass d'Aguen, of Paris, prepared very good outlines of France and other parts of the world engraved on copper, from which he made impressed copies on cardboard. The details of these maps were carried out with special care and accuracy, and with an eye to stimulating the imagination. They were excellent, but unfortunately the plates made by d'Aguen have been lost, and the copies have long been out of circulation.

In subsequent years, maps were made of plaster of Paris, but these were neither accurate nor durable. In later years, also, experiments were conducted in England, Denmark, France, Germany and other countries, with an eye to the production of maps, but without thoroughly satisfactory results.

The year 1884 brought a fundamental change, thanks to Kunz of Ilzach, who used to make hundreds of proofs in order to obtain true reproductions of his maps on paper. In this way there came into existence an atlas for geography, universally used in German, Scandinavian and Swiss countries. Institutes of other countries followed Kunz's example, and took care of their own supply of maps.

Earlier, when there was only one map to each classroom, the children had to take turns in making use of it, and while one child would study the map, the others had to sit by idle, as a matter of course. Nowadays, with the possibility of producing inexpensive maps embossed on paper, every child can have his own copy and can follow the words of the teacher more easily, both mentally and by touch.

Kunz recommends reproduction of maps in wax or sculptor's clay, after a child has already learned to recognize them, so as to force him to become acquainted with the exact details and to impress the latter more securely and more permanently on his memory, than is possible by having him merely go through the maps superficially by the touch of a finger.

Physical Appliances

Like the seeing, the blind man lives in the world of nature; like the former, he is subject to its laws, participates in its application to life and ought, therefore, to become acquainted with the phenomena, forces and laws of nature as well as any seeing person, although, of course, within the limits accessible to him. Otherwise he is in this respect bound to fall behind the rest in his general education.

Owing to the progress made during the last decades in the methods of teaching and in the improvement and widening of instructive devices applicable to the science of physics, the school can now make this branch of science accessible to the blind. As aids in the instruction in physics, the sightless now employ the same appliances as are used by the seeing, or use their models adapted to touch methods. Moreover, they work on practical experiments and use embossed drawings.

This will conclude our treatise, as it is impossible to enumerate every single device that enters into the equipment of even the most modest school laboratory.

III. CONCLUSION

The foregoing outline, describing the development of script and its technical appliances, shows that a great deal has been accomplished. But we cannot say, that what has been achieved, is already perfect; in any case, these achievements, for which we must thank the painstaking labors of the inventors, are not only their triumph, but the triumph of all the sightless. The latter, armed with tools which enable them to elevate their minds and their spirits, have become capable of working, and through their work have regained consciousness of their own dignity.

In the measure that technical aids and appliances improve, the lot of the sightless improves, too, in consequence of their vocational and intellectual education.

It is not the aim of this report to criticize single devices, but rather to present objectively all that has been done up to the present, and to consider how many of the described appliances could be improved upon and what are the problems that call for the speediest solution. For this reason, I beg to make two motions:

1. That all those interested in technical aids and appliances, kindly state their observations and remarks based on their own practical experience, thus presenting us with material for further labors in this field; and
2. That a permanent International Council (*Conseil Permanent International*) be created in Paris, devoted to the welfare of the blind, the purpose of which would be, among others, to work on the construction of technical aids and appliances and to supply these appliances to the sightless of all countries. The creation of such a body would advance the welfare of the blind by a great step, for the manufacture of appliances in larger quantities would reduce their prices, and thus make them accessible to the great mass of those without sight.

PRINTING FOR THE BLIND

FRANK C. BRYAN

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Boston, Massachusetts, U. S. A.*

Our friends from across the seas, and their predecessors, have been leading the way in printing for the blind, as was shown in 1924 to the commission (headed by Mr. Irwin, with Mr. Bramlette and myself) which visited the principal presses in England, France, Germany, Austria, and Italy. We shall never forget the courtesies we received on our visit, and the great efforts made to show us everything that had been accomplished over there, and how and why it had been done.

We had prepared an elaborate questionnaire covering every phase of printing for the blind and many allied subjects, and we collected information from every press we visited. This was later assembled in compact form by the American Foundation for the Blind and distributed to those presses and others interested.

We paid particular attention to the development of two-side printing because Mr. Irwin's tests had shown us the practicality of its use for all classes of printing with readers of all ages. It is unnecessary to repeat here and now the details of what we collected abroad, or to enlarge upon how we Americans, too, finally succeeded in producing acceptable interpoint print.

Having adopted their methods in great part (as we now have altered our machinery according to their experiences) and adapted our printing presses to fit our particular needs, I find it difficult to write about the subject in a way that would be of interest or benefit to them. But, since my connection with printing for the blind dates back to 1893, when the epoch-making Hall stereotyper made its appearance, it occurs to me that the story of the various gradual developments which have taken place over here since then, within my personal experience and knowledge, will be of interest, and will show in what way our methods may differ from those of our friends from abroad.

Mr. Allen started his printing plant in 1892 at the old Race street School of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, folded brass plates being embossed with hammer and stylus in the laborious fashion of that day. The printing

itself was done by means of a clothes-wringer press, a real one with rubber rolls. Miss Sara K. Sterling had begun to do this work assisted by Miss Elsie Jarvis as proof-reader. *Monroe's New Primer* was the first book so printed. It was interlinear.

In the spring of 1893 the Hall platemaker or, as we call it, the "stereotyper," appeared. Miss Sterling operated this foot-power machine for several months, but becoming very fatiguing for her, it was found best to employ a man. The position was offered to me, and I accepted it because the work had an immediate fascination for me. It did not take long to master the system and the machine, and soon I was thumping out plates with fair speed. In a few months I started a self-imposed stint to produce twenty large plates, or forty small ones, each day, unless other special work should prevent. Each large plate had thirty-one lines of forty cells, and our American braille books being in full spelling, there was an average of some 225 words to a page.

In the fall of this first year I joined a gymnasium where I was astonished to learn that the calf of my right leg measured one and one-half inches larger around than the left. Mr. Allen immediately arranged to have a left pedal attached to the machine, and three months of constant use brought the left to the size of the right. Thereafter I embossed the odd numbered pages with the left leg, and the even ones with the right. In a year or so the machine was worn out, and another model, the familiar Hall of today, with the wider carriage for long lines, was purchased.

Meanwhile, Mr. Alfred Wayne, the English machinist of the Stainsby-Wayne braillewriter who was then living in Philadelphia, made us an all-metal clothes-wringer press, with steel rollers. This was a great improvement over the old one, for it required less power to turn it; it is still in use at Overbrook.

Mr. Wayne also made dies to fit into the old stereotyper for the production of outline maps and diagrams. I often smile to myself at the thought of the first map I made. Of course, I set out to put in it about everything that was on the original, but when I had done so, and had submitted the map to fingers, I saw at once that this sort of thing would never do. Ever after that, I submitted maps and diagrams to fingers before wasting time on what I thought the finger could read. It had been a good lesson, cheaply and early learned.

When Mr. Wayne returned to England, our school purchased the special tools and presses he had made for manufacturing

braille and arithmetic slates. I then made the slates in my free time, which gave me an added revenue and did not curtail the production of plates.

About this time, too, I had another source of overtime pay. Miss Helen Keller was studying at Radcliffe College and wanted additional text-books in braille; so a Mr. Wade of Pittsburgh, on Mr. Allen's recommendation, employed me to braille many special books for her in manuscript. I had prided myself on my small part in her college career, but was chagrined to learn in later years that much of the material transcribed for her came too late to be of real use. I should have sent it in small installments as I finished it, instead of waiting until I had completed an entire book.

Such delay is always a possibility in printing for the blind, and it is to guard against a like contingency that Mr. Allen recommends that every school have a small printing-press of its own, where plates may be made, and lesson leaflets multiplied quickly for immediate class use. If it is too expensive to hire an operator, get the printing-press anyway, and interested teachers will get busy with it when they want something that may never be produced elsewhere, or that will come too late to be immediately serviceable.

In 1899, the School was moved out to Overbrook, and during the period of moving and installation, the press was idle. I was kept busy in various ways, such as placing braille numbers on all pupils' lockers and, in general, making myself useful until our printing-room furniture could be built. This was designed carefully, for we had come from the rather haphazard equipment of our old office. Our new room was about fifteen feet by twenty-five feet. A long bench on one side of the room made it easy to cut plates there, make sketches for maps and diagrams, and assemble braille plates. At one end of the bench stood the sink for moistening paper. On the other side of the room was a case reaching to the ceiling, with each shelf divided into three-inch compartments, so that plates could be stored on edge for their better preservation. In the center of the room was the printing-table, at one end the clothes-wringer press, and at the other, our gilder's press for map work; below the table was open shelving for drying the wet print. Our map-making machine, punch press and drill press for braille slates also stood in the center. At the window end of the room was the one stereotyping machine, later to have another by its side when Perkins sold one of its own manufacture.

I enjoyed this different work and the planning of our new printing room, for I always liked a "change of occupation." I am still fascinated with embossing, but it can get monotonous and tiring as one does it hour after hour, so that a "change of occupation" is a valuable rest period. I put the phrase in quotation marks because it was Mr. Allen's amused expression for my failing. Now our operators at Perkins proof-read every plate immediately after embossing it, which saves disastrous omissions and provides a rest, almost a "change of occupation." On my last visit to the American Printing House for the Blind I found this practice followed, and I know the operators welcome it.

Proof-reading at Overbrook was done with the following procedure: Miss Jarvis, who had been a pupil in the school but had sufficient sight to read the inkprint book, made the first proof-reading by touch; next, after corrections were made, the second touch proof-reading was done by another finger reader. Then after corrections, came the final reading by Miss Sterling, who read by sight. Having been careful to hold the proof so that a shadow fell on one side of each dot, she has never injured her sight in all the years she has been proof-reading. Most people seem to believe that braille sight-reading must be harmful.

Our present proof-reading procedure at Perkins is as follows: Our two blind men-stereotypers proof-read each page immediately after it is embossed, their seeing readers holding the inkprint book. When a volume has been embossed the whole is proof-read by the other embosser and reader. Corrections having been made, it is again read by the same stereotyper without his reader. If more than one error in five pages is discovered, the book gets another proof-reading. By this careful procedure our books are commonly free of errors.

Miss Sterling was appointed librarian when the Pennsylvania School was moved to Overbrook, devoting much of her time to increasing the number of manuscript books. This work had been started by Mr. Allen in 1892, he having borrowed the idea from England as a quick and ready means of increasing titles. Girl graduates of the school were the transcribers, being paid by the page. The brailleing was done on interlining "frames" imported from London. Overbrook, the only American school which does not bring up its pupils to write braille on one side only, still uses this interlining slate. Miss Jarvis proof-read and corrected the pages and Miss Sterling gave the final proof-reading; after which each sheet was shellacked preparatory to binding. The Pennsylvania Institution Report for 1903 says: "We have in

the Library two copies of 277 different books (titles) written out by hand in the American braille system." Seventy-three thousand three hundred and one pages were so made up to that year; and from then to 1919, when the work was discontinued, over 54,000 more pages were transcribed, possibly adding 200 titles. This library of manuscript books is unique, and gives Overbrook the most diversified library in American braille.

In our embossing we sometimes take small liberties with the text, in order that the finger may expect a certain form and practice to be followed; such as, the omission of punctuation marks at the ends of lines on title pages, but the use of them in headings of chapters and elsewhere in the book. Some letter-press publishing houses omit periods after chapter numbers and headings. We think that if our presses always present the same form to the finger there will not be the momentary hesitation experienced, as is the case whenever an unfamiliar form is encountered. The spelling of certain words in books printed in England varying from our own spelling, we take the liberty of changing to the way they are spelled here. A former embosser in one of our schools always used the press practice followed by the United States Government Printing Office. The American Red Cross publishes *Braille Transcribing*, a manual for teaching manuscript braille, which covers much of the ground necessary in a book of press practices. Perhaps this book might be amplified into one which all our presses could use to make sure that the finger is not burdened with unusual forms, for reading braille is in itself a physical effort. One of the reasons why the Howe Memorial Press of Perkins Institution employs blind stereotypers is so that the form used will always be presented to the finger in the ideal way that the finger should have it.

In the new plant at Overbrook, I was given a cheery room on the second floor. It was directly over Mr. Allen's office, and I was fearful lest the constant thumping of the pedal on the rubber-covered block attached to the floor would be disturbing. But no; he said it was the finest music to him to know that braille plates were being turned out for the cause.

In 1897, Mr. Allen undertook to have interpoint plates made. This was done under difficulties, and with unsatisfactory equipment. The Cooper Engineering Company made for us a set of styluses with dots wider apart than we had been using. The bar for holding the plate provided the horizontal and vertical adjustments. This was all the additional equipment

we had for interpoint embossing. It was often necessary to shift the plate when the second side was in process to insure that some dots did not interfere with those on the first side. Of course, we used brass, being unable in those days to use zinc and other cheaper metals because of sticking. Sticking is a trouble even now, unless we are careful. The interpointing was also done, then, in such a way that one dot might fall within the upper four dots of the cell, and not in the lower four, as is the case now; and this increased the difficulty of clean interpointing.

Our interpoint printing was done on a sort of gilder's press, used for maps and the like. It was operated by pulling a lever, which, as I remember it, seemed like a fifty pound pull for each impression. Not long ago I was talking with Mr. Allen about our early attempts at interpointing and wondering why we gave it up. He said it was because I got tired of pulling that lever.

I am surprised, in looking over the old records which Miss Sterling unearthed, to find that we embossed considerable interpoint. From 1898 to 1903, twenty-nine books containing 2,697 pages were so embossed, and two books together containing 304 pages, were done later by my successor. In 1892 and 1893, before the delivery of the first platemaker, Miss Sterling had made two interlinear two-side books, containing 207 pages by means of a reinforced braille slate, a stylus and a hammer.

The interpoint size was eight and three-quarters inches from top to bottom of the page, with a ten and one-half inch line; a two-thirds size styled "medium." Mr. Allen always wanted to introduce this size as more convenient for all bookwork, but could only use it for plates that were to be kept at Overbrook. The American Printing House, at that time, could only print two sizes: the "large" size, twelve and one-half inches from top to bottom by nine and one-half inches wide, in which size most of the books appeared; and the "small" size, five and three-quarters inches by nine and one-half inches, used for books for young children. As the interpoint plates could only be printed on our gilder's press, Mr. Allen, at once, started to use the two-thirds size for these. Now, all presses in America are using this size exclusively.

I left Overbrook in the summer of 1903, after just ten years of plate-making. I have made a calculation of the number of plates of all sizes embossed in the years from 1893 to

1903, taking half of the number for that last year. This has been compiled from the *List of Publications in American Braille* published by the Pennsylvania School in 1914. During this ten-year period there were embossed in this system, and in the same foot-power way by those presses employing it, 75,250 plates, of which Overbrook made 34,947, a little over forty-six per cent of the whole. It is only fair to that School to make mention of the fact of its contribution being so large in proportion at a time when not every one had faith in American braille. Since I was the only operator continuously employed by any press during this period, the wonder is not that I produced so much, but that I must have sought many a "change of occupation" in order to have produced so little; for, allowing 300 working days a year, my average had been only twelve plates a day.

After running off an edition sufficient for our own use and that of the few other schools with which we made regular book exchange, we deposited the plates at the American Printing House to swell the variety and volume available on government quota to every school; and others did the same. So it happened that these half dozen school printing departments and their educational propaganda of those years alone saved the day for eventual American uniformity with the rest of the world.

A comparison of the production then and now is worth recording. From the booklist compiled by our American Foundation published in the *Outlook for the Blind* we learn that, during the year 1930, there were made by all the American presses 79,626 plates, of which the American Printing House made 55,341, or seventy per cent of the whole number. More than half of the remainder were made by the Universal Braille Press and the new outgrowth of that press, the Braille Institute of America. This is a real contribution from a private press and speaks wonderfully well for Mr. Atkinson and his associates.

In 1908, I again joined Mr. Allen at Perkins Institution, as manager of the Industrial Department for Adults; but during slack times in my department I found time to emboss a fair number of plates. Mr. Dennis A. Reardon, who was then in charge of the Howe Memorial Press, was always ready and willing to help in developing new ideas, and in this, his long experience in mechanics was of the utmost value. Though he was blind, still he succeeded in applying power to

a Hall stereotyper, which was done at his shop during 1908. A picture of this in operation may be seen in the Perkins Year Book of that year.

In 1910, four stereotyping machines were made in Boston by the Meisel Press Company under the direction of Mr. Reardon. All four are still in use, including one sold to the Pennsylvania Institution at Overbrook. As new ideas appeared, such as braille with New York Point interval, close braille, Standard Dot, we altered the machines to suit the need. Standard Dot called for a variable base, and Mr. Reardon found a typewriter inventor who made an ingenious attachment with which to emboss this system. Indeed, with it we could write Standard Dot, New York Point, and any sort of point system ever devised, with the same speed as employed in regular block braille.

Shortly after a visit to London in 1912, Mr. Walter G. Holmes, editor of the Ziegler Magazine for the Blind, commenced experiments with two-side print. His problem of accomplishing perfect interpoint was difficult enough, but he had also to educate his readers to accept it. It was our experience back in Overbrook days that sensitive fingers complained of feeling the rims of the dots on the other side of a page of wet-printed interpoint, and it is likely that the Ziegler readers also were troubled by that. Absolute registry was difficult to get on his rotary press; nevertheless, he succeeded, after finding that so-called stereotyper's matrix paper made the ideal backing, by preventing creeping of the plate which takes place when rubber blankets are used. For a time, Mr. Holmes printed a few pages in each issue until his readers became accustomed to it and began to ask for more, because the one-side braille issue could not contain so many words as the issue in New York point which was coming out in interlined print. It is fortunate, indeed, that he came into the work with just the untiring enthusiasm and experience to make the magazine the outstanding, popular one which it is today.

While Mr. Allen was away visiting European institutions in 1909 in search of new ideas for our school in Watertown, a meeting was called in New York City for the purpose of selecting the point system to be used by the pupils in the day classes for the blind that it was proposed to establish there. Mrs. Allen, who had been a Perkins teacher, headed our delegation which was invited by Miss Holt, now Mrs. Mather, to attend the hearing. To help the cause of American braille we had some graphic illustrations prepared to show how New York point, without capitals, braille with its capitals, and the New York point and the braille

alphabets would look in inkprint. I found a printer sufficiently interested and ingenious to set up the dot alphabets from various fonts of type. Later we had special type cast for us, which any ink-printer can set up without special instructions, as each piece of type, with the large dot and the tiny dot, is in the center of a six-point em. Setting up a graphic illustration of braille has proved puzzling to many, but it is comparatively simple if one remembers that printers base the size of their type on multiples of $1/72$ of an inch. Thus the six-point em is $6/72$ of an inch, or $83/1000$ of an inch, which more nearly corresponds with our .090 inch distance between dots than any other inkprint type. We have used this type in setting up cards, etc., for those who have use for them in publicity work. Anyone needing the type can buy it from the American Type Company. We have also given our permission to this company to supply anyone with the Boston Line Letter and with our "movable" braille types. They are employed principally for magazine title-pages.

In 1910, I examined for brailing the *Primer of Sanitation*. The letter-press edition was illustrated with magnified drawings of the skin, hair, sweat glands, germs, and various charts. Mr. Allen and I spent many hours in devising ways to show these diagrams so the finger would get something from them. As many of the lines were too irregular to make on our map-making machine we had to make them in another way. A drawing was first made, enlarged enough to enable the finger to take it in, then soft iron wire, .040 inches in diameter, was shaped to fit the lines of the diagram. The wire was secured to the diagram with glue. When all the lines had been so made, we placed over the diagram the brass plate that was to be our permanent printing plate. This was then run through the proof-press under heavy pressure. Soft solder was then run into the grooves on the under side of the plate to re-enforce the line, as otherwise the line so made would collapse in printing.

By this simple process and without the use of the regulation map-making machine, any resourceful teacher may make outline maps for immediate class use. If a stereotyping machine is not available, she can insert the braille letters by hand, using a nail set shaped like the usual stylus, and punching the dots directly on the plate with hammer, stylus, and braille slate.

In 1910, on urgent request, Mr. Reardon, assisted by the typewriter inventor previously mentioned, made the Boston braillewriter with improved paper feeder. He labored to the end of bringing out a machine which would not break down.

All this he succeeded in doing, but we discovered that people expect a braille typewriter to take paper in the same easy way as the ordinary typewriter, and this his machine was not designed to do. The extra operations required to feed the paper discouraged people from using it, and it is no longer made.

Systematic appliance-making by the Howe Memorial Press was started in 1916, both because book production was being cared for elsewhere, and because satisfactory appliance production was not. There was, and always will be, need to have such articles made with care and precision, out of the best materials, and without profit to the manufacturer. We also felt the need of introducing a little competition in the making of appliances for the blind. Our most important contribution was the Perkins braillewriter brought out in 1921. But with all our careful experimentation done by expensive machinists, we were forced to spend a great deal of money in the process.

After the visit to Europe of Mr. Irwin, Mr. Bramlette and myself in 1924, our Howe Memorial Press appliance department started experimenting at once to produce interpoint print, but not until April, 1926, did we present the first book to the public. We had much to do, for interpointing in this country is a little more difficult of accomplishment than elsewhere, because our dots are closer together. The size of our character was recommended by our Commission on Uniform Type after tests conducted by Mr. H. Randolph Latimer in 1920 on some hundreds of readers of all ages. These tests were constructed by Mr. Elwyn H. Fowler, who also constructed those used by the Uniform Type Committee which finally brought about the acceptance of the original braille as standard for our country, also.

Our first interpointed book was *Closed Doors*, printed on a platen press by the "hot-dry" method, on paper imported from England. Later we had paper made in this country which imitates this very closely. In adapting any press to print braille, we have kept ever in mind the small editions used in our book-work, to see that the time required to attach the plates was at the lowest minimum. Two double-plates can be removed and two new ones attached and made ready to print in two minutes on our platen press, the plates having previously been punched with registering holes. But America is not ready for "hot-dry" print. It must have wet print for its book-work, which means, in general, the use of cylinder

and rotary presses. It is true that a better impression can be made on a platen press than on any other kind, for the double plate is not cut apart; even so, by exact registration it is possible to produce acceptable print on any press. We now make use of one of our Cranston cylinder presses for our wet interpoint. This is a single revolution press, with a large bed, which can be used for any size plate. Two double plates take four minutes to change.

Recently, the National Braille Press, an organization formed by Mr. Francis B. Ierardi for the purpose of printing braille magazines while employing blind people almost wholly in the work, has installed two Miller High Speed presses for printing interpoint. With the inking device removed, and a few changes made, they have now been installed in the new industrial building recently erected by Perkins on the old site in South Boston. These Miller presses are of the two-revolution cylinder class, and will permit changes in the size of plate and in the braille type. Two double-plates are changed in less than four minutes. They are operated now at 3,500 impressions an hour, but when broken-in will do 5,500 an hour. Recently, fifteen runs of an edition of 1,125 copies of a monthly were run off in two and one-half hours. This included changing the plates, and changing the type high-plate holder-block for the Boston Line Letter title page, giving a net result of 3,375 impressions or 13,500 pages an hour for each machine. One operator, who must be a seeing man, can tend both machines, changing plates on one while the other is running. The presses have automatic paper-feed, and stop automatically when anything goes wrong. Dry paper only can be used.

Another feature incorporated in this machine is the creasing, during the printing, of a line on which the sheet may later be folded in the exact center. Almost every braille publisher will find that the printing cost is less than the folding cost, whenever the folding is carefully done for book-work. We are experimenting with creasing for our wet print, but this presents the obstacle of uneven drying of paper, so that the creasing will not always be exactly centered.

The reasons for the purchase of such speedy machines are reduction in the cost of printing, and the frequency and promptness with which the magazines can be placed in the hands of their readers. *The Weekly News* is primarily a current events one, half of the material being supplied by one of our national week-

lies, *The Outlook and Independent*, and half culled by the editor from various sources. By systematic, prompt and speedy work from all concerned, with the rapid printing done by these presses, Mr. Ierardi is able to place the magazine in the homes of its readers every Monday, or five days before the ink-printed *Outlook and Independent* appears on the newsstands.

Though we have advanced in printing notably since our visit abroad in 1924, we should still experiment in the direction of reducing the present comparatively large cost price of embossing books; and this, it would seem, could be best reached through a more rapid plate-maker, for it is still true that the cost of the plates looms up as our most expensive operation.

The history of our early attempts at interpointing at Overbrook, and Mr. Holmes' continuous production, has been cited in this paper as a matter of record, but Mr. Allen, Mr. Holmes, and all of us realize that to the American Foundation for the Blind must go the honor for shaking us from our lethargy, and urging us to produce interpoint print. All our braille presses are now doing more or less of it, and are imbued with a spirit of friendly rivalry in the effort to excel.

CO-OPERATION IN PRINTING FOR THE BLIND IN LATIN-AMERICA

ALEJANDRO MEZA

Secretary-General, Asociacion "Ignacio Trigueros"
Mexico City, Mexico

Generally speaking, the education of the blind in Latin-America is in a stage far less advanced than that in Europe, the United States or Canada. It is evident that, among other causes, the extreme scarcity of braille reading material in Spanish is responsible for such a condition. Fortunately, in a number of Spanish-American countries, however, work for the blind has already been initiated on a rational and scientific basis. Mexico, Colombia, Ecuador, Chile, Uruguay and, especially, the Argentine are giving visible signs of a better comprehension of the sightless, and some note deserves to be taken of the practical results they have obtained.

As a matter of fact, although work for the blind in Mexico is still in its infancy, there is an organization there actively engaged in the work, which is attempting to carry out its activities in a spirit of true co-operation and good understanding among the nations and, in some respects, to act specifically for the common interest of the Spanish-speaking blind. This organization is the Ignacio Trigueros Association.

It is undeniable that the marvel of the braille system opened a luminous path to those living in darkness, and created for them an immense source of spiritual light. This wonderful system of reading has facilitated enormously the education of those deprived of sight, and thus has contributed to the possible happiness of millions of human beings who have been victims of the most unjustifiable neglect throughout all ages of history, and who have been doomed to live in material and moral misery, isolated from the world by a barrier of miscomprehensions and prejudices.

It is beyond any doubt, also, that written literature is a primary element of all education and culture; and thus it was, therefore, that the Ignacio Trigueros Association realized the vital need for providing this necessity, first, for the blind of Mexico and, afterwards, for the blind of all other Spanish-speaking countries. Fortunately, the Department of Education of the Mexican

Government provided this Association with modern machinery for braille printing, and work was begun at once. In this matter, we considered it a concern of first importance to diffuse knowledge of the braille system among the blind of Mexico and, in general, of those of Latin-America.

Our Association possesses only small financial resources acquired through private donations collected monthly and by means of a subsidy from the Mexican Light and Power Company. Moreover, the big paper factory of San Rafael generously provides the Association with all the paper necessary for the production of braille books; and, thanks to this, our work in this line is being carried on under steady conditions.

Our Association maintains, to the extent of its economic possibilities, the braille press referred to above, and has undertaken the publication of the Spanish textbooks to be used in the teaching of the blind. This embossing plant is being operated regularly, and the *Readers* for the first and second grades have already been finished. These books, as well as some braille alphabet cards with ink-print explanatory pamphlets, are being distributed gratuitously on application throughout the Mexican Republic, and the material is furnished even to the National School for the Blind of Mexico City. Likewise, these books are being sent to Colombia, Ecuador, Chile, etc., wherever they are required.

In addition, there is a more important press operated by the Argentine Library for the Blind (*Biblioteca Argentina para Ciegos*) of Buenos Aires. This institution is carrying on the production of braille material on a large scale and, at the present time, the Library possesses a large number of literary works printed or transcribed by hand. These books are circulated among the blind of the different Spanish-American countries. In addition, this institution publishes a monthly braille periodical called *Hacia La Luz* which, in my opinion, is the best braille magazine being issued in Spanish at the present time. It is most gratifying to state that the fullest understanding and highest spirit of cooperation have always united the Argentine Library for the Blind, and the Ignacio Trigueros Association. It is to be hoped that, sooner or later, all Spanish-American countries will be included in this work of common interest.

Naturally, it is most desirable that this co-operation be extended to Spain where a great deal of printing is also being done, especially by the Catalanian Institute for the Blind (*Instituto Catalán para Ciegos*) of Barcelona, thus taking advantage of the benefits of a common language.

Lately, another feature has been added to this cultural movement; to wit, the new braille publication in Spanish, *Correo Braille Hispano-americano*, published by the American Braille Press of Paris. This indicates a most valuable co-operation, since more and more every day the American Braille Press is spreading its beneficial and forceful influence throughout the world.

Another factor of real importance is, on the other hand, the propaganda in behalf of the blind to awake in the seeing world a consistent interest in their education and betterment. To this end, three regular ink-print publications should be mentioned as especially devoted to the cause of the blind in Latin-America: namely, *Desde Las Sombras* (twice a month), organ of the Ignacio Trigueros Association, Mexico; *Irradiacion*, published by the Colombian Institute for the Blind (*Instituto Colombiano para Ciegos*), Bogotá; and the ink-print edition of *Hacia La Luz*, referred to above, published by the Argentine Library for the Blind, Buenos Aires. These publications are circulated among institutions and individuals in several countries.

To sum up, I present to the highest consideration of the cultured members of this Conference the following propositions:

(1) To intensify the co-operation already existing between Latin-American braille presses; and to endeavor, in the future, to attain the same co-operation with whatever institutions may come into existence.

(2) To endeavor, by all means possible, to establish at least one embossing plant in each country.

(3) After a conscientious and thorough study, to recommend the general adoption of a uniform system of contractions for Spanish braille.

(4) To ask the government of each nation to issue decrees establishing special reduced postal rates for braille literature in order to facilitate the exchange and circulation of such literature, not only internationally (as in this respect the said rates are already in force), but also in the circulation through the mails of each country in particular.

Let us use our powers to arrive at these ends, and let us have a clear vision for the future. The dawn of a new and happy era for the blind of the world has emerged!

WORK FOR THE BLIND IN JAPAN

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It seems to us that, in the past, the lot of the blind in Japan was rather a sad one, just as in any other country. Before our systems of education were well-regulated, and even since, the blind world was left far behind that of the seeing. So the blind have been able to receive a systematic education such as the seeing have, only in recent years; yet, with few exceptions, they have never been the objects of charity or beggars, though ever held as objects of pity like all other helpless beings among us; and especially have the Imperial Courts always bestowed some share of attention on their relief.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE WORK FOR THE WELFARE AND EDUCATION OF THE BLIND

Japan has experienced two great Renaissances, one called the "Renovation of Taikwa" when the country was opened to Chinese civilization 1,281 years ago, and the other designated the "Restoration of Meiji" at the beginning of contact with western culture and American institutions sixty years ago.

The former was merely Oriental, while the latter was world-wide and, although with each Renaissance the blind in our country engaged the attention of the people as a conspicuous element of society, an active interest in providing an education for the blind was chiefly aroused among some philanthropists, particularly during the Restoration of Meiji. It need scarcely be mentioned that it was influenced by the introduction of the humanitarianism, culture, and education which were then blooming in Europe and America.

The blind in Japan have been protected and trained, in one occupation or another, from time immemorial; and, as the result of many years of successful trial, massage, shampooing, acupuncture, and Japanese music—which consists of playing the *samisen*, *koto* and *biwa*, all string instruments—have been picked out as the most suitable occupations for the blind, and they are, even today, playing their parts. So, it is clear that, instead of being a burden to society, the blind have been well able to support themselves.

There were formerly two classes of blind in our country; one, the *Todo* by name, consisted of blind laymen; and the other, the *Moso*, of blind monks. Many government posts and ranks for the blind were established, officers were appointed and ranks conferred among the *Todo*, whose duty it was to look after the welfare of the blind throughout the country. Formerly, the chief officer was called *Kengyo* and the next in rank, *Sokengyo*. These officers, together with many *kengyo* and others, supervised all the blind of the *Todo* class. At first *kengyo* and *sokengyo*, the most honorable posts, and others, were won not only by ability in massage, acupuncture or music, but also by character; that is, character was an important factor for the qualifications of *kengyo* and *sokengyo*. But later, blind persons who had more or less ability offered some money to the *sokengyo*, according to the posts they wished; that is to say, they bought their posts with money, and the money the blind paid for the positions was divided among the officers as salaries. So, though sometimes capable blind men became officers, there were also many nominal officers. However, I dare say, that such a high position as that of *sokengyo*, could never be won without ability and character. This evil custom came from the immoral policy of certain blind men who wanted to feather their nests without working. Some of them were not only appointed to honorable posts and had high ranks conferred upon them, but also they made much money; and, at last, there were some who carried on the trade of money-lending to supply such people with funds with which to buy their positions.

At the same time the Government increased the tax which had long been levied throughout the country for the benefit of the blind, while a poor-rate was levied for the blind and they had only to pay a small fee to the guild of their own locality. Besides, the Government protected them in every possible way; for example, in those days when disputes arose between creditors and debtors, the judges used to favor the debtor, or the poorer side. But whenever a blind person was concerned in the dispute, the judges favored him, whether creditor or debtor. So far, they were cared for very well; the Government protected them as objects of pity and overlooked their evil deeds; but a few blind persons always took advantage of this protection and indulgence.

The essential occupations of the blind in the *Todo* class, in the past, were: to play the *biwa*, a kind of musical instrument; to recite a *sutra*; and to pray that heaven and earth might be eternal, the Imperial Throne last long, peace reign over the land and the country be safe—and for these prayers they were paid. But on

the other hand, many blind persons were opposed to such evil enterprises and some made the playing of *koto* and *samisen* their professions; others took up massage, shampooing and acupuncture; while a very few occupied themselves with literature.

These professions had originated in ancient times, but some blind persons, elaborating their arts, started new schools and transmitted them from generation to generation. For example, Yatsushashi Kengyo, Ikuta Kengyo, and Yamada Kengyo were the sponsors of *koto*; Ishimura Kengyo, of *samisen*; Yamase Kengyo and Sugiyama Kengyo, of acupuncture; Kosaka Kengyo, of massage; and Hanawa Sokengyo and others, of Japanese literature. Among others, Hanawa, especially—early blind—had such a retentive memory and extensive learning that he attained everlasting fame by compiling voluminous histories and other elaborate works amounting to nearly one thousand volumes.

The *Moso* class of blind monks was organized by the most famous Buddhist Kukwai. It belongs to the Tendai Sect of Buddhism and the blind monks made it their principal duty to play *biwa*, to travel here and there for study and to pray for the safety of the people in all seasons, and in the hottest period of summer, for alms.

As you see, though there were some defects and weak points in the work for the blind, most of the blind were trained with strict regulations in their guilds and did their best to elaborate their arts and to develop their character.

In the year 1870, a great change was made. The Government caught many new world-wide inspirations and, at the same time, finding our conventional systems to be irrational, abolished the posts of the blind officials, doing away altogether with the poor-rate and reliefs for them. This, cruel as it may appear, has been a great blessing in disguise; for, under the old regime, the blind were always objects of pity and indulgence and, in fact, were killed in the long run by too much kindness. Under present conditions, however, they are sympathized with and helped to help themselves, much to their improvement as useful members of society.

Long before education had assumed the aspect of a problem, socially-minded individuals and institutions had given some attention to industrial possibilities for the blind. In at least two important instances a solution, well in accord with the social development and prosperity of the people as a whole, had been found. These instances are those of the blind fortune-tellers of China and the blind masseurs of Japan. The latter demand our further

attention at this point because of two noteworthy aspects, namely, their training and the formation of a guild with virtual monopoly of massage. The blind people with us have made quite a class by themselves through monopoly of some occupations peculiar to them—such as, massage, acupuncture and, in particular, music—and up to very recently, none but the blind, with a few exceptions, were engaged in the above occupations.

Of late, however, seeing people have entered into the same arena as the blind and the competition is becoming, in consequence, a keen one. This is an unavoidable circumstance in our country, for, first of all, we have a large population with not enough jobs in proportion. With the introduction of western and American material civilization, our mode of living grew less simple and the competition for a living became more keen, so that some seeing people are now obliged to invade even the particular field of the blind. Thus, the blind in Japan, in the future, will have to stand shoulder to shoulder with the seeing in the competition for a living, and enjoy all the advantages of the seeing.

Massage as a means of maintaining good health is much older and better known in the Far East than in the Occident and is much more generally practiced at the present time in India, China, and Japan, than in the West. The special profession has grown up, with a technique all its own, empirical in origin but very thorough and very effective. More especially in Japan, but in a lesser degree in all the Far East, this technique is imparted by the apprentice system in a more or less well-defined guild; and in Japan this guild of masseurs has consisted largely of the blind. Their skill in the manipulation of muscles and joints is very great, and their services are, and have been, in almost universal demand. The guild of masseurs includes men and women who make their rounds, either early in the morning or late in the evening, their presence being heralded by blowing on a small whistle. Both this guild and a guild of fortune-tellers and musicians are very ancient, dating back to about 850 A. D. These facts hold with the past conditions more than with the present, and though we suggested the field of massage more emphatically, we have had a similar situation with music. Moreover, as we could not bring mere empirical arts into progressive harmony with present conditions, the blind have elaborated some sciences for massage, acupuncture and music. So now, to acquire a good knowledge of the sciences and arts of massage, acupuncture and music, pupils spend at least from four to seven years at the schools for the blind. It is also imperative for each such pupil to have received, prior to

and at the same time with, his course of massage, acupuncture, or music, a good general education as his background. As before stated, massage, acupuncture, and music are the most important vocations of the blind, though they no longer monopolize them. We, at present, cannot find any other better ones for them, and the best experts and the greatest people to be found in these subjects are the blind who have been studying them hardest and most systematically. Therefore, we put massage, acupuncture and music in the courses of study as vocational subjects together with literary subjects at the schools for the blind.

In Japan, we have already educated the blind systematically for fifty-four years; and though quite a few pupils have attended the schools, the evolution of their education does not parallel that of the seeing. The school laws for the blind which were issued by the Imperial Edict in 1923, compel every prefecture to establish one or more public schools for the blind within eight years of that date. In 1876, the first school for the blind and dumb was established in Kyoto privately under the name of the Kyoto *Mo-a-In* (Institute for the Blind and Dumb) by Mr. Tashiro Furukawa, pioneer in the education for the blind in our country. Soon after, it was followed by the Mohan *Mo-A-Gakko* (Model School for the Blind and Dumb) of Osaka in 1879, and the Kyoritsu *Kun-Mo-In* (Co-operative Institute for the Blind), now known as the Tokyo School for the Blind and under the direct control of the Government of Tokyo since 1880, and many others of different kinds established by public and private enterprise. There are, at present, one government, forty-one public and forty-eight private schools, making ninety in all, and containing about 4,069 pupils, in the aggregate. Most of the schools for the blind are organized together with those of the dumb and some are small. The Census of 1930 shows us that the number of children of school age is 2,652 and that only 352 of them attend the schools for the blind, that is, only one-tenth of the total number of blind children of school age (six to fourteen years); the others are all over age. According to the school laws for the blind, we have a kindergarten covering one year's work, an elementary department covering six years, and a high school department covering four years' work in every residential school. In the elementary department, following the work outlined for the public schools, only academic subjects are offered; the high school department has three courses—general, musical and massage-acupuncture. The general course is also academic and pre-vocational, and includes some branches from the public school

curriculum. The latter two courses are vocational. One-half the time for instruction is given to literary subjects and physical training and the other half to vocational training. In the instruction it is desired that the work given there be equivalent to, though not identical with, that given in the general education of the seeing, although the peculiar needs of blind pupils must be kept in mind. The distribution of subjects is as follows:

Kindergarten: Talk, intuition, handwork, singing, play, physical training.

Elementary Department: Morals, language, arithmetic, history, geography, science, handwork, handicraft (for girls), singing, physical training.

High School Department:

- a. General Course (Pre-vocational): Morals, language, foreign language, mathematics, history, geography, physics, chemistry, housekeeping, handicraft (for girls), singing, physical training.
- b. Music Course (Vocational): Morals, language, foreign language, history, geography, theory of music, practice of music, housekeeping, handicraft (for girls), singing, physical training.
- c. Massage-Acupuncture Course (Vocational): Morals, language, foreign language, mathematics, natural history, physics, chemistry, outline of medical science (anatomy, physiology, pathology, hygiene), acupuncture, moxibustion, housekeeping, handicraft (for girls), singing, physical training.

In the Tokyo School for the Blind, the training department for teachers is established, as well as the elementary and the high school departments, by the Government. Of course we get some teachers of the blind from general supply, but this department is the only one specially organized for that object and, in reality, has supplied most of the teachers to the schools for the blind all over the country. The department embraces two kinds of students, the seeing and the blind, taking different courses. The seeing are subdivided to take the general course and the western music course of one year each, respectively; while the blind are subdivided to take the music course (Japanese or western according to their wishes) and the massage-acupuncture course of three years for each. The courses in the training department are as follows:

1. For Seeing Pupils—

General Course: Morals, education, psychology, method of teaching, braille, ophthalmology, handwork, handicraft (for girls), singing, physical training.

Western Music Course: Morals, education, psychology, language, English, theory and practice of music, physical training.

2. For Blind Pupils—

Music Course: Morals, education, psychology, language, English, theory of music, practice of music (Japanese or western), housekeeping, handicraft (for girls), physical training.

Massage-Acupuncture Course: Morals, education, psychology, language, English, physics, chemistry, anatomy, physiology, pathology, hygiene, practice (massage, shampooing, acupuncture, moxibustion), housekeeping, handicraft (for girls), singing, physical training.

In the two music courses and the massage-acupuncture course, the same amount of time is allotted for both the literary and vocational subjects. And here we must add a few more words on the general education of the blind. The system is co-educational and residential, but some pupils may, upon the request of parents or guardians and with the approval of the principal, attend the schools as day pupils living at home or outside. We do not yet have compulsory education laws for the blind and, except for tuition and room, the expenses of their education are not paid. But the Government subsidizes every student in the training department for teachers, as in the similar organization it supports for teachers of the seeing. We cannot get more than one-tenth of the total number of blind children to receive the schooling they should, nor do we have many kindergartens as yet, though permitted to establish one by law. Partially-seeing children are instructed with the blind. The establishment of sight-saving classes is left for us as the problem of the future.

The seeing teachers from the training department teach literary subjects or western music, according to their preparation, in the elementary and the high school departments. To these courses are admitted those who possess the same qualifications as the teachers of elementary schools. The blind teachers who finish the music course or the massage-acupuncture course become the teachers of these respective subjects in the high school. These courses select their students from among the graduates of high schools for the blind. Such teachers, seeing and blind, are obliged to remain in the service of education designated by the Minister of the Educational Department, for the length of the term for which they were subsidized by the Government.

Thus, when blind pupils finish the courses of high schools for the vocations and those of the training department and are found

efficient in their own subjects, they can either accept posts in the schools for the blind or start business on their own account, getting licenses for teaching and businesses from the Government or the prefectures, with the exception of music as a means of living. Those who practice massage, shampooing, acupuncture and moxibustion are, as in the medical profession, daily receiving or visiting patients, as the case may be.

Massage, shampooing, acupuncture and moxibustion are also taught by private masters who take apprentices in cases where practices are decreasing year after year with the progress of the education of the blind. The years of apprenticeship range from three to seven, according to age and attainment. The apprentices receive no education but, on the other hand, get plenty of work to do, and their condition is no better than that of a day laborer. In the country, these poor apprentices, even today, are sent out each evening by their masters to herald their presence by shouting or blowing on a small whistle in the streets for patients. It is heartrending, indeed, to hear their melancholy cries in the dead of night, particularly of a cold winter night.

ORGANIZATION OF ADMINISTRATION

1. Official Set-up.

Central Organization: The Department of Home Affairs and the Department of Education are the departments of State responsible for the welfare of the blind. The latter deals with education under the Imperial Edict and administers the grants payable out of moneys voted by Parliament for the education of the blind. The Department of Home Affairs is the central department for all matters relating to the blind, but in both departments there is no special division or commission for the blind. Clearly, both can only lay down a general policy but must leave the handling of individual cases to the local authorities and to voluntary agencies. As yet, we have no Blind Persons Act, but only the Imperial Edict of 1925. Therefore, there is no definition of blindness and we are not able to determine the exact number of blind persons in Japan.

Local Authorities: The Imperial Edict of 1925 imposes on the local authorities the duty of making arrangements for promoting the welfare of blind persons ordinarily resident within their areas. These authorities cover forty-six prefectures. In nearly every case the local authorities delegate the actual work, or a portion of it, to the voluntary agencies working in their areas.

2. Voluntary Organizations.

There is a great variety of voluntary organizations for the welfare of the blind. The Central Association for the Welfare of the Blind is the center of many associations for the blind all over the country, connecting and co-ordinating them. It consists of two departments, one for welfare and the other for the prevention of blindness.

Associated with this central organization are many associations for the blind. These are mostly prefectual—the associations of the Prefectures of Niigata, Oeda, Hyogo, Iwate, Okayama, Kumamoto and Fukuoka are the leading ones and deal with welfare, prevention of blindness and printing. There is only one association for women; it is called the Yoko Association for Women.

PRINTING AND LIBRARIES

The printing houses number forty in all, although most of them are very small and have no grants paid by the Department of Education.

We have many periodicals. Among them are two braille newspapers which are most important and useful to our blind people; one is the *Osaka Daily Braille* and the other is the *Daily Oriental Braille Newspaper*. The editor of the former is Mr. K. Nakamura and that of the latter is Mr. R. Kimura. Both of these men are attending this World Conference for the Blind as the delegates from Japan.

We now have many libraries for the blind, some attached to the public libraries, and others as separate institutions.

PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS

Prevention is better than cure, and the best way of solving the problem of blindness is, wherever possible, to prevent its occurrence. We have no state laws and rulings relating to the prevention of blindness from babies' sore eyes, but the application of silver nitrate by midwives to prevent it has achieved much in the way of checking blindness in infancy. We have some special associations for the prevention of blindness, the Nippon Onkarwai, the Butsugen Kyokwai, the Clinic for Eye-Disease and the Okayama Prefectual Association for the Blind being the leaders. Local educational authorities are required, with the sanction of the Department of Education, to make arrangements for attending to the health of children educated in public elementary schools, and these arrangements invariably include provision for attending to the children's eyesight and to the prevention of trachoma.

CONCLUSION

As mentioned above, the blind of Japan have been rather active, self-supporting and independent and have received a real education through the clash and contact with things and social conditions as they are. Some have distinguished themselves in literary works and others have been very successful in music or otherwise. But, as a whole, their blessings differ from those of the seeing, and they cannot yet enjoy all the advantages the seeing have. What shall we do for them?

First, we shall have to give them thorough education in the particular branches in which they excel, those which they can do with their keen senses of hearing and touch, or with their concentrated minds; such as, music, massage, shampooing, acupuncture, moxibustion, religion, teaching, literature or law. For this purpose, we shall have to recognize their right to the same privileges that the seeing have in education, and give them, whenever possible, more education than the seeing are securing, in order to make up for the drawbacks caused by blindness, such as slowness in work, and to make them well capable of competing with the seeing.

Secondly, we shall have to help to introduce the blind to society as capable persons, in order to help to get rid of unjust prejudices concerning their ability to work hard and live well with the social background they secure.

Lastly, we shall have to pay great attention to their spiritual education and to let them catch the broadest viewpoint; for the blind are often in unfortunate and trying surroundings and are apt to be depressed or desperate and, sometimes, too easily affected or tempted by others due to their limited experience. Good education can help to make up for the loss of sight, and suitable and active work can help them forget it, but nothing can compensate for their misfortune as well as spiritual light and the blessing of God; not to mention the eternal benefit given thereby.

In a word, we shall have to give them all equal advantages with the seeing; not more, and never less.

THE BLIND IN ASIATIC COUNTRIES

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The subject of the blind in Asiatic Countries is, without doubt, a very large and important one, but as I only had about three weeks in which to prepare and write this paper I have been unable to give it the justice it demands. It was impossible to procure the fullest and most up-to-date data or even to verify that which was available, but I trust that I have been able to point out to the Conference some of the important problems with which we are confronted; and some of the crying needs of the millions of the blind who in their miserable, abject, indescribable poverty are sending out this appeal to the world in the sincere hope that some way may soon be opened for the amelioration of their pitiable distress.

This survey covers a large area of country, larger than that of the United States with Alaska and Canada, and supporting about a quarter of the inhabitants of the globe and nearly half of its blind population. The civilization of these countries, coming as it does out of hoary antiquity, is unique in itself and it is almost impossible to understand the customs, manner, religions and modes of thoughts of the people, even after long years of residence. East is East, West is West, and we who live here feel in a different world—a world which it is almost impossible to interpret, or for you to grasp the inner consciousness of to its fullest extent.

It will be interesting to try to obtain a little of the background of these wonderful countries which will help you to visualize the subject with more clarity and which, I trust, will enable you to obtain the key to the reasons why blindness is so prevalent and why so little is done for its prevention or for the welfare of those who are afflicted.

For hundreds of years the peoples of the East have lived their uneventful lives in their own way, unhindered or unhelped by extraneous influences. Owing to the congested population in many districts, the majority have been forced to live on the borderline of poverty and starvation. Famines, wars and pestilence have forced millions across the borderline and they have become lost in

the maelstrom of life. Education has been unheard of, except for a small fraction of the upper classes who control the reins of government, and who have taken but little notice of the masses, except to wring taxes from them and give them alms and charity in order to obtain merit for themselves in the world to come. These millions have, therefore, been left to their own devices and to sink or swim as fortune or bad luck smiled upon them. Ignorance, prejudice and superstition have been given full sway and this, coupled with the backwardness and apathy of the masses, gave disease and poverty such a strong foothold that the battle of life became a stern reality. Sanitation, health measures, and western medical science were unknown; and even had the simplest precautions been available, they would not have been used because of the trouble and expense involved.

The religious and superstitious beliefs also play an important part in the lives of these peoples. A person is blind or deformed because the gods will it so—a sort of retribution for the sins of past generations—and any help or assistance that would tend to ease his punishment is quite contrary to practice, beyond a few cents with which to keep the body alive and so prolong his suffering. For this reason, the blind are looked upon with pity, but ostracized from society and forced to become pariahs and parasites upon the community in which they live. Being fatalists to a certain extent, they make the best of it and suffer in solitary silence, dragging out their darkened, weary lives, a burden to themselves and to all around, until the grim Reaper relieves them of their misery. The idea that they might be taught in some useful way to earn their own living, never seems to have occurred to the native philanthropists. The Chinese have an old proverb "*Yien bu I bu Hsia*" which means "If you do not doctor your eyes you will not become blind"; hence any attempt at prevention was looked upon with distrust. Quacks of all kinds abound, of course, and their attempted cure is often worse than the disease.

The climate, customs and daily lives of the people play a great part in the cause of blindness. In India, the hot sun with its intense sunlight together with the sand and dust takes a large toll. In the northern part of China the stifling dust, with no proper chimneys for the exit of the intense smoke from insufficiently dried fuel, causes the eyes to smart painfully. In Japan the use of the *Hibachi* for heating purposes in small unventilated rooms causes great trouble from the charcoal fumes, and the practice of carrying babies strapped to the back in the intense sunlight with no protection weakens the eyes to a very considerable extent.

To this must be added the tremendous area of the countries, their high mountains, broad rivers and endless sandy plains. The lack of sufficient modern communications makes the distances enormous and tends to isolate parts of the country which become sufficient unto themselves. The advancement of knowledge and present-day civilization is, therefore, very slow and almost imperceptible.

The man of the street in the Orient does not work unless he has to and is perfectly content to live in idleness, provided he gets enough to keep him from starvation and his body reasonably warm. He usually lacks ambition and initiative and this apathy is extremely hard to overcome, especially in defectives who feel that the world owes them a living.

With the advent of Christian missionaries and philanthropists, work for the amelioration of these unfortunate people was begun. In 1850, Dr. Gutschlaff rescued six blind girls in Canton. Two were sent to Philadelphia, in America, where they remained in Overbrook until they died a few years ago. Four went to England, but only one returned to assist in organizing and carrying on the work for the blind in Ningpo, and she was unable to make much headway owing to her ignorance of the Chinese language and customs. In 1854, Mr Syle of the Church Missionary Society organized a charity for the blind with local funds in Shanghai, and started a small workshop; but it was not until about 1875 that work of a tangible nature was started. In Japan Dr. Buchardt interested four Japanese philanthropists in the cause of the blind and a society was organized. As a result Mr. Furukawa started the first school for the blind in Osaka in 1879, and in 1880 the Institution for the Blind in Tokyo was opened. With the assistance of the government and other philanthropists and missionaries the work has gone steadily on until now we see over eighty schools in Japan with over three thousand students, compulsory elementary education, and work provided for the adult blind. Special emphasis must be given to the work of Mr. Ishikawa who adapted the braille system to the Japanese Syllabary in 1890 and thus opened the way for education and printing; and to Mr. Machida, for nearly twenty years the revered superintendent of the Tokyo School and probably the most imposing figure in the education of the blind in Japan.

About the same time, Mr. Murray in Peking, China, was much distressed because nothing was done for the blind. In his work for the Bible Society of Scotland he traveled through the villages and small towns, and the condition of the blind seriously attracted his attention. The more he saw the more grievous did

it appear that absolutely nothing was done for them. He pleaded their cause among the various missionaries but failed to enlist their sympathies, as they were already overworked. Still, as he went about his task, mingling with the ever-changing crowd in the scorching summer and freezing winter, this thought was ever with him and, eventually, after eight long years he was able to devise a form of braille in which the four hundred and eight Chinese sounds were represented, by giving a number to each sound. Although this was a very cumbersome system and involved a tremendous task in memory to his first pupils, he persevered and before long had the extreme satisfaction of establishing the first school. The system attracted the attention of officials and missionaries, as well as friends in England; an endowment fund was raised and the education for the blind in China begun. Missionaries in various parts of the country became interested and similar schools were inaugurated, other systems of braille adopted and in 1927 there were no less than thirty-eight of these mission schools where over a thousand boys and girls were taught to read and write and do industrial work.

Unfortunately, during the past three years some of these schools have suffered rather severely owing to the civil wars and general unrest throughout the country. A few have had to close, owing to the lack of funds or the withdrawal of the missionaries in charge. Four were looted by the unruly mobs and everything of value destroyed. Braille manuscripts were torn and burned and apparatus wantonly chopped up or broken. In one school the forty or more blind girls fled to an attic room while the mob burned their braille books and slates in order that they might have sufficient light with which to carry on their work of plunder and destruction. Work of reorganization has now been started but it will be some time before the great loss can be made good. As all textbooks and other literature have to be copied laboriously by hand by the pupils themselves, the individual losses of these precious possessions are hard to realize. Notwithstanding these apparent discouragements, the work for the blind in China has made rapid progress during the past three years, more so than during any other previous period, and with the dawn of peace and the promised reorganization of education and other affairs by the government we trust that provision will be made for the blind, and their future assured.

In Korea, work for the blind was started by Dr. Rosetta Hall in 1894. The Korean language and the simple alphabet of King Sejong of four hundred and seventy-five years ago, was easily

represented by braille symbols, and Dr. Hall was able to teach the blind girls to read and write. There were many difficulties that presented themselves, all of which were finally overcome, but not without a tremendous will-power on her part. Two wars, the destruction of buildings by fire in 1906, the foreign language, the queer manners and customs of these people of the "hermit" kingdom, and many other trials hindered her. She carried on the work in connection with her hospital duties. She served as an instructor herself, sent students abroad to be trained as future teachers, compiled textbooks for the blind and improved the school to meet the ever-changing needs of the times. In 1914 her school had over forty students. When the Japanese took over the sovereignty of Korea the new government reorganized the whole system of education, and economic and other reforms were introduced so that now the blind and other defectives are taken care of as they are in Japan.

I understand that the work for the blind in India and Ceylon was also started by Christian missionaries some forty years ago. There are now over twenty schools in different parts of British India, the Native States and Ceylon. These schools were started against fearful odds and are being maintained only through the indomitable courage and perseverance of those in charge. The progress of these schools is only limited by available funds and workers. The government contributes towards their support but the greater part comes through local sources, mostly foreign, and from mission funds. As in China, there is an appalling amount of blindness, and prevention work is only in its infancy. The Blind Relief Association was organized by Mr. C. G. Henderson in 1919 as a result of his untiring efforts in their behalf for four years. Father Jackson in Burma and the Rev. W. G. Speight of the Church Missionary Society School of Palaam-cotta have done wonderful work as is outlined in their reports, and the schools near Colombo and Amritsar (Punjab) show the self-sacrifice of those who are giving their lives to this work.

All due praise must be given to these Christian pioneers and philanthropists for blazing the trail for the establishment of the work for the blind in these countries. Their indomitable courage, dogged perseverance, unswerving faith and their lives of self-sacrifice have been a great source of strength to those of us who are carrying on with the assured conviction that the time will soon come when the blind of Asia will come into their own and all of this unnecessary misery and embittered suffering will be a thing of the past.

It will be well worth our while to delve somewhat deeper into these problems that confront us and to try to discover some ways and means by which this Conference can become of inestimable value to the blind of Asia and a turning point, as it were, in their education and welfare. The following notes and statistics I have culled, partly from personal knowledge, and partly from available reports, pamphlets and articles. I feel that I owe an apology to those who have issued these reports for borrowing their words and ideas, but owing to the pressure of time I could not do otherwise.

JAPAN

Area: 147,534 square miles. *Blind population:* no definite records kept but probably about 60,000. *Estimated proportion:* one to every 900 persons.

Causes: Trachoma, venereal diseases, smallpox, and unhygienic methods of living in crowded districts. Trachoma is found in every locality but especially in industrial and mountainous districts.

Preventive Measures: Laws passed on trachoma, requiring medical inspection and proper hygienic methods in schools, factories, etc.; also requiring instruction and supervision of trachoma patients. A remarkable decrease seen in last few years. Hospitals and clinics available all over the country. Public educated through lectures, pamphlets and other publicity materials.

Provision for Education: Every prefecture has one or more schools for the blind. There are eighty-two schools in all, one government, twenty-eight public and fifty-three private, with 3,300 pupils.

Braille System in Printing: The Japanese Syllabary was adapted into braille by Mr. Ishikawa in 1890. Nearly every school has one or more small embossing machines for its own purposes, most of the braille books being printed in the printing houses for the blind at Osaka and Gifu.

Courses: Ordinary elementary education for six years, same as public school curriculum; high school education, four years, consisting of three courses: general (prevocational), music (vocational), massage, acupuncture (vocational). The usual course consists of half-time general and half-time vocational. Normal schools are conducted for seeing and blind people who wish to become teachers.

After Care: After graduation the blind either become teachers in schools for the blind or carry on a business of their own, a government license being necessary for massage work but not for

music. Those who practice massage, shampooing, acupuncture and moxibustion are, as in the medical profession, daily receiving or visiting patients. There are 36,590 people engaged in these occupations in Japan. The blind used to have a monopoly, but now there are over 30,000 sighted professionals which make competition very keen.

Other Vocations: There are no workshops for the blind in Japan, but in addition to the above-mentioned occupations the blind are engaged in straw work, bamboo work, straw-braid work and umbrella-making. Some are scholars, politicians; others fortune-tellers, teachers, clergymen, professional entertainers, musicians, koto players, printers in braille printing houses, and managers of employment agencies.

Provisions for Aged and Infirm: There are several societies for the blind in Japan who take entire charge of the needy blind. There are but few beggars and nearly all are able to earn their own living.

Thus, we see that the blind in Japan are all cared for. The children go to school; the blind masseur may be seen and heard all hours of the day as he passes through the streets on his way to work, or blows his shrill whistle to proclaim his arrival. They have, however, a long way to go before they will really come into their own. They need better education; less pity and more concrete sympathy; the same treatment accorded the blind as the seeing, as a fellow-being and not as a man apart; more joy and social pleasures for long lonely hours, and a little more spirituality for their better natures; and, finally, to be given their rightful place in society so that they may overcome the unjust prejudices against them and become happy, useful and respected subjects of the Emperor of the Island Kingdom.

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

Area: about 35,000 square miles. *Blind population:* unknown.

A school for the blind has been opened in Malacca in charge of the Colonial Chaplain, but there are no statistics at hand. In Singapore there is a hospital for paupers under the Senior Medical Officer where the blind are sent. Of the two hundred inmates, eighty are blind. When Mr. and Mrs. Mather passed through Singapore two years ago they made arrangements for work to be started among these blind. A graduate from the Institution for the Chinese Blind at Shanghai was appointed and has succeeded in a most satisfactory manner in teaching some of these men, who were apparent derelicts, to read and write and do some industrial work.

SIAM

Estimated area: 22,000 square miles. *Blind population:* no statistics available, or for any work among the blind. The *Welfare of the Blind* makes the following notes: "The Director General of the Health Department informs the Health Section that the number of the blind in the country is remarkably small. Small-pox and trachoma are the commonest causes of blindness among the population.

"Blind children are generally kept in their families. When they are orphans the local authorities find places for them in private institutions. Blind adults gain their living as musicians."

FORMOSA AND KOREA

Statistics for the blind in Formosa and Korea are not at the moment available, but as these places are under the protection of Japan it is to be presumed that the same systems in the education and welfare of the blind are followed here as in the mother-country.

I have not been able to procure any statistics for the blind in Annam, Cochin-China, Cambodia, Borneo or Asiatic Russia.

INDIA¹

Area: 1,773,168 square miles. *Blind population:* according to latest census (1921) 479,635, but estimated to be between 600,000 and 700,000. One report suggests that 1,500,000 would be more correct.

Causes of Blindness: Mr. C. G. Henderson, President of the Blind Relief Association, avers that the main causes of blindness are the physical conditions of the country itself—the general backwardness, apathy or ignorance of the population and the great lack of medical facilities. Nearly all blindness is preventable but it is, unfortunately, not prevented; a great deal of the existing blindness could be remedied, but no remedy is applied. There are thousands of totally blind persons in India who could obtain some measure of sight if they would submit to a surgical operation. But either they do not know this, or they consider the trouble and expense too great, or they are too apathetic to care much, not only for themselves but also for their unfortunate children.

Prevention: The chief agency is that of the Blind Relief Association. During the third year of its formation, 1922, it treated 66,785 persons with affected eyes. Space will not permit me to go into details but a perusal of their report is very illuminating. There are also many hospitals and clinics who do all

¹ See also discussions and paper on India pp. 477-480.

they can in their immediate vicinity. The question of prevention of blindness is one of the chief problems of the workers in India.

Provisions for Education: There are nearly twenty schools in India, but they are entirely inadequate and are woefully short of buildings, workers and finances. Hundreds are turned away.

Curriculum: The schools are mostly elementary, combined with suitable industrial work for the different districts.

Braille System: Systems of braille have been adapted to meet the different dialects but nearly all books have to be hand-written as printing presses are practically unknown. One or two institutions have small ones but they are entirely inadequate.

Workshops: There are no general provisions for workshops for the blind although one has just been started in Bombay. The question of caste is a serious one and almost insurmountable.

After-care: Practically nothing is done for adults, with the exception of the employment of a few workers in the industrial schools of the missions. They are unable to find employment after graduation, and often return to their homes to be exploited by their parents or to live in doubly-darkened misery. The little ray of hope that they had entertained makes their present darkness all the more severe.

CHINA

Area: 3,341,515 square miles. *The blind population:* unknown, but estimated between one and two million.

Causes of Blindness: Trachoma causes over half the blindness, affecting sixty to seventy per cent of the population in the northern provinces, forty to fifty per cent in the central, and twenty to thirty in the southern provinces. Smallpox, measles, and venereal diseases are also among the chief causes, while malnutrition, lack of proper hygiene and sanitation, ignorance, superstition, and general apathy among the middle and poorer classes are factors to be taken into serious consideration.

Prevention: No societies are in existence for the prevention of blindness. Two or three have been started from time to time but owing to lack of funds and lack of workers have unfortunately had to be disbanded. The various hospitals and clinics throughout the country treat thousands of cases each year. Investigations have been made in many schools and over fifty per cent of the pupils were found to have trachoma. In nearly every instance measures have been adopted for its eradication. Educational propaganda, lectures and distribution of leaflets, undertaken in various centers, are paving the way for work of a defi-

Condition: The condition of the blind in China is one that evokes the sympathy of the whole world. The abject poverty, the utter hopelessness, and the embittered loneliness is indescribable. About half are more or less cared for by their friends, relations or benevolent institutions. The other half are fortune-tellers, musicians, story-tellers or beggars, eking out their miserable existence as best they can. About a thousand fortunate ones are in schools founded by missionaries or private institutions. The blind are outcasts of society and are considered useless and unwanted defectives. The men manage to get along somehow but the lot of the women and girls is a very sad one.

Agencies for Relief: There are a number of Chinese benevolent societies that provide food and lodging to many needy blind. Missionaries and other societies have organized about forty schools and homes where about a thousand are cared for. A Braille Literature Society has been started to provide a small amount of Christian literature. A society is being organized by the blind themselves who have received education in existing institutions, which will be called the China Foundation for the Blind. It will be a year or so, however, before this organization functions, owing to the unsettled political conditions and lack of funds.

Schools for the Blind: There are about thirty-five schools that have been started during the past fifty years by foreign missionaries and a few by local Chinese officials and philanthropists. These schools are greatly hampered by lack of funds, nearly all of which have to be raised by local subscriptions through the energy of those in charge, and by the absolute lack of trained workers or suitable teachers. But a beginning has been made that may well serve as a nucleus for future work.

Courses of Study: An elementary education similar to that in the public schools for the seeing is given where practical and possible. Music—both foreign and Chinese, English, and industrial work are also taught in primary schools.

Higher Education: Several schools have junior high schools, but few pupils are capable of higher education as the mental intelligence of the large majority does not exceed that of fourteen years of age. Ten or more have graduated from high schools and universities for the seeing. They have all done well, and the spring of 1930 saw the first Chinese blind graduate to receive his B. A. degree. Higher education is certainly to be encouraged, especially in English, as there is scarcely any literature or reading matter in Chinese braille.

Braille Systems: The first braille system was invented by Mr. Murray of Peking about fifty years ago. It was very useful but cumbersome. Since then each school has adapted its own system to meet the requirements of over four hundred different dialects. There are now nine distinct systems but all these are used only in the teaching of the vernacular of these districts. The Union Mandarin System, invented by Miss Garland of the China Inland Mission, was revised and adopted by all of the leading schools and Bible Societies about twenty years ago. It is a system of eighteen initials and thirty-six finals and when used singly or in combinations, all of the 408 sounds of the Chinese language can be expressed. The Chinese system of writing is entirely for the eye and to transfer it to one for the ear is no easy matter. There are several hundred characters with the same sound, but with five different tones and by inserting these tone marks and other devices the braille is less ambiguous. Each of the four hundred or more dialects has its own pronunciation so that the Government is devising an official or universal dialect which is being taught in all the elementary seeing schools throughout the country. As soon as this is finally completed, and the correct syllabary determined, the Union System of braille will be used and understood all over China. All Scriptures and literature are now being embossed in this Union System and taught in nearly all the schools.

Braille Literature: With the exception of the Bible and a few text and reading books, there is no literature for the Chinese blind to read. A monthly magazine is issued but not more than two hundred blind persons in the whole of China can read it with any degree of understanding. How the blind are to be taught to read and write and have sufficient and suitable literature is one of the greatest problems confronting us.

Music: The fondness and appreciation of music, both English and Chinese, found amongst the blind of China is shown in the excellent work done in the institutions by the brass bands, the singing, organ and piano work and other musical activities, including use of their own native instruments.

Workshops: There are no workshops for the blind, with the exception of those in the mission institutions where rattan and wicker furniture and baskets, bamboo ware, matting, weaving, net-making and other industries are carried on on a paying basis. A student in China does not work with his hands and as soon as a boy learns to read and write he becomes a student and declines to work except as a last resort. There are, however, thousands

of blind men and women who would work if work were available. The need of establishing workshops and finding gainful occupations for graduates and all adult blind is a very serious problem. A few graduates have found employment as teachers, organists, evangelists, typists and masseurs, but these are the exception; and, until some way is open, and suitable employment is in sight, the schools will not be a means to a fuller life of independence.

Fortune-Telling: This occupation has been the main means of livelihood of thousands of blind men and women from time immemorial, but the Chinese Government has recently seen fit to put a ban on this so-called superstitious practice and has ordered that it be discontinued. Their schools have all been closed and within a year or so these thousands are to be deprived of their only means of obtaining the bare necessities of life. What is to be done with them?

Urgent Needs: The problems of the blind in China are certainly urgent ones. As there is no organized work for prevention, hundreds of Chinese men, women and children are becoming blind every year. Those that are already blind have no hope in life, no means of an education and no chance of earning an honest living. Surely the eyes of the Government must soon be opened to its duties and opportunities towards these unfortunate victims of circumstance and, in the near future, it must inaugurate ways and means for their relief and rehabilitation as respected citizens.

I have earnestly endeavored to bring before this Conference the pitiable and unenviable conditions of the blind in these Asiatic countries. What little is done for them and what little has so far been accomplished against overwhelming odds augurs well for the future. The lack of funds, the lack of trained teachers and helpers, the ignorance of the masses and even the nonchalance of the governments themselves are almost insurmountable odds with which we have to contend. But each and every worker for the blind, and even the blind themselves, are encouraged by the rays of hope expressed in the thought of the old Chinese proverb "*Pee Djih Tai Lai*"—noble desires are only attained through suffering. The ray of hope is deep and far-reaching, and I am returning to China confident that, through this Conference, the tide has turned in their favor and before it flows very far, worldwide activities will be set in motion that will put the welfare of the millions of helpless blind in Japan, India, China and other Asiatic countries on a par with the excellent activities that are being carried on for their welfare in the leading countries represented in this wonderful assembly before me.

DISCUSSION

MR. C. G. HENDERSON (INDIA): I would like to say a few words about the figures given for the blind in India. There is a slight confusion in the statement given by Mr. Fryer, and as I am responsible for the figures, I may perhaps be allowed to make the correction. The statement should read as follows: It is estimated that there are one and a half million totally blind persons, and in addition, some four and a half million persons partially blind.

Perhaps I may say how these figures have been estimated. Census figures are obviously and notoriously incomplete. In 1918 I had, in the district in which I was serving, a list of blind and partially blind persons made out in an area containing about 250,000 population; and then inspected and counted the totally blind. The Census had given one and a half per thousand. I found at least four and a half per thousand. The same thing was done in several districts, with the result that we found that where the count was taken, three, four, seven, and even nine per thousand of the population were totally blind as against the Census average of one and a half.

Totally blind, I may say, means totally blind, and not, as in Egypt, people unable to count figures at more than one meter's distance, but people absolutely without any sight at all.

Then as to the estimates of the partially-blind, an analysis of all patients attending the camps of the Blind Relief Association in 1927 and 1928 gave a ratio of three partially blind persons to every one totally blind. These camps are traveling hospitals which stay for a month or so at each place and carry out operations and treatments. These fifteen camps dealt with 12,000 patients. There were about 2,000 totally blind, of whom, by the way, 540 received some measure of sight as a result of operations and 5,284 are partially blind, or nearly blind people. The ratio of about two and a half or three partially blind to one totally blind was remarkably uniform wherever the analysis was taken. And this is a foundation for saying that if there are one and a half million totally blind persons in India, then there are probably about four and a half partially blind persons as well.

I would just like to quote regarding the extent of blindness in India, and therefore probably all over the East, and in that great belt of blindness extending from China to Morocco, and in many other tropical and sub-tropical countries—I would just like to quote Lieutenant-Colonel Elliot, formerly of India, and one of the best known surgeons who has ever worked in India. He says, "Large numbers of men and women suffering from trachoma, from cataract and from many other curable diseases, are allowed to hide in their villages like wounded animals, waiting only for their release by death." This is not an overdrawn picture. It is a statement of cold, hard, cruel facts, well known to anyone and everyone who has practiced or is practicing medicine in the East. That is the statement of Lieutenant-Colonel Elliot.

In Turkey, that is, Asiatic Turkey, I understand Dr. Alden Hoover, a medical missionary of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, said many years ago, "In Turkey, trachoma is so prevalent that there should be a clinic for treating it in every city of the country. The amount of defective vision and consequent inefficiency is incalculable. The prevention of blindness by the control of trachoma, gonorrhea and smallpox

would be one of the greatest blessings America could give to Turkey." The field for eye specialists, he says, is unlimited; so it is in India.

One more quotation about the East, from another very famous surgeon, namely, the late Dr. Ernest Fuchs of Vienna, who, speaking about Abyssinia, at the 1929 annual Conference of the New York National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, said, "I think there is a very wide field for a society which would extend the work over the borders of America and more or less throughout the world. I think that if something could be done in the South countries—and Abyssinia is only one instance—such as Turkestan, Afghanistan, and others, along the lines of work done in Egypt, establishing traveling hospitals—hospitals in tents which treat the people of native cities and stay there maybe for eight or ten months—it would be a great benefit to those countries."

Well that is what has been done with great success in Egypt, and what we are trying to do, on a comparatively small scale, because our funds are small, in India.

M. PAUL GUINOT (FRANCE): The reports presented this morning regarding the condition of the blind, in Italy on the one hand, and on the other in the various Latin-American countries, as well as in Asia and Japan, reveal a general condition which would require long hours to discuss. I have only three minutes; I shall say only three words.

My first word will be to remind you that in every country importance is attached to the social differences resulting from the degree of civilization. Wherever the spirit of charity has been the sole source of aid to the blind their social condition is not only mediocre but inferior.

My second word will be to observe that, on the contrary, in a country such as Italy for instance, thanks to the co-operation of the blind themselves and thanks to the direct intervention of the State, the social condition of the blind as well as their material comfort and welfare, has achieved a degree of improvement unknown in other countries.

My third word, therefore, will be to ask that all the blind throughout the world unite in a strong feeling of solidarity and co-operation, that they attempt to achieve a full co-operation and co-ordination of all the efforts made by themselves and by private initiative; that they unite and help each other in a feeling of national as well as international solidarity under the authority, in every country, of the State.

Only thus will the true emancipation of the blind be achieved, emancipation which cannot be conceived in the old spirit, in the spirit of former times when the blind were the protégés of their benefactors, of their patrons.

For us of the Federation of the Civilian Blind, it is out of the question to keep up this spirit. We feel that the time has come for the blind and for their friends to realize full collaboration, and I insist upon this word *collaboration*, because it will be, tomorrow, the subject of the report which I have been delegated to present before this Conference.

I should like to say a word in conclusion, convinced as I am that I interpret the feelings of all my blind comrades throughout the world. I should like to answer the touching appeal made in the name of the Chinese blind, whose most distressing situation has been revealed to this Conference. In the name of the Federation of the French Civilian Blind, I promise that we will do everything in our power to help the Chinese blind at the earliest possible moment. I promise—and I am convinced that I interpret here the

sentiment of the blind of the whole world—that, in a spontaneous feeling of fraternity, the condition of the blind of China and of the Asiatic countries will be improved.

MR. P. N. V. RAU (INDIA): I would like to give the general outline of work that has been done in India, and what is needed so that the life and lot of the blind become better.

It was in the year 1887 that a beginning was made in the North of India at Amritsar, the City of the Golden Temple, by the Church Missionary Society movement to teach Christian doctrine to Christian blind children.

The second attempt was made by the same mission when a school for the Christian blind was established in 1890 at Palamcottā, in the southern part of India. It seems to me that the mission intended to connect these two points, since they began work at different places in between these two principal cities, but it was not to be.

The next move was made by Rev. L. B. Shah, who in 1897 established a school and home for the blind at Calcutta, which was then the capital of the Government of India. The first school in an Indian state was established in 1901 by Mr. M. S. Rao at Mysore, the capital of the province of that name, and the latest advent was in Assam, in 1930.

India now has in all sixteen schools for the blind. Twelve of these are managed by their local committees, the remaining four schools being State ones. No two schools have a common management or common headquarters, as they are far from each other.

In 1915 I urged the necessity of a common platform for the workers of the blind in India, and the result was the formation in 1916 of the Indian Association of Workers for the Blind, with Mr. M. Srinivasa Rao as Chairman, Rev. L. B. Shah as Vice-Chairman, and myself as Honorary Secretary. The organ of the Association is *Light to the Blind*, an ink-print quarterly magazine.

It was the chance and privilege of the speaker to visit all the important institutions for the blind in India and submit a detailed memorandum to the Government of India, urging the immediate necessity of interest being taken in the matter by the Imperial Government. The result was that orders were passed in 1916, commending the suggestion to the consideration of the Provincial Governments and urging such support from their resources as might be possible when normal conditions were restored. But conditions seem not to be improving, and the Government seems to be waiting for better times.

The chief object of the Indian Association is to educate public opinion, and to remind the Government of its duty and responsibility to the blind who are no other than State children. Another important object of the Indian Association is to bring together the several teachers so that they may have a mutual understanding of the work inside the school.

Though every one of the teachers recognized the need and appreciated the effort, they could not meet at a place on account of the heavy expense involved in making long trips for the purpose. The one occasion when most of the teachers of the blind met was in 1923 at a meeting held at Bombay, called by Mr. W. C. Speight of Palamcottā. Several useful things were discussed and resolutions passed, but the financial and other difficulties are responsible for no further progress.

A new and definite move was made by Mr. C. G. Henderson, who has unostentatiously worked for the relief of blindness. He brought into being

an association called "The Blind Relief Association," the chief aim of which was to combat blindness. Prevention work is being done on a good scale in the Presidency of Bombay. The other parts of India have no organizations of the blind, though some little attention is apparent. Mr. Henderson, who is here today, has already given details of his work.

With this preliminary information regarding the attempts made in India for amelioration of the sad lot of the blind there, let me proceed to give you some statistics.

India is comprised of the British Provinces and the Indian States. The total population of the blind, according to the latest information supplied by Mr. Henderson, is estimated to be a million and a half; that is, roughly, a ratio of forty-five for every ten thousand of general population. The number of blind of school-going age is not less than 150,000 and for this vast number of children in India and Burma there are at present sixteen schools and homes giving education to about one thousand. It is thus seen that 149,000 blind children who ought to be in educational institutions are completely outside them. The adult blind, whose number far more, have no attention paid to them at all. They are left also to trade upon their blindness, a baneful industry of professional beggary, and to lead a life of complete dependency and degradation.

Will it do for us, the sighted of this World Conference, to continue to tolerate this unhappy lot of the million and a half blind of India? Their sad lot can and has to be improved gradually, if not immediately. We in India have found ourselves unable to give the blind man, woman and child their rights and privileges as human beings due to them under God's law.

The chief difficulties which are confronting the few workers for the blind have their source in the want of a correct understanding between the State and the people as to the share of their several duties and responsibilities for the blind. If this point is solved satisfactorily, I am sure that the lot of the blind will in due course be bettered.

I feel even now, as I have felt several times before, that what is wanted and what is necessary for India is: First, a more sympathetic attitude and liberal consideration of the claims of the blind on the part of the Central Government. I say liberal and not generous, for I do not mean that the blind are to go a-begging to secure their birth-rights due to them as human beings. Secondly, a strong and systematic propaganda for educating public opinion and for relieving ignorant parents and relatives of blind children of their erroneous ideas regarding accidents of blindness and doubts of practical relief.

I believe that I have placed before this Conference a brief summary of what is obtaining in India, and submit for the approval of this World Conference, my humble suggestion that, as the problems of the blind and blindness in India stand in need of real parental care, and the continued liberal support of the Government of India, it is necessary that the Central Government of India should take upon itself the problem of defectives until each of the provinces has established a sufficient number of schools. Further, the Government should add immediately a department for this purpose and proceed to appoint an advisory committee of proved workers for the blind, with authority to collect, assemble, and publish correct facts; to recommend their considered proposals for the kind approval of the Central Government; and to carry out further work for making the life and the lot of the blind more tolerable.

Briefly, the following are the important points for the consideration of the proposed Committee:

1. The absence of correct understanding of the problem;
2. The absence of correct division of responsibility between the State and the public;
3. The presence of distrust of Mission Institutions;
4. The absence of suitable curricula of studies under a common authority;
5. The absence of legislation to bring under its scope the care and education of the blind community on an equal basis with their more fortunate brethren with whom the blind have also equal rights.

I have not said anything about the education or work that is being done inside the schools, as my friend Mr. Shah will speak about it after me.

I conclude my remarks by quoting the words of Whyte Melville: "A man is born into this world to do a certain share of the world's work; to stop a gap in the world's fencing, to form a cog, however minute, in the world's machinery. The duty is to be got through, and none of us should shirk our share. Stick to your post like a Roman soldier."

MR. A. K. SHAH (INDIA): I would just like to say a few words to supplement the statement made by Mr. Rau, my friend.

Mr. Fryer in his paper has said that the schools in India are *mostly* elementary. He is quite correct, but this adverb in the English language covers a multitude of sins. They are surely mostly elementary, but some have passed that stage now.

In the school in Calcutta the ideal of giving a complete education and training to the pupils so as to fit them to be self-supporting members of the community has always been kept in view. The school curriculum includes physical education, general education in reading, writing and arithmetic, modeling, studying object lessons; in the secondary course, literature, English, history, geography, mathematics and handwriting.

Our students are being prepared for the matriculation examination of the university. In the music schools instruction is given both in vocal and instrumental music, and special attention is always paid to those who intend to follow music as a profession.

Technical education includes basket-weaving, loom weaving and knitting. We have also a normal class that instructs teachers in the latest methods for teaching the blind, and we are able to prepare teachers for certain schools in India.

Mr. Fryer also mentions about the working for finances. I know what we have been able to do in Calcutta will appeal to you in your countries, but if you will consider what we have had to do with you will be surprised at our efforts. We have a nominal fund given us which covers our expenses, and we have now buildings worth about 3,000,000 rupees (\$1,500,000), with accommodations for two hundred pupils and seventeen teachers.

With regard to our successes, I will just mention a few: One of our students after graduating in 1919 took up two subjects in English, and he is now the first blind graduate of the Calcutta University. Another took history and stood second and obtained a silver medal. He is now preparing for his Ph.D. Another lad has just appeared for his Ph.D. with honors in English. Our old pupils are engaged as English teachers or musicians, and some are doing very well in trade.

SECTION 5
SOCIAL SERVICES

April 17, 1931

CAUSES AND PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS

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The first thing to be done in order to solve a social problem in the most practical way is to get to the source of the evil which provokes that problem.

To instruct the blind, prepare them for life and create around them a helpful atmosphere for the development of their activities, is the ideal goal which has brought us here together, but as blind men our possibilities are very limited; reality sets insurmountable barriers and we can never change this order of things.

The prevention of blindness as the widest aim of philanthropy for the blind is, on the contrary, virgin ground for the development of activities in which the greatest benefit to humanity can be obtained, for here it is not a question of giving a certain limited social-economic value to a greater or lesser number of blind persons, but it opens up the much wider perspective of preventing enormous numbers of people from becoming blind and the continual increase of our already large army of comrades handicapped by blindness.

Actually, the majority of the diseases which cause blindness are preventable, either absolutely or relatively, (in Malaga 77 per cent of the blind ought not to be so) and, therefore, the first right of a blind person is *not to be blind*.

Considering that blindness is a problem of health of far greater importance numerically than that of consumption or cancer, as I shall demonstrate later in a special study of one single cause of blindness, it is astounding that until a short time ago its problems did not occupy the national conscience of even the most advanced countries. This was so, in spite of the fact that ophthalmological science and public hygiene possess splendid means for fighting the spread of ocular diseases without the need of great research, whereas, in regard to the two above-mentioned scourges of mankind, the question is far more complicated and obscure.

At the present moment, ophthalmia neonatorum and the blennorrhagic conjunctivitis of the adult, acute contagious con-

junctivitis, neglected myopias, industrial and agricultural accidents, syphilitic ocular diseases, trachoma, scrofulous ophthalmia, etc., are diseases which produce the greatest number of blind persons; but, by using special technique, the general precepts of public and private hygiene, and with the aid of other health activities, they not only ought not to cause blindness, but such cases ought not even to be found in the eye clinics, except in rare instances .

Since a general study of the causes of blindness is in no way applicable to all countries, because the said causes vary greatly in intensity, extent and effect, I am going to give, as a starting point for the development of my theme, a rough outline of the number of blind persons, of causes of blindness and of the prevention of these causes, which knowledge I have been able to acquire in my sphere of action.

This information is important because it is based on my personal experience as an ophthalmologist in Malaga where, during my eleven years' practice, I dealt with 28,473 patients. Insofar as the development of ocular contagious diseases is concerned, Malaga may be classed as intermediate between China, India or Egypt and other countries smaller in size and population (though I sincerely believe that in this instance lack of education is not the chief factor). Also, the region may serve as the base line for an approximate valuation of the world country by country.

PRIVATE STATISTICS OF BLIND PERSONS AND CAUSES OF BLINDNESS

According to the census taken by myself in 1930, there are 874 blind persons in the province of Malaga, not counting those with visual defects; that is, one blind person to every 689 inhabitants. The total number of blind persons is much larger and I believe that the real figure cannot be known until there is some stimulus, like that of pensions, which will probably increase the number by more than one-half more.

As it is impossible to have every blind person examined by specialists, I limited my investigation of the causes to one hundred blind persons taken at random (while waiting for an answer to an individual list of questions sent to the doctors) and found the following proportions, starting with the highest:

1. Keratitis, 22 per cent.
2. Trachoma, 20 per cent.
3. Optic atrophy from syphilis, 13 per cent.
4. Ophthalmia neonatorum, 12 per cent.
5. Adult blennorrhagic conjunctivitis, 5 per cent.

6. Glaucoma, 4 per cent.
7. Smallpox, 3 per cent.
8. Surgical infections, 3 per cent.
9. Microphthalmia, 3 per cent.
10. Infantile glaucoma, 3 per cent.
11. Sympathetic ophthalmia, 2 per cent.
12. Retinal detachment, 2 per cent.
13. Diphtheria, 1 per cent.
14. Pigmentary retinitis, 1 per cent.
15. Optic atrophy, from pneumonia, 1 per cent.
16. Optic atrophy, from alcoholism, 1 per cent.
17. Optic atrophy (from Leber's disease), 1 per cent.
18. Optic atrophy, unknown, 1 per cent.
19. Atrophical irido-cyclitis from syphilis, 1 per cent.
20. Congenital cataract, 1 per cent.

Of these one hundred persons examined, the blindness of 7 per cent was due to congenital diseases (microphthalmia, infantile glaucoma and cataract) and of 93 per cent to acquired diseases. Of these persons 53 were males, 47 females; 17 were under sixteen years of age, 33 between the ages of sixteen and forty, and 50 between forty and eighty years of age.

From the preventable point of view and without entering into technical details, 26 per cent of the cases would have been absolutely preventable (ophthalmia neonatorum, adult blennorrhagic ophthalmia, smallpox, surgical infections, alcoholic optic atrophy, sympathetic ophthalmia); 51 per cent relatively preventable (trachoma, syphilis, diphtheria, phlyctenular keratitis, complications during the course of measles and infections, and traumatic keratitis) bearing in mind that those blinded by syphilis or diphtheria became so at an earlier period when the preventive measures employed nowadays were not known; and finally 23 per cent were due to inevitable diseases and unknown causes, although to a certain extent congenital diseases can be considered as resulting from hereditary syphilis.

Keratitis

Inflammation of the cornea with resultant destruction or total porcellaneous scar formation and degenerative injuries (when by emptying the contents of the eye, it is not ocular atrophy which subsists), is the most frequent cause of blindness, being either due to external infection, as in the case of acute contagious conjunctivitis so common along the Mediterranean Coast and in Asia, or to infections superadded to slight injuries of the conjunctiva and

the cornea (phlyctenular kerato-conjunctivitis originating in scrofula, rickets, etc.).

Any loss of substance of the cornea—whether caused by injurious agents, however trifling (such as particles of coal, scratching of an inverted eyelash, or slight traumatisms), which produce a small erosion of the cornea's surface, or by infection carried to the eye by fingers (always infected), handkerchiefs, etc., thereby producing a small ulceration which is as a rule infected—this loss of infected substance, even in the most favorable case, leaves behind it a scar or small corneal spots which may impair the sight.

The cornea is a tissue without vessels and without blood (hence its transparency) and it defends itself very badly against attacks of the microbes which always abound in its vicinity. It is only protected by a film or epithelium, by the mechanical action of shedding tears and blinking eyelids, by the bactericidal action of certain enzymes contained in the tears and, above all, by the extreme sensitiveness with which its surface is endowed.

Apart from the fact that all of the cornea can be affected by diseases, especially by hereditary syphilis, which leaves indelible injuries after the parenchymatous keratitis is cured, other diseases such as scrofula, pre-tubercular states or actual tuberculosis, also leave small elevations on the surface of the cornea. These small elevations ulcerate and become easily infected, as in the case of any small traumatism, either by agents carried by the fingers of the young patients (to whom this disease belongs almost exclusively) or by their bad state of health or lack of hygiene; thus all kinds of infections are facilitated, which destroy the cornea entirely. Similar cases occur during measles, which is often accompanied by an oculo-nasal catarrh, and cause many children to be blinded in the same way.

Another very frequent cause of blindness from keratitis is due to the inflammation and consequent infection of the excreting tear ducts, which carry the tears from the internal angle of the eye to the corresponding nasal cavity. First, the tear sac is frequently infected, causing dacryocystitis which does not allow the tears to pass and infects the corneo-conjunctival cavity continually. Thus the smallest traumatism, the slightest corneal disease is extraordinarily aggravated. This is the most frequent cause of partial or total loss of sight. Both in agricultural and in industrial work, this is the cause of the loss of many eyes annually and, as this cause of blindness has heretofore received little notice, I wish to call attention to it and to emphasize its importance.

The obstruction and consequent infection of the tear duct, which is so dangerous that it can be compared to a loaded and cocked firearm, always begins with epiphora, or continual shedding of tears, and its cause is generally of nasal origin—a matter of great importance, also, because only at the beginning is it possible to avoid future danger to the eye.

I have indicated the most frequent causes of corneal inflammation which, when added to other infections, produce blindness, but every year thousands and thousands and perhaps millions of individuals in different parts of the globe suffer from an epidemic eye disease which in Malaga causes 7 per cent of blindness, its existence being closely connected with the spread of trachoma. I should like to occupy myself with this disease for a few minutes. It is the acute contagious conjunctivitis (*Koch-Weeks bacillus*) which I do not hesitate to include among the keratiti, for its danger lies in that the cornea ulcerates, or in that it affects a patient already suffering from corneal trouble.

Acute contagious conjunctivitis visits this part of the world annually at the beginning of summer, and reaches its maximum in September-October. This being the season of the pomegranate, the common people, since the times of the Arabs, have termed it "blindness of the pomegranate." It spreads like a spot of oil and finishes about the end of December or January.

This conjunctivitis is very virulent and for this reason is very contagious, infecting everything that the patient touches and extending rapidly among families and neighbors. It is, therefore, more frequent among poor people who live crowded together or in very populous suburbs. If taken in time and treated properly (by bathing the eyes with antiseptics and painting the everted eyelids with a 2 per cent solution of nitrate of silver), it recedes immediately and can be cured in five to ten days; but, on the other hand, if neglected it often causes corneal injuries and, I repeat, is always serious when it affects an individual suffering from ulceration or corneal erosion.

This disease has the same characteristics in all very trachomatous regions, such as the Mediterranean and Asiatic coasts, sandy regions, or those with little vegetation. It is closely connected with the diffusion of trachoma and it is curious to note that all oculists who practice in very trachomatous parts, in contrast to those who practice in parts with little trachoma, consider it much more important for the Anti-Trachoma League to fight against this acute contagious conjunctivitis and against all virulent conjunctivitis (of pneumococcus, influenza bacillus, etc.) than

to fight against pure trachoma; because it is a fact, which I have pointed out, that in very trachomatous parts an increase in the number of trachoma cases is rarely observed if not coinciding with one of these epidemics of acute, contagious conjunctivitis.

Trachoma

Granular conjunctivitis or trachoma is a very serious ocular disease, frequently mistaken, in regions where trachoma is rare, for follicular conjunctivitis of little importance and which, in its different stages, (granulation, scar formation and palpebral retraction with trichiasis or deviation of the eyelashes towards the eye entropion, conjunctival adhesions and xerosis, intermediate stages of pannus, corneal and cicatricial ulcers) generally lasts as long as the patient lives, its development being retarded by suitable treatment which is, however, never infallible. Practically speaking, the disease is contagious in its first stages.

The importance of this ocular disease, therefore, is extraordinary and even alarming when it is realized that it is most frequent among the very poor; that no country is immune although the number of victims varies greatly; and that it can be calculated that in the whole world probably more than 100,000,000 trachoma patients exist, as it is an illness which causes blindness in more than 15 to 30 per cent of cases, and which always, even in those cases which coincide with better individual hygiene, forms a handicap for work for long periods of time or for life.

This real ocular scourge is found most commonly (from 10 to 15 per cent up to 80 per cent and more) all along the Mediterranean Coast, the coasts of the Caspian Sea and Black Sea, and the Asiatic and African coast. It is also frequent in marshy and sandy regions, and without doubt, in its highest percentages, it is connected with the condition of the soil, prevailing winds, scarcity of rain and sandstorms—things which predispose people to suffer all kinds of conjunctivitis.

Its etiological origin is still being discussed but without doubt dirt and penury are the causes which favor its transmission. Since the control of trachoma lies in prophylaxis rather than in curing patients, which is all that it has been possible to do until now, attention must be directed towards bettering the conditions of living of the social class in which it develops. It is evident that (if an infallible or etiological treatment does not happen to be discovered) what little immediate efficiency any anti-trachomatous campaign can have, must occur in the highly infected regions.

Nevertheless, my own opinion, founded on the observation of 4,479 trachoma patients (a fourth of the granular patients of

the region) and on the observation of the conditions under which this disease develops, (very different from those in the parts with little trachoma where less than 10 per cent of the total number of eye patients are trachomatous), is that the contagion from man to man (handkerchiefs, towels, etc.) does not form the only source of origin and diffusion of the disease; but that also there exists, *must* exist, another source of origin which regulates its diffusion, and I believe that the germ of trachoma has an evolutive cycle apart from the human conjunctiva, and also a maritime cycle, and that investigations ought to be followed in this direction.

Conjunctivitis of the new-born and blennorrhagia of the adult

Ophthalmia neonatorum depends, as everyone knows, on the gonococcal infection of the vagina through which the foetus has to pass at the moment of birth and at which moment the eyes of the new-born child are contaminated. It is true that eyes of the new-born child can be infected by the persons who take immediate care of it (but this is an exception) and it is also true that ophthalmia is not always of gonococcal origin.

Nevertheless, because gonococcal ophthalmia is very serious if the cornea is affected, and since the Credé method or prophylaxis of the said disease is really infallible (instillation of two drops of solution of nitrate of silver at 2 per cent, or argyrol or protosil at 15 per cent during the first five or six days after birth), every case of ophthalmia neonatorum ought, for the purposes of prevention, to be considered as gonococcal until the contrary has been proved.

In Malaga, since 1918, when I succeeded in establishing the prophylaxis method systematically in the maternity wards of the hospital, not a single case of ophthalmia neonatorum has been observed among 12,422 births.

In consequence of the systematic work carried on there (Dr. Galvez Ginachero's clinic), and of the campaigns in the press, the lectures to midwives and my ophthalmological clinics, it has entered into the consciousness of poor and rich alike to such an extent that there are few mothers who do not know that some drops must be instilled into the eyes of every new-born child. This is proved by the fact that in my last years of professional practice and according to the opinion of oculists now practicing, it is quite exceptional today to observe a case of ophthalmia neonatorum and, moreover, no new client of less than ten years of age, blind from this cause, has appeared at my Institute.

The blennorrhagic conjunctivitis of the adult, still more serious than ophthalmia neonatorum, is due to the patient touching

his eyes with his fingers when they have become infected with urethral secretion.

This serious disease is nearly always unilateral and it is the pus of one eye which infects the other. For this reason, it is urgent to separate the not-yet-infected eye by a watch glass, fixed to the skin with court plaster, etc.—a device by which I have been able to save from blindness various patients suffering from this cause.

As in the case of syphilis, the real work of prevention from these diseases depends upon the activities developed in the fight against the venereal diseases, which are gradually obtaining very satisfactory results. In Malaga, the manifold efforts of the anti-venereal dispensaries are having effect and new cases of infection by syphilis are becoming rare.

It is easily understood, nevertheless, that in many cases the real victory of the anti-venereal campaign lies in the pre-nuptial medical certificate which, it is to be hoped, will some day be accepted by the health conscience of all countries, considering the great progress which eugenics promises; but it is well to remember that venereal diseases can also be avoided by the immediate use of calomelaneous ointment (30 per cent strength).

Smallpox and diphtheria

In former days smallpox caused much blindness in this country but as a result of the intense and widely extended health campaign which was started some ten years ago smallpox cases are now rarely seen.

Diphtherial conjunctivitis is exceptional and I have only had occasion to observe two cases in more than 28,000 eye patients; but in any case, smallpox and diphtheria are illnesses which will disappear some day from civilized countries by the obligatory application of the respective vaccines (in the first year of life) which prevent the development of the above-mentioned diseases.

Syphilis

Neglected or badly treated syphilis is responsible in my statistics for at least 14 per cent of blindness and it should be emphasized that the inflammation of the optic nerve is usually very insidious, sight diminishing so gradually that the patient generally attributes it to very different causes and the case reaches the oculist's hand as a state of atrophy of the optic nerve which has no remedy.

The seemingly mild syphilis, being hardly noticeable at the beginning, is the most serious, paradoxically, because it is gen-

erally neglected, and this kind of syphilis, therefore, is generally that which causes all the syphilitic injuries of the nervous system.

This being the rule, apart from the fact of its immediate transmissibility to the descendants, at the present stage of the anti-syphilis campaign it should be repeated insistently that every syphilitic patient ought to be under a doctor's care and that this is the patient's first social duty.

Surgical infections, sympathetic ophthalmia and industrial accidents

I am forming one group of these, because the blindness, in a last analysis, is caused by a traumatism. These will, it is to be hoped, eventually become exceptional causes of blindness as a result of progress in ophthalmological and industrial techniques and, above all, of the application of their precepts.

The progress made in surgical asepsis and the preparation and study of the patient which ought to precede every operation, should prevent all post-operation infection nowadays. Such infection is often due to neglect owing to the difficulty of verifying the bacteriological condition of the ocular annexes, or to special conditions such as diabetes or hyperglucemic states which favor and aggravate every infection.

Practically every surgical or incidental traumatism of the ciliar region followed by infection can cause loss of sight of the other eye. This is avoided by enucleating the injured eye in time.

Though not an exception, sympathetic ophthalmia is not frequent, but every traumatized eye ought to be observed during the first few days and it must not be forgotten that it is within the first fortnight after the accident that the enucleation of the injured eye must take place because, once trouble has begun in the sound eye, taking out the injured eye will not cure it.

In the United States, industrial accidents today constitute 15 per cent of the causes of blindness. Industrial accidents, however, have been greatly reduced by the magnificent work of the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness which is described in the book *Eye Hazards in Industrial Occupations*, an ample summary of which I have made known in Spain and which constitutes the Bible of the prevention of blindness from industrial accidents.

It is impossible to summarize here its teachings, but I can only say that by modifying industrial technique, protecting the dangerous parts of the machines, protecting the workmen's eyes by goggles or helmets especially designed for each risk to the eyes according to the Code of Industrial Safety, correcting the ocular defects of the workmen, and by avoiding dazzling and bad

effects of illumination, etc., 50 per cent of accidents have been avoided. It should be realized, moreover, that there is no trade which is free from accidents. In the State of Pennsylvania alone, compensation for loss of eyes constitutes more than 40 per cent of the sum total given for permanent injuries.

Glaucoma

This forms 4 per cent of blindness in my statistics; (the prevalence of other causes of blindness in relation to other countries lowers it proportionally). For a lay audience, I must explain that is only an increase of ocular tension. The eye becomes hard, but this hardness at the beginning generally appears without any discomfort and can only be recognized by an oculist.

The importance of knowing about the existence of glaucoma as a cause of blindness lies in the fact that the patient only becomes aware of it when his sight has diminished considerably, believing this due to the need for changing his glasses. He is afterwards very disagreeably surprised when he goes to an oculist to find that his disease, which if treated at the beginning could have been retarded, is now incurable.

This disease, peculiar to persons of middle and pre-senile age, is usually co-incident with syphilitic arteries, arterial hypertension and diseases of the kidney. To ensure treatment in its earliest stages, no better advice can be given than to go immediately to an oculist at the slightest trouble with the eyes or continued pain in the head.

Defects of refraction

Of myopia, hypermetropia, astigmatism and presbyopia in connection with blindness, I am going to say little here which is not already generally known; namely, that nobody knows, without having his sight previously tested and its defects corrected, what he *ought to see*, or *what he can see*; and that from the school age upwards, everybody ought to know what sight he has, what kind of glasses he ought to wear and what modifications his sight will undergo.

Although myopia, especially the malign or progressive kind which seems to have hereditary syphilis as its substratum, is the most serious of all the defects of refraction (it should be called disease, not defect) and is the one which causes more blindness and semi-blindness (either from the choroido-retinian injuries of inflammatory nature which it produces and which, being anatomical injuries cannot be made to recede, or from the detachment of the retina which it produces—detachments which until recently were incurable)—the other defects of refraction ought to occupy

our attention as well, even if only to be pointed out as frequent causes of semi-blindness.

The importance of treating the defects of refraction properly and in time lies rather in diminishing as far as possible the visual deficiency which they cause and which has an immediate effect on the quality and amount of useful work produced by the individual, than in the blindness of which they might be the direct cause; except, as in cases of myopia, where there is possible and immediate danger to the sight.

Apart from medical inspection in schools, one of the greatest benefits to humanity is the sight-saving classes, the development of which has had an extraordinary influence in improving the future situation of short-sighted children—those affected by congenital ocular deformations (which are almost always of hereditary syphilitic origin) or by irregular astigmatisms caused by different kinds of keratitis—phlyctenular, parenchymatous, etc. It is to be hoped that these special classes will be extended all over the world and that the eyesight of the children attending them can perhaps be improved by contact glasses, a recent conquest of physical optics which will fill a void in physio-pathological optics.

Having cast a rapid glance over the most frequent causes of blindness in those countries with the largest blind populations, causes which vary in intensity according to the country from which they proceed, I believe that a study of the *topography* of blindness, i. e., the proportion of the blind in certain areas and the causes of their blindness, is going to open up new and wide horizons of great value to greater progress in the prevention of blindness.

Prevention of blindness

As the majority of the diseases which cause or can cause blindness are preventable, either absolutely, almost absolutely or relatively, as I have shown, it is very urgent to establish national agencies in all countries, similar to those of the American National Society for the Prevention of Blindness which would spread abroad the obvious fact that blindness, in the majority of cases is due to ignorance or to the bad hygienic conditions under which the patients live.

Every association which is created for this purpose, whether national or international, will have to co-operate with other similar health activities (such as the anti-venereal, anti-syphilitic, anti-tubercular societies and others dealing with urban and rural hygiene), for many of the problems intimately connected with the prevention of blindness are very complex and more depends on public than on private hygiene, and their solution is closely re-

lated to the social well-being, the culture and the number of health activities.

The International Association for the Prevention of Blindness (*L'Association Internationale de Prophylaxie de la Cécité*) founded at Amsterdam in September, 1929, during the celebration of the thirteenth International Congress of Ophthalmology, an association founded with the help of the League of Red Cross Societies and the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, and at whose advent I was present, represents an important hope in this respect. It should be enthusiastically supported by every state and by every health and other activity connected with the blind, for, as the first right of every blind person is not to be blind, this hygiene-promotion work is the most far-reaching of all work which tries to solve the problem of the blind.

SUMMARY

As a resumé of the private study which I have sketched of the causes of blindness, and the means of preventing them, I consider it advisable to express here what *every person ought to do in order to avoid the eye diseases which cause or can cause blindness*:

1. From the moment of birth, to prevent ophthalmia neonatorum, during the first five days instil two drops of a 2 per cent solution of nitrate of silver in the baby's eyes—or two drops of a 15 per cent solution of argyrol or protosil in every case without exception.

2. From the sixth month after birth, because up to this age there is a certain natural immunity, vaccinate for smallpox.

3. From the tenth month, because up to this age there is a certain natural immunity, give the infant three to four injections of Ramón's anti-toxin (anti-diphtherial vaccine, also innocuous).

4. If the family doctor recommends it, vaccinate the child for tuberculosis within the first year.

5. Take care of the child's eyes during the course of eruptive fevers (measles, scarlet fever, etc.), consulting the oculist at the slightest discomfort. Avoid all danger of superadded infection by scrupulous cleanliness and by application of a 4 per cent boric acid ointment, or the instillation of a 10 per cent solution of argyrol.

6. Be very careful of any traumatism of the eye, however slight it may be; never touch your eyes with dirty hands or handkerchiefs; in case of injury, apply boric acid ointment, bandage the eye, and go to the oculist immediately.

7. Do not neglect the beginning of any lacrimal trouble, which is almost always due to inflammation of the lacrimal duct and produces an obstruction later on almost incurable and dangerous; consult your oculist from the first day.

8. When the child begins to go to school, have his sight tested, his binocular sight exercised and any strabism treated. This is an essential duty of the parents.

9. Every person should have an oculist's statement that he does not need spectacles, and an oculist should be always consulted in any case of continued headaches, reddened eyes or edges of the eyelids, eyes which itch after work, or when the lights at a distance seem rainbow-hued or haloed.

10. Whether or no spectacles be used, when a person arrives at the age of forty-five or forty-six years, he ought to see an oculist, because it is at this age when spectacles begin to be needed for work near to the eye.

11. Syphilis and blennorrhagia are preventable diseases, but it must never be forgotten that the first duty of every syphilitic patient is to be under a doctor's care all his life and that of every blennorrhagic patient never to forget that the slightest neglect may make him blind and also those around him.

12. All agricultural and industrial work is dangerous for the eyes and danger is only avoided by utilizing the means prescribed by the Code of Industrial Safety, modifying and protecting the parts of machines and tools, and protecting the eyes in each case by the special means which every industry ought to provide.

13. Though it is prudent to avoid contact with any person suffering from sore eyes, it is still more prudent to cultivate habits of cleanliness. Use individual towels and always clean ones. Protect your eyes from the sun and strong wind, above all when the latter carries particles of dust or earth. Never touch your eyes with your hands, thus avoiding trachoma and other contagious ocular diseases or the aggravation of any other existing disease.

DISCUSSION

CHAIRMAN GLOVER: Dr. Mérida Nicolich speaks with exceptional authority on this subject, having been an oculist when he could see, and having passed through the experience of losing his sight. He says that the first right of a blind person is not to be blind; that should stay with us. His theory regarding trachoma attracts a great deal of interest, I am sure, and his entire paper has received the approval, most cordially, of the Society for the Prevention of Blindness.

MR. LEWIS H. CARRIS (U. S. A.): I want to say just a word of heartiest approval of Dr. Mérida Nicolich's paper. We have read it and analyzed it carefully in the offices of the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness. We believe that while there may be minor differences as to practices, the fundamental principles of the prevention of blindness as stated in this paper are sound, and I want to call the particular attention of all agencies interested in the blind and the prevention of blindness to this paper. If we could put into practice the things which are advised in this paper, the oncoming generation would see blindness very greatly reduced.

PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS AND SIGHT-SAVING

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You are gathered here from many countries throughout the world to study the numerous problems in work for the blind, but your efforts cannot be wholly successful without looking beyond the horizon of this World Conference toward those who, unless there is concerted action to prevent it, may be the blind men and women of tomorrow. Prevention of blindness is the vital concern of all civilized countries. The whole spirit of medicine and of public health activities has, in recent years, been toward prevention.

The primary purpose of this international meeting is to present, to study, and to discuss the intricate questions concerning those already blind, but no less intricate and important is the growing movement for prevention of blindness and conservation of vision. As evidence of an increasing interest there was established at The Hague, September 14, 1929, an International Association for Prevention of Blindness which has its secretariat in Paris. This international association serves as a clearing house of information and as a stimulus to national and state groups devoted to the same cause; its functions are similar to those of the proposed international bureau for the blind. The International Association for Prevention of Blindness co-ordinates research and educational projects everywhere, directed toward preservation of sight.

Among other activities might be mentioned its collaboration at present with the Child Welfare Committee of the League of Nations in a report on sight-saving classes which is to be presented in Geneva within a few weeks. Dr. Humbert, Secretary-General of the International Association and also a member of this League of Nations Committee, will be largely responsible for the report. Another opportunity for the International Association to be of great assistance occurred last year when its President, Professor de Lapersonne,

made a study of the eye diseases and eye injuries in factories on behalf of the General Committee of French Insurance Companies. The International Association is also lending its support to the International Anti-Trachoma League of Budapest which is engaged in research of tremendous significance.

Paralleling the work of the Anti-Trachoma League are two carefully worked out programs of research in the United States: one conducted at Rolla, Missouri, by the United States Public Health Association; the other at Washington University, Missouri, financed by the Commonwealth Fund.

It is noteworthy that the International Association for the Prevention of Blindness was formed at the conclusion of a world conference; it is hoped that as a result of the World Conference now in session, a permanent international organization may be formed in the interests of the blind.

The International Association for the Prevention of Blindness must serve as a clearing house of information, and its secretariat will be invaluable in furthering the work of those countries already interested, and in helping to initiate work in others; but the responsibilities of actual achievement within the country must be the concern of national and local organizations, either especially set up for this purpose, as is the case with the American National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, or combining it with allied activities.

The eye is a part of the body reacted upon by the body's health or its weakness and, in turn, reacting upon it; hence prevention of blindness begins with keeping the body healthy by preventing disease. Nearly all organized social work for the prevention of blindness had its origin in an attempt to prevent infant blindness, caused by disease germs in the parent. It was against the gonococcus that Credé and his confrères waged warfare, although it was later discovered that any one of a dozen other organisms might set up unfavorable reactions in the eyes of infants.

The Credé method of instilling nitrate of silver into the eyes of the newborn was given to the world in 1881, but it was many years before it was put into wide-spread practice. In the United States, as late as 1907, when records of blindness from birth infections began to be kept, the incidence of blindness from this cause in schools for the blind still ran as high as 28 per cent. That through education and legislation a reduction of 68 per cent has been made in the intervening years is a

demonstration of what can be done by concerted and continuing action.

Blindness from smallpox has in many countries been reduced to a minimum by eradicating the disease. Blindness resulting from diphtheria is being reduced to a minimum by the use of toxin anti-toxin. The most potent disease responsible for blindness and impairment of vision in the present day is syphilis. Boards of health, social hygiene associations, prevention of blindness societies and, indeed, all organizations interested in human welfare, as well as private practitioners, are joining forces to wipe out this cause, not only of blindness and impairment of vision, but of a host of other ills.

Trachoma (already mentioned), a scourge of many countries and responsible in some parts of the United States for a large percentage of the pensions for the blind, is being given widespread study. The etiology must be known before an anti-body can be found. Laboratories all over the world are being dedicated to research on this subject and we have only to mention the name of Noguchi to recognize what devotion to such a cause means.

Glaucoma, one of the chief causes of blindness in and after middle life, is concerning ophthalmologists the world over and the cause and prevention of cataract are likewise subjects for research.

Industrial accidents have been and still are responsible for a large percentage of the blindness occurring during the wage-earning periods of life in industrial countries. The guarding of machinery, the providing of goggles and the educating of employers and employees as to the need not only of supplying safeguards but of using them, are lessening eye fatalities. Economic pressure is also having its effect, since it is being realized that it is much cheaper to prevent accidents than to pay compensation.

Prevention of blindness cannot be considered without including the much larger activity, conservation of sight. This is, perhaps, prevention in its widest sense; not only the prevention of actual blindness but of impairment of vision that may lead to decreasing efficiency. Those concerned with conservation of sight (and who, indeed, can afford not to be so concerned?) take cognizance of the fact that the first great duty is to keep the sight normal. Pre-natal care is essential, especially care of the mother who is suffering from any disease that may affect her offspring. Naturally,

care at birth is the next essential. Here education must go hand in hand with law enactment. Attention in the pre-school years is necessary to keep the sight normal or to correct any difficulties that are correctable while they are correctable. Special attention must be given to crossed eyes by strengthening the weak muscles if the difficulty is due to them, or by educating for fusion if the trouble comes from lack of it.

Ideal school life must be encouraged to expand in healthful surroundings: good ventilation, efficient lighting, hygienic seating, proper nutrition, etc., with text books printed in type and form legible, well-spaced and on dull-finished paper. Medical examinations and follow-up work must form an integral part of this ideal school system. Pre-vocational and vocational guidance and training should be included.

This effort to keep normal sight normal is the first responsibility but, in addition, there is the responsibility to the child with eye difficulties that cannot be overcome. Modern education is no longer a Procrustean bed which the child must be made to fit. It is, rather, an adjustable system made adaptable to the needs of the individual and, because of this modern attitude, the child with serious eye difficulties is, in some instances, coming into his own. He has been in the consciousness of advanced thinkers for more than a century. In 1802, Franz Von Gaheis of Austria recommended that partially-seeing children in a school for the blind should be placed in a separate building and be provided with teaching and equipment suited to their needs. In the later years of the nineteenth century, Maddox and Bell of England urged that special attention be given to the education of children with seriously defective vision. For years, Dr. James Kerr included in his reports of the medical examination of school children in England a plea for the special education of those who, because of serious eye troubles, could not benefit by the regular school equipment and schedule. In 1908 he and his colleague, Dr. N. Bishop Harmon, brought about the establishment of the first school for children with seriously defective vision, known as a myope school, because myopic children were to be given chief consideration.

The object of this myope school was to provide an education without further endangering the sight, thus actually preventing blindness in some cases, and conserving sight in others.

The first conception of such a school as that established in England was that the Socratic method of teaching should be used.

This was emphasized by a sign placed conspicuously over the doorway, "Books, paper, pencils and pens cannot enter here." Experience soon modified this conception, and a working compromise was made between the medical requirements and the educational necessities.¹ In 1910, the hopes of Von Gaheis of Austria, so long forgotten, were realized in the establishment, in Vienna, of a school for the "weak-sighted."

In 1911 Germany established similar schools in Strassburg, Mülhausen and Dortmund. Other European countries followed, but the growth of these schools, slow at best, was considerably curtailed by the Great War. In the United States the establishment of the first class for partially seeing children did not take place until 1913. Edward E. Allen, director of a school for the blind in America, was in England shortly after the establishment of the first myope school there. He immediately saw in this type of work a solution of the problem of educating partially-seeing children who, because there was no other place for them, were being sent to schools for the blind. He brought back the news to America, but new ideas are not readily accepted and it was not until four years later, April, 1913, that the first class in the United States for partially-seeing children was established in Boston, Massachusetts.

In 1917 an explosion in the harbor at Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada, injured the sight of a number of children. In 1919 a sight-saving class was established for the education of this group.

Since the writer is more familiar with the classes for partially-seeing children in the United States than in those of other countries, the establishment, maintenance and methods of instruction used in the former are given somewhat in detail.

When Mr. Allen finally succeeded in establishing the first class in America, it was with the co-operation of Miss Helen Smith, a teacher with a pioneer spirit, undaunted courage and a wide range of resourcefulness and tact. The class was, however, at best a step-child of the educational system, housed at first in an office building and later in a little, abandoned school. Since there was no material adapted to the needs of children with serious eye trouble, much experimentation was necessary, and adaptations of material for seeing pupils and for finger readers were attempted. This explains why many of the activities of the early classes, such as weaving, chair-caning, etc., were at first carried on, but abandoned when it was realized they might prove harmful to sick eyes.

¹ Kerr, James. *School Vision and the Myopic Scholar*, p. 16.

It fell to the lot of a man, himself deprived of sight, Robert B. Irwin, young, enthusiastic and eager, to develop the English idea still further. In September, 1913, he opened a class in the Cleveland, Ohio, Public Schools that soon became known as a Conservation of Vision Class, so-called from the plan popular at that time for conservation of natural resources. This name was later shortened into Sight Conservation, or Sight-Saving Classes. The very nature of the Massachusetts class had forced it to become a segregated group. In Ohio, since the class was placed in a regular school building, it was possible to arrange a program by which these children could do all their close eye work in the special classroom and their oral work in the regular grade room with children of their own mental age.

At first the classes in both states used the method that had by this time been adopted in England, of preparing material for reading by printing large letters with a rubber stamp outfit. This process proved laborious and unsatisfactory. One of the early teachers of the Ohio class felt that advantage might be gained from books printed in very large type. Mr. Irwin developed this idea with the result that for more than a decade books for partially-seeing children have been available, printed in 24 point clear type on buff, dull-finished paper.

Naturally, pioneer teachers, having no precedents, had to blaze their own educational trails in this new work, usually by the trial-and-error method. It soon became evident that it was a waste of time and energy for each newcomer to blaze a new trail; that the results of experience must be pooled and made available to others. Hence, training courses for teachers developed. In the summer of 1921, the first course was offered at Columbia University. Other universities and teachers' colleges followed the example. Courses have, from time to time, been given in many universities and state teachers' colleges in summer sessions, in extension work and occasionally during the regular college year.

These courses are based on three essentials: organizing and administering sight-saving classes; methods of teaching sight-saving classes; and anatomy, physiology and hygiene of the eye, with a study of common eye defects and diseases that may be encountered among sight-saving class pupils. The courses are in the form of lectures, discussions, considerable observation with some practice teaching in a demonstration sight-saving class, and work in an eye clinic.

Teachers preparing for this special undertaking must have a basic training that will meet the educational requirements of the communities in which they expect to teach. In addition, they must have at least two, preferably three to five, years of successful teaching in regular grades so that they may have the experience upon which to build and, in particular, they must be imbued with the viewpoint of teaching the normally-sighted so that they may carry this into their new work. They must be open-minded and progressive in attitude. Since they must give generously of their own sight to save that of their pupils, they must possess good sight, and since the work requires a great deal of energy, they must be in good health. It is advisable, naturally, that teachers who undertake this work should be young enough to be plastic. Above all, they must be in sympathy with the idea of this special education, but on no account sentimental toward it.

Where all these requirements are met, a teacher with good mental ability and a willingness to work hard may, in an intensive six weeks' course, acquire a training that should enable her to conduct a class. By intensive training is meant that the entire time of the teacher shall be devoted, during these six weeks, to this particular work.

It is advisable, of course, as in all teaching, to place a newcomer in this special field under the direction of a trained supervisor. As far as is possible, only those teachers who have had experience in this work are placed in communities where there is no such trained supervisor to direct the work and to give them assistance. As in all teaching, education in this field should be a continuing process. In fact, in this special work it is even more necessary than in regular grade work because the very newness of this type of education makes it inevitable that there will be more or less rapid changes. However, important as trained teachers and supervisors are to the success of this work, the fundamental reasons for establishing these classes—saving sight and preventing blindness—would fail of their realization without adequate ophthalmological care of the pupils. Ophthalmologists not only decide which pupils are eligible to attend classes, but determine just how much eye work may be safely undertaken by each pupil, and arrange for frequent re-examination of the eyes in order to note any change. Such ophthalmologists may be employed by boards of health, boards of education, or their selection may be the concern of the family. This ophthalmological care does not prevent the children from participating in the medical attention given to all pupils in the school system.

In the United States there have grown up two types of classes; these are generally known as the segregated type, following the original Massachusetts plan, and the co-ordinating type, following the Ohio plan. In Great Britain, Austria and Germany, the classes tend to the segregated type. In the United States the great majority of the 372 classes in existence follows the co-ordinating plan, the chief reason being that, since education is for the purpose of preparing the child to fill his place in the community, educating him under artificial conditions that do not exist in the community may add to his handicap. Moreover, modern education is tending more and more to socialization and special-class pupils need this emphasis even more than pupils in regular grades. This co-ordination is made possible in the United States because the plan of administration is different from that in some of the European countries.

In the United States sight-saving classes are not put into separate schools or buildings or even in a separate division of the school building. They are made an integral part of the regular school system. A room is selected in a school building in which there are regular grade classes. In this special room particular attention is paid to lighting, both natural and artificial. Wherever possible eastern or western exposures are selected, since these give a maximum of light with a minimum of glare. The glass area is at least one-fifth, preferably one-fourth, of the floor area and reaches as near to the ceiling as possible, since the best light comes from above. Bastions between windows are narrow to prevent unnecessary shadows. No window is placed nearer than seven feet to a blackboard.

Unilateral lighting is recommended to prevent children from "sitting in their own shadows" as would be the case if windows were at the side and back of the room, and to prevent cross lights and shadows from windows on opposite sides.

In the British myope classes only oral work is done when daylight fails. In the United States it was found a very difficult matter to keep children up to standard if all eye work had to be stopped when there was not sufficient daylight. Hence, just as great attention is given to artificial as to natural lighting, the three requisites of both being an adequate amount, absence of glare, and a proper distribution and diffusion. For the diffusion of natural light two translucent, buff-colored shades are placed with rollers near the center of each window, one pulling up, the other down. This placement not only permits of getting the best light—that coming from the top of the window—but makes it

easier to arrange for proper ventilation. Artificial light is controlled by translucent globes of low brilliance. The aim is to give the pupils an average distribution of from 10 to 12 foot-candles of light without glare on all working planes. Walls are usually painted a light buff and ceilings white to give the best reflection values. All surfaces, including woodwork and furniture, are in dull finish to prevent glare.

Seats are movable, to enable the pupil to obtain the best light. They are adjustable for hygienic reasons. To prevent the necessity for leaning over a flat working surface various plans have been tried. In the schools of Edinburgh individual blackboards are used. In the London classes the underside of desks is blackened and turned up for writing. In the United States a desk is provided that lifts to an angle. In the British myope schools chalk and crayons are used on these seat blackboards; in the United States pencils making a dark, heavy line are supplied and slightly rough manila paper. A great deal of work is done on the regular blackboards, usually with a luminous yellow chalk, since yellow on black is more legible than white on black.

In the various countries having sight-saving classes, educational aspects differ greatly. In some countries a different curriculum is used for the normally seeing and the partially seeing. In the United States the feeling, in general, is that, since these children are given the benefit of special instruction and are provided with material suited to their needs, they should be able, with this special attention and service, to keep up with regular grade work. Certain modifications and substitutions are made where necessary. Thus, instead of drawing for illustrative purposes, sight-saving class pupils substitute modeling, free-hand paper-cutting, etc. In the sciences that type of work is selected which does not require the use of the microscope. The touch system of typewriting is substituted for much handwriting; it is never taught as a vocation, but as an aid to saving sight. In classes of the co-ordinating type, keeping up to standard is essential; since pupils take their oral work with the regular grade students, they must keep abreast of them for the benefit of both groups.

Approximately $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the students in sight-saving classes are able to return to the regular grade after a year or two in the special class. Such pupils are usually found in the group suffering from eye diseases which, under good care, medical and educational, may clear up. If they are not

up to standard, they must be placed with groups of children younger than they; they may become discouraged or, in order to go to another group, may work altogether too hard, endangering their health and possibly their sight, and thus undo the good they have gained in the special class.

The candidacy of pupils for sight-saving classes likewise differs greatly in the various countries. As has already been said, the classes in Great Britain were formed for the purpose of giving educational advantages to myopes. Gradually, in some centers, children suffering from other eye difficulties have been accepted.

In the German and Austrian classes, the name "*Schwach-sichtige Klassen*" suggests that children "weak sighted" from whatever cause are accepted.

In the United States, where apparently there is not as high a percentage of myopia as in some of the European countries, candidates for these classes are divided into three groups: first, children having progressive eye difficulties; second, children having a visual acuity between 20/70 and 20/200 in the better eye after refraction; third, pupils with non-communicable but serious eye diseases, such as interstitial keratitis, when these are in the regressive stages. In addition, any pupil may be a candidate who, in the opinion of the ophthalmologists, may benefit by being placed in such a class, provided he is eligible from the educational standpoint. The number of children requiring the advantage of a sight-saving class varies in different localities, the most conservative estimate being one in a thousand of the school population. Where, however, experience is greatest, the proportion is much nearer one to five hundred of the school population.

The disposition of children having a double handicap is always a debatable question. It is, however, generally accepted that placement must be made according to the greater handicap. It is also generally conceded that mental subnormality is a greater handicap than physical disability. Hence, children having the double handicap of subnormal mentality and serious eye trouble should be placed with the group of the mentally deficient and should there be given all eye care possible.

In the case of two physical handicaps, the decision of placement is even more difficult. It would seem reasonable that, if one of the disabilities is total and the other partial, the child should be placed with the group having the total

disability. Thus, a totally deaf child with serious eye difficulty would appear to belong in the group for the deaf and to be there given all eye help possible.

The problem of educating partially-seeing children in rural communities is most difficult of solution. Where transportation facilities make it possible, the most satisfactory solution is the formation of classes to serve a district, whether that district be a county, a parish or a shire. Two such county classes are being carried on successfully in the United States.

Another method is to send rural partially-seeing children to board in the nearest city having such classes. This has been successful in a few instances, but it is difficult to find good boarding places, and in addition, this method has the disadvantage of separating the members of the family.

In some cases assistance is given to the rural teacher, and books and other material are provided by the State. There are, however, partially-seeing rural children whose need cannot be met by any of these methods. It is suggested that teacher-training institutes having observation or demonstration schools include a sight-saving class which will accommodate children from the surrounding territory and provide boarding facilities for children living at too great a distance for daily attendance. This again is not ideal, since it separates the child from his family, but there is compensation in the fact that not only will the child benefit, but teachers in training can, from the demonstrations offered, carry the principles of sight-saving classes into their communities.

The State makes education compulsory. Such a regulation can be enforced only when education is offered in a form that can be assimilated. Hence, it is only reasonable that the State should assume its share in making education possible for all children. In the United States fourteen of the forty-eight states have assumed this financial obligation and it is noteworthy that 94.5 per cent of all sight-saving classes established are in these states. The provisions for giving financial assistance vary according to the educational law of the respective states. Such provisions take the form of:

- a. The appropriation of a per capita amount.
- b. The appropriation of a general sum for the establishment and maintenance of classes.
- c. An appropriation to cover part or all of the teacher's salary.
- d. A combination of two of the above.

The first and second methods have proved most satisfactory since, unless otherwise specified, the director in charge of administering the funds may use some discretion. A class which is being established requires a larger outlay for initial equipment than one already in action. It is also possible to provide for adequate supervision and to pay student readers for partially-seeing pupils in secondary schools.

In states giving appropriation toward the salary of the special teacher, the establishment of classes is often delayed because no funds are available for equipment. In these instances civic organizations often give assistance, but since the education of children in public school systems is the responsibility of educational authorities, provision should be made in such a form that all can be given due consideration.

Elementary schools can seldom provide vocational training. Vocational guidance in a limited sense becomes the responsibility of the sight-saving class teacher from the time the child enters her class. She must imbue him with the spirit of his possibilities, but must not fail to give him an understanding of the limitations set by his eye difficulties. It is her privilege as well as her duty to study his desires and to turn these into a channel that will lead to a wise selection of the means, not only of earning a living, but of making the most of his possibilities.

Secondary schools offer pre-vocational and vocational training. It becomes the duty of the school system to find out, not only the occupations that may be undertaken safely by the partially-seeing, but those occupations that are likely to offer opportunities in the particular community concerned, and to provide training in these.

It is evident from the comparatively small number of children requiring the advantages of special education in sight-saving classes, that a class will often serve several schools and in some instances a community; hence, a number of different grades may be represented. In addition to teaching several grades, the teacher must give special consideration to the requirements made necessary by each child's eye difficulty; she can, therefore, care for only a small group of pupils. Where not more than four grades are represented, the number of pupils should not exceed sixteen. In many cases the number of grades and the number of children are in excess of these standards.

In elementary and junior secondary schools covering the first nine years of school life, partially-seeing pupils are placed in sight-saving classes. In senior high schools, partially-see-

ing pupils enter as individual students, but are given special supervision in the selection and carrying of courses. Readers doing the same work are selected and arrangements are made by which the reading can be done in the school building under proper conditions. By the time the partially-seeing pupil enters high school he should be so proficient in typewriting as to be able to prepare all his work directly on the typewriter and to take his tests in the same manner.

The experiences of the twentieth century would seem to indicate that the sight-saving class is the best method yet developed for educating partially-seeing children, since it approximates as nearly as possible the education of the normally-seeing. It would seem almost unnecessary to have to justify the cost of the education of any child who is educable; humanitarianism alone would seem a sufficient justification. Yet it must be remembered that the State is responsible to the taxpayers for the use of public moneys; in consequence, the State must look upon expenditures for education as an investment that will pay justifiable dividends. The object of educating partially-seeing children is the same as in the education of any group; namely, to prevent illiteracy and to develop the innate powers of the individual so that he will become an asset of the greatest possible value to himself and to the State.

To give a partially-seeing child an even chance with the normally-seeing, it is necessary to provide him with the opportunity to overcome his handicap. In order to do this, such facilities must be put at his command as will permit him to develop along the line of his greatest strength, while his weakness, in so far as this is possible, is prevented from becoming worse.

It is obvious that such facilities cost more than those provided for the normally-seeing. If, by providing them, the State is enabled to change potential liabilities into actual assets, no further justification should be necessary. But there are by-products of this outlay. A partially-seeing child educated in a class with the normally-seeing, requires more than his share of the teacher's time and energy. Removing this child from the classroom for those subjects in which he requires this extra time and returning him for those subjects in which he can compete on the same basis as the other children, is to give them, as well as him, opportunity for greater development.

It should be the definite program of every community to provide adequate facilities for the education of partially-seeing children; but this is, at best, a remedial measure. The ultimate aim should be to prevent, in so far as this is humanly possible, the need for such classes by pre-natal care, adequate protection at birth, proper attention to the eyes of the pre-school child, extended medical service and follow-up for school children, improvements in school plants, to give the best hygienic conditions, and most important of all, co-operative effort—medical, educational and social, to eliminate the causes of eye difficulties.

DISCUSSION

CHAIRMAN GLOVER: These two papers do not cover the great subject of prevention of blindness, but they do give us a remarkably clear picture of what the work consists. The first paper gave us what the scientists are concerned with, gave us the subject from a very technical standpoint, showing the development of modern science. The second paper has shown us more distinctly what society can do, how economic adjustments must be brought about and what educational facilities must bring. They should be helpful to every nation of the globe.

CAPTAIN E. A. BAKER (CANADA): We appreciate the work which has been done and is being done by the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness. We appreciate the value of the international organization for the prevention of blindness. We believe that in all countries where definite action has not yet been taken to organize prevention service and propaganda, organizations for the blind should interest themselves either in the establishment of such services, or should take that interest themselves.

We have found, in connection with so many of our registrations of blind people, that they either lost their sight in infancy or pre-school age, or that they attended school for one, two or three years and were then forced to leave owing to failing vision; thus they grew up to adult life with a double handicap—the handicap on the one hand of seriously defective vision, possibly developing into blindness, and on the other hand, lack of education.

Now there are many measures which can be adopted, but I believe that with the International Association for the Prevention of Blindness co-operating with all agencies throughout the world, with societies for the prevention of blindness or organizations for the blind working in various communities, and co-operating with health and educational authorities, and with the many other facilities looking to the common end of preventing blindness in all cases possible, that we shall get somewhere.

You know it may seem strange that those of us who have lost our sight should be taking an interest in the prevention of blindness. In fact, it might be suggested that there are other agencies which could do this to better advantage. But I believe there is a psychological advantage in those who have lost their sight appearing on behalf of the cause of prevention of

blindness. I think that in the first place we present an ocular demonstration of what it means to have lost sight, and I believe that we can speak with the greatest possible sincerity and effect since we who have possessed sight know how great a value should be placed on it, and we probably place more value on it than those who possess it thoughtlessly.

You know there are many of us—and it seems to be human nature to take things for granted—there are many of us who possess these advantages of the senses very thoughtlessly and we do not take the necessary care to safeguard them from attack. Now we are hoping that in this great program we shall be able to see widespread prevention service. We are a select class, and we are not anxious to see our numbers added to.

SEÑOR J. A. PARDO OSPINA (COLOMBIA): Today I wish to refer to the paper presented a moment ago by the distinguished Canadian representative, in which he says that only by uniting in national groups is it possible to direct the cause of the blind into the proper channel.

This is certain, and Colombia, the country which I represent, proclaimed it in its review *Irradiación* as recently as six months ago, in order that the South American or Spanish-American blind might unite to work more effectively, animated by a common purpose.

Yesterday the Mexican representative spoke in this place of co-operation. I am sure that the Spanish representative, Dr. Mérida Nicolich, is in hearty agreement, and I am sure that the representatives of Chile, Peru, Cuba, etc., also agree. But to date we have done nothing practical, and I earnestly urge all these countries to work effectively for our union.

Colombia, as I have previously stated, has worked in a way to make me proud, since today the cause of the blind in my country has attained a very high level. I do not doubt that, although my own personal resources are very meagre, Colombia will be able to give effective co-operation with South America or with Spanish America on behalf of the blind, and I therefore once again insist upon the Spanish-American Union.

Today I wish to mention again the Colombian legislation concerning the blind, which, I repeat, is, if not the most perfect, one of the most complete in Spanish America. We have compulsory education of the blind, which is almost non-existent in any Spanish-American country; we have a special amusement tax; teachers of the blind receive extra remuneration. We are assured of government support which has enabled the Colombian institutions to develop satisfactorily, and there are many other beneficial acts of the Congress of my country which I should like to discuss at Spanish-American round tables so that, with the effective collaboration of Colombia, we may work constructively on behalf of the blind.

COL. R. FORBES (GREAT BRITAIN): It is with considerable trepidation that I rise to speak, because I come rather searching for information and knowledge than to make any contribution.

I was particularly interested in Mrs. Hathaway's interesting and instructive paper, because she touched on many of the problems that we have in Scotland. Our numbers in Scotland are not unduly large. At the moment we consider that we are making proper provision for 550 children with defective vision. But another hundred at least should yet be provided for. The difficulties of outlying areas prevent these from being dealt with as they should.

We have the two types of classes, the segregated, that is, where they may be attached to an ordinary school but having little or nothing to do with the instruction of the ordinary school; and then the co-ordinated classes where they spend part of the day on their special instruction in the sight-saving class, and in the afternoon they associate with the ordinary children.

I notice, looking through some of the old issues of the magazine *Sight-Saving Class Exchange*, that in the Cleveland sight-saving classes, typewriting is no longer taught to the pupils. In Mrs. Hathaway's paper I gathered that typewriting in these classes for sight-saving pupils is pretty general, and I have found that there are instances, apparently, in the States where typewriting is not taught in these sight-saving classes.

In Scotland we teach typewriting to a very small extent—only in two institutions—and we are proposing extending it, and I should be glad to get some general impressions as to what is being done in the way of teaching typewriting in these sight-saving classes.

We have also had an application from one of the schools to be allowed to teach braille in the sight-saving classes. I should be glad to know if in America braille is taught to pupils in these classes. For the moment we have suspended any decision because my department feels that it would have a bad psychological effect on a pupil with defective vision to be taught braille. The pupil might form the impression that blindness is coming on.

Another point on which I should be glad to have information is whether the diascope or the epidiascope is used to any extent in America; that is a lantern, as you know, for projecting opaque objects on to a screen. In Scotland we are meditating installing one in one of our schools but we are a very economical people. and this instrument, I understand, will cost anything from two hundred to four hundred dollars, and we want to know if we are likely to get value for our money.

HOME VISITING AND HOME TEACHING

JUDITH A. MERIVALE

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Registration and Visitation—these are the two pillars upon which the whole structure of service for the blind must rest. Naturally, we cannot begin to do anything for our blind people until we know who they are and where they live, the fundamental facts upon which to build up the register. Only by visiting the blind in their own homes and making friends with them can we win their confidence, discover their circumstances and needs and establish contact with the appropriate agency. This work is the part of the home teacher and the voluntary visitor.

There are, in England and Wales, a large number of institutions and societies for the blind scattered up and down the country and fulfilling various services. Until about a quarter of a century ago they had little communication with one another, or interchange of ideas. They were, generally speaking, the benefaction of some local philanthropist whose sympathies had been aroused by experience of his own or another's misfortune, and were designed to serve his own neighborhood without reference to any need beyond. Hence there were great gaps in the system, or rather there was no system at all; and, while certain districts were well-served, in others there was no provision whatever for the blind people, nor did anybody really know what blind people there were or what might be done for them.

Gradually, this state of affairs has been remedied: first, through the action of the institutions and such few voluntary societies as were in existence which joined together in the year 1906 to form the Union of Counties Associations for purposes of conference, co-ordination and extension of their work; and, some years later, through the action of the Ministry of Health. The Blind Persons' Act, passed in 1920, was, in a sense, the coping stone of the edifice reared slowly and painfully through so many years by voluntary effort. It was made possible because voluntary effort had shown the way, the right way, to deal with blindness and its problems. But voluntary work by itself is inevitably uneven in its incidence and irregular in its volume; and, as time went on, the sense of public responsibility developed, and, one

by one, the social services came to be accepted as the concern of the State; the care of the blind, too, was included in the general scheme. The local authorities were made responsible for carrying out the provisions of the Act, either directly, or through the local voluntary society or institution. The whole work was stimulated and strengthened and a standard of efficiency was set up. The services for the blind were now treated as a connected scheme, planned to cover the whole field, from prevention of ophthalmia in infancy, through education and employment of the young and middle-aged, to homes and pensions for the old and infirm. Grants in aid were given, and home teaching was included among the grant-earning services because of its great and increasing value.

As a certain amount of mechanization is unavoidable in all large scale undertakings, so, while gaining very much in power and efficiency, the work performed by a public body or institution is bound to lose something of elasticity in its dealings with the individual. This elasticity is just what the home teacher and visitor with his roving commission can supply. The Indigent Blind Visiting Society, founded in 1834, was one of the first to realize this truth and definitely to make the instruction of the blind in their own homes its object.

One of the earliest teachers in London was a blind man named William Cooper who is said to have taught no less than seventy-one pupils to read Moon Type during his first year of work. In those days, there were very few embossed books and those only in Moon type and chiefly of a religious character—the Holy Scriptures, of course, and a little educational and lighter, rather lighter, literature such as, *The Last Hours of Polycarp*, *The Murderers Over-awed*, *The Condemned Soldier* and *The Pious Teacher*. It was not until 1895 that the Home Teaching Society in London began to teach braille as well as Moon. Other societies followed at long intervals and appointed home teachers, generally a blind man who could give instruction in reading but not much besides. Gradually, the necessity for occupations other than reading led to the addition of one or two simple handicrafts, principally knitting and chair seating, and the choice of books widened as education progressed, until today there is hardly an author of note of whose works some, at least, are not made available for the blind as well as for the sighted reader. It was not, however, until 1919-20, when grants in respect of this service were made by the Ministry and the provision of home teachers was "strongly urged" upon the now responsible local authorities, that home teaching was recognized as (I quote the words of Mr. MacGregor) "one of

the best investments on behalf of the blind which an agency could make." It was not, now, merely a question of teaching them to read the Bible or a sermon in their own homes, nor even of giving them occupations in handicraft, but rather of bringing them out of the isolation of their blindness into the living world of men and things.

In 1923, the logical sequence followed and candidates were required to present, in the future, the certificate of the College of Teachers' home teaching examination. The syllabus of this examination includes five subjects: (1) braille, grades one and two; (2) Moon; (3) professional knowledge (practical); (4) professional knowledge (theoretical); and (5) home occupations. Three of these can be selected from a list of eight occupations as set out in the syllabus. In braille, the candidate is required to take down a passage from dictation in grade two and read a selected passage by touch or by sight. Similarly, he has to read a passage in Moon Type. In professional knowledge (practical) he has to demonstrate an ability to teach braille, Moon, and any of the subjects selected; also, the manual alphabet for the deaf-blind.

In professional knowledge (theoretical) the questions range over a wide field: hygiene, legislation, medical assistance (e. g., hospitals, homes, etc.); schools, workshops, pensions, insurance, etc.; libraries, postal and travelling facilities; special apparatus, tools, etc., for the use of the blind; knowledge of the "machinery of administration"; and lastly, he is called upon to show how he would deal with a blind person in given circumstances.

It will be seen that the examination is framed to attract a highly qualified type of candidate, one in whom expert knowledge is allied with enthusiasm and practical sense; and, so far, the experiment has been fully justified. Another move in the same direction is the opening of "Refresher Courses," by some of our great institutions, which the home teacher can attend during a few weeks to brighten up his ideas and learn the latest developments in educational and welfare work.

Home teaching and visiting is still young as an organized service, but when we look back over the last twenty years or so we may well be astonished and thankful for the progress made. In the year 1909 we had, I think, barely half a dozen home teachers in the Midland Counties, and this was typical of the country at large outside of London. By 1918 the numbers reached about one hundred for the whole of England and Wales. Since the passage of the Act in 1920 the number of home teachers has increased much more quickly; in 1929 there were about 430 and,

though some parts of the country still need additional staff, I think it is safe to say that no district is today left quite unsupplied.

Side by side with the trained home teacher, and working in friendly co-operation with him, has grown up a band of voluntary visitors whose numbers are legion and whose enthusiasm and devotion are incalculable. It was the voluntary visitor, indeed, who first opened the doors of the blind people to the teacher. Thanks to their united efforts, there is hardly a case of blindness today unknown and uncared for. But it was not so twenty years ago. It fell to my lot to organize a system of registration and visitation in several of the Midland Counties where, at that time, nothing of the sort existed. The first step was to obtain lists of blind people from the parochial clergy, the medical officers of health, the police and the Poor Law officials. Next, the lists had to be collated; they were always very short lists and certain names would appear in all, but, generally, each list would give one, or perhaps, two names which were not found in any other. Then, I would go into a selected town or village and spend a few days there, or possibly a week, calling upon the blind people and making friends with them; persuading them to talk of their needs and circumstances, their age and how and when they lost their sight; and explaining, frankly, that we were making a register and the purpose for it. I never found any reluctance to respond, although the police inquiries had sometimes puzzled and disturbed them. The next step, then, would be to get into touch with one of their friends, some lady who, being already interested in one blind person, would undertake to visit others and make further inquiries in the villages around, acting as honorary representative for the district. In this way, a committee was gradually assembled and a County Society was formed. One by one, these County Societies joined with the workshops and institutions in the area to form the Midland Counties Association of Societies and Institutions for the Blind. This, in turn, is linked up with six other similar associations covering England and Wales and, together, form the Union of Counties Associations which I have the honor to represent here today.

Now, what does all this organization lead to? What are the duties of the home teacher? These may be summarized roughly under three headings:

1. *Teaching of Moon or braille*

Occasionally, a child will be found who for some reason cannot be sent to school at the usual age but who may be taught at home in preparation for school. For the most part, however, home

pupils will be people who have lost, or are in the process of losing their sight in later life, and for these the teacher will make a point of getting to know the type of literature each reader prefers and of trying to interest him in books and ideas. He will not be content to teach him merely the use of embossed type, but will go further, advising him what books to choose and how to obtain them from the library. He will read himself, and discuss the books with his pupils and talk over the current news in the papers. Whenever possible, he will take them to meetings and lectures, or make arrangements to provide escorts to take them to concerts, church or chapel, or for walks. The lack of exercise is one of the greatest deprivations a blind man has to endure. But, of course, all this is more possible in the town than in the country. Wireless, however, is doing a great deal to supply the mental and imaginative stimulus which, hitherto, has had to be drawn from books and such chance opportunities as could be made available. It is hardly too much to say that wireless is revolutionizing the life of the blind. In the British Isles, a set is being brought into the home of every blind person. One woman, aged fifty, listens into all the school talks, for example, and her family all say now, "You must ask Aunt Harriet" about this or that. She is the best educated person in the house. The home teacher, too, finds a sensible alteration in his work; instead of teaching braille, he may find himself called upon to arrange for the putting up of the wireless set just come down from London, and then to discuss the latest program. Wireless is becoming a living bond between teacher and pupil.

2. *Pastime occupations*

These are numerous and varied, although there are never quite varieties enough and the teacher is always on the lookout for new ideas. I suggest a few as follows:

Straw bags, raffia mats and baskets. The materials are cheap, the work pleasant and clean, and the articles made are likely to sell well if neatly finished.

Knitted dish cloths are very useful for old people who cannot do anything else.

All kinds of hand-knitting and crochet are good.

Rush mats and plaited rush tops can be made for wooden chairs and stools. If well made, these should sell well.

Cloth hearth rugs are easy and cheap to make if bits of old cloth can be obtained.

Woolen rugs are good work for men, but the materials are expensive.

Netting, also, is suitable for men, but not very saleable.

Light fancy baskets and bead work are both pleasant and inexpensive to make, and generally find a ready sale, if well-made.

Sewing, gardening, housework, dusting, washing up and even cooking are all home occupations which have been successfully practiced by blind persons, and which have helped, more than anything else, to secure him or her a place in the family life.

For all these handicrafts the teacher should know what materials are required, prices, quality, the best place to buy, and what sort of a sale the finished articles are likely to command. Only well-made goods should be sold. It is better to give the rest away as presents to some of the poorer blind people than to lower the standard of work.

3. *Miscellaneous*

To begin with, there is the register. Although this is not primarily his concern, it is through the home teacher that most of the new cases are brought to light, especially among the older people. Changes of residence and alteration in family circumstances, improvement or deterioration of the eye-sight, and other details, are necessary to keep the register up to date. Years ago, a blind person was often very unwilling to acknowledge his defect, and we had to give tea parties "for blind people with their friends" to lure them out of their hiding places. Now that there are so many inducements in the way of pensions and maintenance grants they are not so shy in making themselves known. Indeed, there is a tendency in the other direction sometimes, and care has to be taken to ascertain that the applicant is really blind within the meaning of the Act.

Then, there is the baby whose mother has to be persuaded, during the course of several visits, to allow it to go to a Sunshine Home where it will be trained, from its earliest years, in the difficult art of being blind. Again, if the child's home is a good one and there is no necessity for taking him away, then the mother herself must be taught how to treat him wisely; to be neither over-indulgent nor neglectful, but to teach him to feed and dress himself and be as independent as possible, so that when he comes to school age he will be able to take his place among the rest, both in work and in play. I call to mind the sad case of a child who, because he was always tied up in his little chair for

safety while his mother was at work, had never gained the use of his legs and had to be taught how to stand and walk; and of another who at four years had to be taught, with infinite patience, how to lift the spoon to his mouth.

Then, there are the young boys and girls home from school for their holidays. The home teacher must keep watch over them, provide them with little occupations and books and help the mother to keep up the habits of cleanliness and self-help which they have learned at school. And later on, when they return to their own villages as home workers, as many of them must, having completed their training, it may very possibly fall to the home teacher to help them in the making and selling of their goods, although where there is a regular Home Workers Scheme in operation this will be the duty of the supervisor. In any case, it is the home teacher who must help them to take up life at home; and all this applies, of course, to the pastime workers, also.

It is often a great trial for a boy or girl to leave school with its vivid community life, its friendships and its many interests, and return to the village circle from which he has insensibly become detached, and find no place for himself, perhaps, even in his own home. It is one thing to come home for a few weeks once or twice a year and be petted and made much of; but quite another to find oneself permanently fixed there with no occupation, no companions who can share one's outlook and interests, no one who quite understands what it is one misses. To such, the home teacher comes as a godsend, bringing books, occupations, sympathy; showing one how to help in the housework, and another how to dig in the garden; and, on the other hand, helping the family to understand and make the blind member feel himself to be of use in the world.

Then there are the sick and aged; living alone, perhaps, in some remote hamlet. It is astonishing how many old blind women do live quite alone, and how remote their home often is, even in our densely populated little England, and still more so, in mountainous Wales. The difficulty of getting to these people was, formerly, a great problem, and still is so in some parts, although the advent of the motor-car has gone far to solve it.

This brings us to the social centre. The motor-car makes it possible to bring down some of these scattered blind to the nearest market-town or village where social meetings can be arranged, weekly or fortnightly, with tea and games or an occasional sing-song. The blind enjoy listening to music and recitations but, like the rest of us, they still more enjoy doing it themselves; at any

rate, during part of the time. Reading circles and competitions are popular in some places; in others, talking games and debates may be instituted. In fact, there is scope for much ingenuity in running a social centre, and many sighted games can be adapted for the use of blind people.

One more service, and that, perhaps, the most important of all, may come under the heading of *miscellaneous*, because it is so various and incidental. I mean the little bits of welfare work which crop up from day to day, such as, reporting cases to the local Society where help is needed in illness, railway fares to the eye hospital, spectacles, new teeth and old clothes—all the little wants that mean so much to the individual, but which cannot properly be supplied out of the public funds. It may interest the meeting to hear some account of a home teacher's work in a rural area. I take the following from the notes of a lady in North Wales:

"It is usual for most of us to be out from nine a. m. to seven p. m., and then there is the entering of the day's work to be done and correspondence to be attended to. The number of cases on our register is 720 (1929). Of these, the vast majority are over fifty years of age. The number of registered home workers is thirty-seven, but quite a large number are more or less occupied with the usual pastime occupations. Quite three-fifths are unemployable, but all are encouraged to make efforts, for we undertake to sell their work and pay them augmentation at 50 per cent not exceeding ten shillings. But the earning capacity is low and the few shillings earned are very precious pocket-money and help to provide little extra comforts.

"Many of our casual workers live in inaccessible villages, and it may take the home teacher two to three hours to get there. Often, it is very difficult to persuade the blind person that he can possibly learn to do something. He left school at ten or twelve, perhaps, and went to work and never learned to love books, so that learning to read does not appeal to him. Or, as often happens, there is a lurking hope that sight may be restored; therefore, why bother? But if he can be persuaded to learn to make straw bags or cane baskets, or the old lady can be induced to take up her knitting again, it is a great achievement.

"When I started work I was taken around by my predecessor, a much-loved woman of wide culture, and I was very much impressed by the amount of praise and encouragement she gave to every small effort. The blind are always interested to hear who has bought their work, and I remember one totally blind woman,

seventy years of age, who had been persuaded to keep up her sewing, being tremendously pleased to hear that the head of a large school had bought a dusting cap made by her to show to the girls at their next sewing class. One of our home teachers found a blind man of seventy, an old miner, and got him to learn to make straw bags. He took it up enthusiastically, and during the summer used to sit by the roadside waving his bags at any passing motorist, finding that a bright red one often attracted a customer. The car would slow down, for, in the distance, the gay bag was mistaken for a danger signal! We have a depot under the care of a superintendent who supplies most of the materials, but the difficulty is to dispose of the mass of work produced. We have ten or twelve sales in different villages during the year, and last year disposed of over £1,000 worth of goods. Many of the workers are supplied with trade cards, bearing the recommendation of the Society, which are used to give to inquirers and for display in the local shops. We have not found it practicable to start any social centres; our districts are far too scattered. But when the lady visitor or the home teacher herself can take the blind person for a walk or in the car to visit other blind people, and finish up with tea and toast, very great pleasure is given. It is a red letter day, and a break in the gray monotony."

I give one more extract to illustrate the unexpected contingencies with which the visitor may have to deal. The writer is a home teacher in another rural area:

"I wonder whether those who set the papers for the home teachers' examination quite realize the enormous field our knowledge is supposed to cover. One may be asked anything from 'How can I make my will?' to 'How can I get a divorce?'" She goes on to describe how, going to visit a pupil in a remote farmhouse one day, she found the whole family down with influenza and the farmyard in a turmoil; the cows were waiting to be milked; fowl and cattle were clamoring to be fed and watered; the farmer was lying delirious in bed; the elderly sister had had a stroke and was helpless; and the boy, with a weak heart, was going from one faint into another. Only the blind woman was about, creeping from bed to bed trying to get things a bit straight, although she could hardly keep up having been at it alone for twenty-seven hours. Miss —— set to work, kindled the kitchen fire and made some tea, and then attended to the animals. Such are among the possibilities of the home teacher's life! You never know when you start on your rounds in the morning what adventures the day may have in store.

One word of warning I should like to give, if I may be allowed: Do not treat the blind differently from other people. Never talk of their "affliction." They know all about that, and what they want is to be met on equal terms with the rest of the world; not as in a class set apart, but each one on his own merits as a man and a citizen among his fellows. To sum up: The ideal home teacher must be not merely a teacher, but a friend; a trusted and resourceful counsellor who, while able to deal with all sorts of small perplexities and troubles, has also the capacity to see things in their true proportions, to open the closed door and let in the light of life with all its cheerful interests and possibilities.

To such a one, the work offers a wide field of usefulness, full of variety and of human character, of tenderness and friendship; and, may I not add, of pleasure?—the pleasure which comes with welcoming smiles and counted days. "It is forty-nine days since your last visit," said one, and another, a dying woman, "The lady will be coming tomorrow and I should like to see her." She died in the night, however, and her last wish was not gratified, poor soul. Another, a man of fifty-five who had learned to read with great application, wrote a letter in beautiful braille to his teacher when she had acquainted him with the National Library. He thanked her, and said that being able to read had entirely removed all his fear of the future. Tributes like these are a reward, indeed.

DISCUSSION

CHAIRMAN GLOVER: The paper by Miss Merivale gives, in my opinion, the finest presentation of the versatility of a home teacher that I have seen. We need more of it in America where too often the home teacher is not regarded as one who is absolutely responsible for social adjustments of every nature, including milking cows.

MR. HERBERT W. THOMPSON (AUSTRALIA): Following upon the very instructive paper of Miss Merivale, I should like to stress the importance of the competency of the home teacher. She must be highly trained. Further, home teaching is very much enhanced when it acts as an artery to the larger workshops which act as a means of providing work regularly for the worker when he becomes further developed. If his age prohibits him from entering the workshops, the home teaching department, as we know it in Australia, and the Sydney Industrial Blind Association of New South Wales, furnish the worker with raw material gratis up to £10 worth every year, and in addition to that, £30 worth of material is loaned to him to pay back in his own good time, and then he can have as much as he likes in addition to that at cost price. That I throw out to the members of the Conference with the idea that the suggestion may be helpful, because home teaching, if it is only confined to visiting and teaching of reading and the lesser educational branches, is not half as valuable unless it embraces various forms of industry and therefore these grants of material prove a very excellent help to many hundreds of our home workers in New South Wales.

MR. W. MCG. EAGAR (GREAT BRITAIN): I want to add just one point of information, because I hope that a little more knowledge of what we are doing in England on the question of wireless may enable some other countries to do likewise if the right pressure is brought to bear on the public and on the wireless authorities.

We have adopted in the course of the last two years a slogan, "Let the Blind Share", and we have set out to supply every blind person in the country with a wireless set. That has been made possible only by the co-operation of all the societies for the blind in the country with the British Broadcasting Corporation, which controls all the wireless in Great Britain.

We found that there were 18,000 blind persons in need of sets and we have, up to the present, supplied about 9,500 and we hope to get the remainder of the money to supply the rest of the need by the summer. That is a fact, and I hope very much that other countries will be able to meet the very special opportunities which wireless gives to the blind.

I have only one other point, and that is this: Whereas the wireless sets are to be supplied by a central fund, the work of maintenance and looking after the sets must be done by the friends of the blind themselves near their own homes, to avoid setting up a central bureau of any sort.

MRS. ISABEL W. KENNEDY: First, may I say that I bring the greetings from the first home teaching society to the blind in America, the Pennsylvania Home Teaching Society, which has its office in Philadelphia. I am afraid our Society has been misunderstood. You think we teach only Moon type. Let me assure you that that has long since been changed. While naturally we believe in honoring pioneers, we find that Moon type is very largely demanded, strange to say, in Pennsylvania and outside of Pennsylvania also.

Last year, out of a distribution of 32,261 embossed books from the Free Library of Philadelphia, where our books are also placed (we have 6,000 books there), there were no less than 16,888 in Moon type, showing there is a demand for that. We teach home occupation, not so much with the hope that a person will find his living through that, but so many people are illiterate, so many would just sit there with nothing to do if we didn't give them the lightest kind of occupation. We don't give them relief because there is another organization in Philadelphia for that purpose.

REV. E. P. AYER (CONNECTICUT): Friends of this important gathering: It is to tell you in a few words what has been done for home teaching in Connecticut that I am here. Twelve years ago our secretary came to me and asked for my assistance in his work. I told him that I had troubles enough of my own, but if I could help somebody I must go, so I endeavored to help him through the hard work and varied difficulties that met him. Finally I was appointed Chaplain of the House, and in that session of 1921, through the assistance of our good Governor, the home teaching bill went through, much to our joy and satisfaction. That first year the State sold a thousand dollars' worth of products from the blind people in their homes, and last year it was twelve thousand dollars' worth.

This is what I wanted to tell you. The last thing I want to say is that the blind chaplain of the Senate in Connecticut lives to forget that he is blind. It is my privilege to teach the blind people of Connecticut how to live—the State teaches them all the rest.

THE STATE AND THE BLIND

IAN FRASER

Chairman, St. Dunstan's Executive Council, London, England

HISTORICAL

Relations between the State and the blind, bespeaking sympathy and interest and a real desire for the emancipation of blind people, are of very recent development. They have grown out of the mounting body of public opinion that blindness was not a disgrace, not a hopeless ineradicable infirmity, but a handicap which merited all the time and attention which could be spared for its reduction. The attitude of the Roman Emperors, and even of the Norman Kings of England, in depriving of sight their enemies and those of their subjects who trespassed against them was only a reflection of the attitude of the common people of those times. The blind person was the person without hope; one would almost sooner be dead than have to stand in his shoes. How, then, inflict a severer penalty than by forcing this degradation upon your Christian who would not acknowledge your gods, or your peasant who dared to take to himself the royal prerogative of dining off venison? It was only when there crept into the minds of the ordinary man and woman the thought, "There, but for the grace of God, go I," that official investigations began to be made and laws for the amelioration of the lot of the blind to take their place upon the statute book.

Even then, the State lagged heavily behind public opinion. The first voluntary institution for the blind in England, for instance, was founded in Liverpool in 1791. The Blind Persons Act, which set on foot a wide-spread national scheme of state aid for the blind, became law in 1920. The institutional system alone, while opening wide its gates and caring most admirably for those who found their way within them, could not hope to cover the whole of the ground. Yet the voluntary system led the way. The State, at last fully alive to the importance of the blind adult as citizen and the blind child as potential citizen, only followed down the paths to which others had fixed the signposts.

One of the earliest cases in which we hear of the State—in the form of the ruler—coming forward as champion of the blind, occurred in Japan. There, in the 9th century, a young prince, son of the 54th Emperor, lost his sight. He and his father straightway developed a personal interest in blind people, and the prince, on entering the priesthood, distributed his income among them. Nor was this all. Several blind men of proved capacity were taken into government service, and a decree was issued giving over the profession of massage entirely into the hands of the blind. Whether we can look upon the granting of this exceptional favor as being due to the impartial judgment of an impersonal government, or whether we must see in it only the good resulting from an affliction to a powerful prince, is largely dependent on our point of view. There is no doubt at all that blindness attacking the households of the wealthy or socially important has been a noticeable factor in the growth of an interested public opinion, and so of an interested State. There are on record numerous cases, all over the world, of philanthropic effort initiated by educated blind people; in a very real sense, from the earliest times, the case has been that of the blind leading the blind.

Unfortunately, the sequel to the story of Prince Hitoyasu occurred centuries later, when, in 1870, the privileges of the blind in Japan were swept away and those with sight were permitted to enter into competition with them. In recent years, however, Japan has developed methods of caring for her blind comparable with those in force in other countries.

There is no example, now, of State monopolies being granted to the blind. The nearest we get to State interference in the employment of blind people is in Germany, where by a Reich Act of 1923, the engagement of a small percentage of disabled men, including the blind, among normal workers, was made compulsory. A recalcitrant employer might be fined. In France, also, a compulsory employment act was passed in 1924, but only those blind who lost their sight in the World War can claim benefit under it. Here and there, too, in Europe, where there are state monopolies in handling tobacco or matches, a preference in the matter of employment has been granted to the disabled, including the blind. England's very mild version of this official interference is a recommendation by the Government to the governmental departments and local authorities that, other things being equal,

they should give preference to goods produced by workshops for the blind. Scotland gives a preference to the blind in the matter of employment as home teachers of the blind.

As can be readily understood, the War of 1914-18 gave a great impetus to the movement for the emancipation of the blind. Every nation involved in the holocaust was driven to face the problem of making some provision for a number of vigorous citizens, normal in every way, but deprived of sight, and with a claim on their country which none could dispute.

On this occasion, no one government required waking up to the magnitude of its responsibilities. Legislation to do with the blind which had been hanging fire, or been received with half-hearted support, was speeded up. So it came about that the civilian blind, the men and women who, many of them, had never known sight, found their position firmer and their prospects brighter through the accession to their ranks of thousands of men who had grown to manhood in full enjoyment of all their senses. And thus did history repeat itself. For the earliest public institution established for the blind which still exists, now under State management, was the *Hospice des Quinze-Vingts* in Paris, said to have been founded by Louis IX (Saint Louis) about 1260, for men who had been blinded following his banner to the Crusades. Civilians soon attached themselves to this institution, which later gathered much wealth, although at its inception the inmates were encouraged to beg for their living. One scarcely needs the assurance that such encouragement is not given nowadays. In its stead, all efforts are brought to bear that these blind, as also the blind in every civilized country in the world, shall aim at self-support. One of the most important results of State legislation for the blind is, indeed, that begging by the blind is more or less sternly discouraged and that an increasing number of authorities are making assistance conditional on the practice of mendicancy being discontinued. Nevertheless, even legislation has not always been guiltless in this respect. At one time, begging by blind persons was specially legalized in certain countries. In truth, all down the pages of history the dragging stick, the piteous cry for alms of the blind beggar rings in our ears. "Pity the blind!" "Pity the blind!" It was when this cry began to sound unnatural to those who heard it, when the reaction to it came to be, "Why pity the blind? Why not help them, and help them to help themselves?" that the citizens of each country turned their

eyes to the State, which could do what they, individually, what they, even in small isolated societies, could not do.

Apart from a few instances where the ruler of a country has taken upon himself the responsibility for at least some of his blind subjects, there is little heard of any government action till the 19th century. Certainly the National Institution of the Young Blind (*Institution Nationale des jeunes Aveugles*), the first school specifically for the blind, had been taken over by the State in Paris in 1791 during the French Revolution. But in its early stages the growth of activity by government was slow. It was with the development of the idea of universal education that the problem became, for the first time, insistent. What were you to do with your blind children? Unless special provision could be made for them the talk of universal education was a sham. So special provision was made, and legislative enactments passed in a number of countries requiring the establishment of schools for the blind and, in some, making school attendance compulsory on the part of blind children. The cost of this education was taken over in varying degrees, in whole or in part, by the State, the public authorities and voluntary societies. Even maintenance costs, where the parents were indigent, began usually to be met by the local Poor Law authority. The lot of the uneducated blind child was felt to be the unhappiest lot which could fall to human experience. At the same time, it dawned on the State that such a child must necessarily grow up to an adult life dependent always on public moneys. Sentiment and cold expediency went, therefore, for once hand in hand. There are few countries, as a result, where the provision of special education for blind children is not now made. In many countries it is still the only form of State action, and the difficulties of the blind man or woman who has passed school age are relieved only by voluntary societies.

The acceptance of responsibility by the State for the welfare of the blind, as such, is indeed comparatively rare. In most cases the adult blind are provided for in the same way as other citizens; that is, if they are indigent they come under the Poor Law; if aged, under old-age pensions schemes; if disabled, under invalidity and disablement insurance. On the other hand, in many countries which do not make direct provision for the blind, the work of voluntary associations is often encouraged and assisted by the grant of State moneys.

Usually, the war blind are placed in a separate category and are given preferential treatment, both as regards work and pensions.

Generally speaking, the countries which come out best in the test for State responsibility for the blind are the English-speaking countries. In a number of the states of the United States, state commissions for the welfare of the blind have been set up and many states grant pensions to blind persons, as such. In Great Britain, limited State pensions are paid and a variety of local services are insisted upon by the State and supported from public funds.

All this activity, though it had its beginning before the War, was stimulated in a very natural way by the return of blinded men from the fighting forces. For example, in most European countries, voluntary effort arising spontaneously out of the needs of the War has spurred civilian agencies to greater efforts. The needs of the blinded soldier, being much advertised and calling forth generous response, have encouraged the general idea of giving help to the blind. And again, in Germany, the Compulsory Employment Act, originating as a result of the War to find work for disabled soldiers, including the blind, was later amended to include the civilian blind.

In many countries, too, the entry into the world of the blind of young men cut off from their usual avocations by their disability has reinforced the ranks of the natural leaders of this world. This is specially noticeable in the British Empire, where in no less than three of the Dominions national organizations for the welfare of the blind as a whole have been initiated or have been very greatly developed, largely through the individual efforts of returned blinded soldiers who have received their initial training and inspiration at St. Dunstan's. It may be said that the State is now fully alive to its duty towards the blind, and that the next decade will see even greater development towards universal State assistance than has been attained in the most forward countries, and the acceptance of State responsibility by those which are still backward.

THE VOLUNTARY SYSTEM

If the historical section which opens this paper conveys anything like a true impression of the development of the care of the blind, the first lesson to be derived from it is, that voluntary effort has played and still plays a noteworthy part. There will be in

every State, at every time, a minority who are in advance of the majority in their view of their duty towards their neighbor. These will band themselves together, voluntarily, to make provision for the sick, the poor and the blind. There are foundations in every civilized country which bear witness to early movements of this nature. There will always be such persons, I hope, and, consequently, there will always be voluntary efforts, going beyond the efforts of the State, pioneering, inventing, devising new means of helping. I cannot imagine a situation in which a State, so satisfied with its efforts for the unfortunate, will make voluntary effort illegal. It would be an infringement on the liberty of the enlightened pioneers which they themselves ought not to tolerate.

On the other hand, the volunteers must not be permitted to establish vested interests in voluntariness, and if and when they and others can persuade the State to take over and administer routine methods of assistance out of public funds, they should not resist. There should be a gradual evolution which allows of the State taking up and operating approved and tested services for the blind, as the material wealth of the society and the general opinion of its citizens make it possible and desirable. And wherever such routine operations are taken over by the State the voluntary spirit and machinery should be maintained and diverted to new fields of activity. The needs of the blind are so great that every resource must be mobilized to meet them. The conclusion reached, therefore, is that there should be co-operation between the State and voluntary effort and that aid for the blind should be developed by these two agencies on co-ordinated lines of true and friendly partnership.

“WHATSOEVER YE ASK . . .”

Broadly, the development in the care of the blind by the State is only a specialized part of the care of unfortunate citizens as a whole. The primary motive which moves human society to care for its unfortunates is not sympathy, but self-preservation. You cannot have a healthy and progressive society if many of the units which form it are starving and discontented. Hence, as the idea of governance develops and a national conscience is awakened, the executives take upon themselves the task of caring for those who cannot adequately care for themselves. At first coldly self-protective, the State moves gradually towards a more humane and philanthropic outlook. There are many thousands, perhaps millions, of individuals who are moved by the Christian ideal, sometimes unwittingly, to sacrifice time, labor and money to help their unfortunate fellow-beings, and particularly those who are

blind. These are the backbone of the voluntary work which is done all over the world. But they are also to be found in large numbers in government offices and parliaments, municipal departments and local councils. Thus, the whole question as to what the State should do for the blind is influenced by kindly personal sentiment. It is legitimate for those who seek favors for the blind to accept the advantages of this good will, but they should never take advantage of it.

Much loose talk abounds as to men's rights. The right to live, the right to a living wage, the right to justice as opposed to charity, are proclaimed all over the world by blind and sighted alike. The truth is that there is no natural right to live, and that the statutory rights or traditional rights acquired by those who need other people's help in living their lives are concessions made to them for the sake of or by the goodwill of the community. In my opinion, it would be well if the fraternity whom we represent were to realize this truth; for, human nature being what it is, they would secure more satisfaction from their lives and greater assistance from their fellows if they approached them in this spirit.

I do not desire to suggest that all blind people must be wholly dependent upon those who can see. Many may find themselves in positions in which they can choose who shall care for them, and many may contribute much by thought and deed to the well-being of the society in which they live; but, as a whole, the blind throughout the world must needs ask help from those who can see. I, therefore, suggest that it would be more graceful and fruitful for them and their representatives to ask reasonably, rather than to *demand*, basing their claim upon some supposed natural rights which are fictitious. They may be assured that wherever and whenever they ask for consideration of their proposals they will be well received. They should be careful, however, neither to overstate their case, nor to press their demands too strongly, lest they do harm to the cause they desire to help.

WHY LEGISLATE FOR THE BLIND?

Why should there be legislation for the blind as a special class? I doubt if there is any logical answer to this question. The British authors of the *Report on the Welfare of the Blind in Various Countries*, a most valuable survey recently published under the auspices of the League of Nations, suggests an answer in the thought that the blind are much more severely handicapped from an economic point of view than the deaf or the crippled, and that

this distinguishes the blind as a class apart from other disabled persons and justifies special legislation in their behalf. No doubt, this is an important consideration. In addition, perhaps, there is a peculiar sentiment for the blind arising out of some of the factors mentioned earlier in this paper, and again there is a larger number of persons incapacitated by blindness than by any other single disability of the same magnitude. Another point may be that, although definition of any class is difficult, it is easier for practical purposes to define blindness and to treat those coming within the definition as belonging to a special class, than to define other disabilities and classify those who suffer from them. The phrase "the world of the blind" indicates how the popular imagination can appreciate the peculiar position of this class, and can isolate them from the rest of mankind. We seldom hear the phrases "the world of the deaf" or "the world of the crippled," and such conceptions are difficult.

I think imagination, not reason, is the principal answer to the question. Every sighted person can imagine himself blind; it is so easy to achieve blindness by merely closing the eyelids, or by trying to find the way in a really dark place. Moreover, fear of the darkness is instinctive.

BLIND PERSONS ACT, 1920

I think I can claim that this act of the British Parliament was the first attempt to provide nationally and comprehensively for all sections of a blind community.

Mainly, the Act falls into two parts: (1) that which the National Government undertakes to do entirely from its own financial resources, namely, to pay pensions to practically all blind persons over fifty years of age; (2) that under which the National Government requires local authorities to make a comprehensive scheme, the expense of which will be shared from national and local funds. These schemes may include the establishment and maintenance of homes, hostels and workshops, the payment of allowances to the unemployable blind, and the organization of home teaching and home workers' schemes; they may be undertaken, either directly through machinery owned and operated by the local authority, or, in conjunction with, or through, the agency of voluntary bodies. Generally speaking, the local authorities have operated their schemes in conjunction with voluntary agencies, in their desire to make use of the specialized knowledge and voluntary services which were already available.

There is a good deal of argument in Britain as to whether the second part of the Act should have compelled a national

standard of care for the blind, instead of permitting a large local discretion. The details of this argument will interest citizens of countries outside Great Britain only in so far as their systems of local government are similar, but in one form or another the general principle is one which must be constantly arising for discussion in every administration. The general question may be put thus: How far can and should the central authority in an administrative unit like Great Britain, or one of the capital states of the United States, impose upon subordinate local authorities the duty to initiate social services or to maintain them at a prescribed standard? I cannot speak for other countries, but in Great Britain opinion is sharply divided. Politicians who call themselves progressive or socialistic take the view that all local authorities should be compelled to maintain a high standard of care for the blind and that the expense should be wholly or mainly borne by the central treasury. More conservative thinkers consider that a large degree of autonomy in local government is a sound principle and that local administration should be to a substantial extent locally financed. This course prevents a local authority spending huge sums of money provided by the national treasury, without due regard to the interests of public economy. If the local authority can secure an important social service without the citizens, as such, having to pay for it, there is no check upon most rapid development, good in itself, but possibly disastrous in its cumulative effect to the solvency of the national exchequer.

The Blind Persons Act takes a middle course. It compels local authorities to submit a comprehensive scheme which they will be prepared to carry out, but it does not compel adherence to a particular method and it leaves the generosity of the scheme very largely to local decision.

In Britain, the view that the rate of development of services for the blind by the local authority should be discretionary has prevailed, and the Act of 1920 remains unamended. The result is that there are great variations in the scale of treatment of the blind. These present anomalies may be criticized, but English tradition is opposed to undue compulsion of local authority. In all probability, an opportunity will present itself in the next few years for the whole subject to be re-examined, and I imagine that by that time a natural level, to which probably the majority of local authorities will conform, will have been reached. When this is the case, in my view, the time will have come to compel the minority, who have been less generous or enterprising in their aid for the blind, to advance to the standard of the majority.

There are, in addition, two forms of registration incorporated in the Act: registration of the blind persons themselves and registration of voluntary charities operating on behalf of the blind. The former requires little comment; it is merely an attempt, which in Great Britain has been singularly successful, to secure through local sources exact information as to the names, addresses and circumstances of all blind persons. It will be readily understood what an advantage this is to governmental departments concerned with such matters as the prevention of the causes of blindness, as well as to the local bodies themselves who can thus base their plans upon accurate statistics.

The second form of registration, namely, that of voluntary agencies, is more open to argument. The object of this registration is to give the public some guarantee that charities for the blind are operated *bona fide* in the interests of the blind, and are not conducted for improper objects or for the benefit of the people who initiate or manage them. It is open to question whether some of the smaller local authorities are competent to exercise supervision of this sort. In general, however, opinion in England seems to agree that registration of great national collecting bodies by a competent authority such as the London County Council, in whose area most of these national bodies have their headquarters, is a sound and proper interference, by the State, with the liberty of the subscribers and managers of the voluntary organizations. Registration by local authorities in Britain does not involve interference in policy, but insures, merely, that accounts are kept, that the objects of the trusts are carried out, and that the administration comes up to a reasonably high standard of efficiency. The cause of the blind makes such a strong appeal that unscrupulous people are apt to use it to their own ends. In these circumstances it is, probably, to the interest of sound and established charities for the blind to encourage registration, which prevents abuse, and thus avoids the possibility that generous and philanthropic people may hesitate to give donations or subscriptions for the welfare of the blind.

The Act, of course, includes a definition of blindness, as does a much earlier act which made State provision for the education of blind children. Any statute making special provisions for a section of the community must define the persons to whom it applies. This is a difficult problem, and as a result there are a variety of standards in operation throughout the world. The subject is too technical to be dealt with in a general paper like this, but might well be a matter for the earnest consideration of a sub-

committee of the Conference, with a view to discovering if an international standard cannot be approached.

I do not desire to trespass upon the paper which one of our colleagues is to deliver upon the subject of pensions. I should like, however, to make this observation upon the position in Great Britain, which will indicate the general view I hold upon the subject of pensions for the blind. I consider that the age at which pensions are now paid in Great Britain, namely fifty years, should be gradually reduced, and the amount of the pension increased, as and when Parliament can be brought to face the necessary expenditure. Such reduction of the age and increase of the amount should continue until a subsistence pension is payable to all blind persons in respect of their blindness, and for no other reason, after the age of sixteen, or when they cease vocational training or education. There should be an income test of a simple character to prevent the pension being paid to blind people who have independent means or are engaged in professional occupations which render it unnecessary for them to be subsidized in this way. The income figure, above which the pension should be stopped, should be a relatively high one, so that all but a few fortunate blind people would receive the pension.

I do not agree with those critics of general pensions who take the view that any general pension paid to the blind is undesirable because it lessens their desire to work. The great majority of blind people cannot, under any circumstances at present or soon likely to be available, maintain themselves without assistance. It seems to me, therefore, that a disability pension is the simplest and most efficient, as well as the most sympathetic method of meeting the difficulty of providing them with the means to live, or compensating them for their handicap. There is, probably, no country in which there are such liberal surplus funds available for social reform that the government of the day, whatever its political views, would grant really generous pensions to all blind people. Accordingly, such pensions as may be granted will provide only a mere subsistence and there will still be a strong incentive to all who are capable and have the opportunity to augment the pension by useful work.

EMPLOYMENT OF THE BLIND

State and municipal activities are so varied that they come into contact directly or indirectly with almost every type of professional or industrial employment. There are, therefore, many opportunities for governmental and municipal

departments to give direct employment to or influence employment for professional and non-manual blind workers; such as, teachers, masseurs, organists, telephone operators, typists, etc. In some departments in Great Britain and, doubtless, in other countries, trouble is taken to fit suitable blind persons into such posts, but much more might be done. It is, I think, a matter to which all concerned should give more consideration than is given at present. It is far more difficult to find congenial employment for mental ability than for physical ability amongst the blind, and the state and municipal authorities should not only help to solve this problem, but should set an example to other employers.

BLIND LEADERS OF THE BLIND

The natural leaders of the blind are those who have the requisite character and ability, and are themselves blind. They have the advantage in representing the case of the blind that they are themselves representative of the class for whom they plead. They have a greater understanding of the psychology of the people with whose affairs they deal, and frequently added authority is given to what they say to their followers by the fact that they are themselves experts in overcoming the difficulties imposed by blindness. Governmental departments, municipal authorities and voluntary associations for the blind should, wherever possible, give employment to suitable blind persons in advisory or executive posts.

Blind people throughout the world owe the improvement which has taken place in their lot to the understanding, sympathy and sacrifice of their sighted fellows. But the public conscience has at all times been stimulated to a fuller conception of its duty towards the blind by the personal example and advocacy of outstanding blind people; such as, to mention but a few of the more recent examples, Henry Fawcett, Arthur Pearson, Francis Campbell, Helen Keller, Louis Braille, Laura Bridgman.

This should be borne in mind, and in every country every encouragement should be given to young blind people who have the gift of leadership to come forward and help to guide the blind community towards greater opportunities for material and spiritual well-being.

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

1. There should be a true and friendly partnership between voluntary agencies and the State.

2. The leaders of the blind would secure assistance from governments more readily if they bore in mind that it is very often more dignified to ask than to demand consideration.

3. The State should insist upon local authorities developing comprehensive schemes for the care of the blind, but should leave them a wide discretion as to method and standard.

4. Municipal services for the blind should be in part, at least, locally financed; grants from the central treasury should never cover the whole of the cost. The share borne by the central authority enables a universally appropriate standard to be attained, and even demanded, and the share borne locally fixes responsibility locally and avoids waste.

5. Official machinery should be set up for registering blind persons and for registering charities for the blind which make appeals.

6. An international definition of blindness should be attempted.

7. There should be a disability pension for all blind people beyond school age, paid by the State solely in respect of blindness, and subject only to a simple income test.

8. Governments, municipalities and voluntary agencies should themselves employ capable blind persons, wherever possible, as an example to other employers and because, in certain posts, notably in dealing with the care of the blind generally, such people are peculiarly valuable.

Blind leaders of the blind and successful blind professional, business or public men and women are necessarily noticeable examples of the blind community. Their interests bring them into constant touch with the sighted world and they carry a heavy responsibility for the regard in which the blind as a whole are held.

THE ROLE OF THE STATE IN ASSISTING THE BLIND

PAUL GUINOT

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The Organizing Committee of the World Conference on Work for the Blind has asked me to report on The Rôle of the State in Assisting the Blind, and to share with you the thoughts of the French National Federation of Civilian Blind (*Fédération Nationale des Aveugles Civils*) regarding the part which public authority should play in welfare work for the blind.

Having undertaken to perform this task, I must first of all apologize for the extemporaneous character of my report which is due to lack of definite data on this subject. Since data on which this report should be built up are not available, the chief point of interest will lie in a discussion of theory.

Therefore, doctrines engendered in this report should not be regarded as dogmas. Some of the statements may appear to be axiomatic, but the general aim of these suggestions is to inspire intellectual discussion. Particularly do I wish to paint for the blind of today, a picture of a future city in which blind persons will cease to be hampered with all the material impediments which their blindness now imposes, though, of course, the inevitable soul-suffering, born of their infirmity, must needs remain.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS

Before defining the nature and scope of a policy which public authority has adopted in the interests of the blind, I think we should show why, at the present time, such action has become indispensable. First, let us examine the difficulties which confront the blind of every nation. Let us be frank and open. In the darkness of my own night, I could indulge in critical remarks which might hurt many of you, but I shall not do so. My only wish is to throw some light on a topic which needs it badly. Far be from me to criticize here those who, in sheer kindness of heart, made philanthropy the basis of their work for the blind. Down through the ages, ethical ideas have slowly changed, following the evolution of human customs, rising step by step with the progress of civilization. Philanthropy, in spite of its past

and present shortcomings, has proved a constructive agent and we recognize its benefits to the blind. Yet, despite the virtues which inspired it, philanthropy has not achieved its aim; there is ample evidence that many distressing conditions among the blind still exist.

Conditions of life, for the vast majority of the blind, still remain singularly unhappy. Permit me to describe them here, before this World Conference, which American generosity has made possible. I ask your indulgence while I act as spokesman for our unfortunate blind who never meet in congress because, lacking as they do the barest necessities of life, they are unable to attend meetings and themselves paint the touching picture of their misery.

SOCIAL CONDITION OF THE BLIND

Let us consider the community of the blind and its various divisions.

First of all, every country has its élite among the blind. Naturally, this élite is limited to those privileged by birth or fortune. They head organizations for the blind, are often instrumental in founding such organizations, and have a part in their management. They are the bright flowers in a wreath whose beauty hides faded roses and sharp thorns. In their hands are concentrated technical knowledge, ability, authority. Helped by wide connections, they exert great influence which, perhaps, they sometimes use without clearly understanding the real needs of the majority of the poor blind, of whose life they know so little! Their personal affairs, their social or professional engagements, often deter them from acquiring an intimate knowledge of the conditions existing among those unfortunate blind people who are so dependent upon them. Have we not, in every country, a small number of blind persons—great artists, teachers, writers, authors or speakers—whose splendid achievements so dazzle the eyes of the world that the tragic condition of the humble, the poor, and the weak will never be shown in its true light?

After the élite, comes a group of those blind persons who have the qualities necessary for social emancipation—a spirit of independence, intelligence and initiative. Surrounded by helping hands, they are able to raise themselves to their rightful position in society which they fill with dignity to their own increased happiness and to the honor of their country. These represent about one-fifth of the blind family. Having achieved success, they gain the admiration of a public ignorant of the difficulties overcome, the many struggles and the many privations endured on the road

to success. These blind persons are the heroes of the social adventure for the emancipation of the blind. It is to be sincerely regretted that the need of safeguarding their own position prevents the blind persons of this group from devoting more time and thought to representing the interests of the sightless community, for they, better than anyone else, are acquainted with the weaknesses, the lack of foresight, the mistakes, and the wrong social spirit which stamp some of the institutions which were established and developed in the interests of those who are without sight.

And after this group, what do we find in the world of the non-seeing? Merely a huge crowd of poor people, laborers of weak intelligence, unskilled men, unemployed workers, abnormal human wrecks—unfortunate beings who lack all or nearly all the essential elements of professional, physical or social activity, and who, it must be said, constitute a disgrace to the institutions established for their welfare.

There might be some discussion as to the proportion represented by these three divisions in different countries, because each nation may wish to advance the idea that things are better within its borders. I claim that, even where the situation is best, it is bad enough, and will not conflict with my statement that today at least 50 per cent of the blind who have normally received education, or 75 per cent of the whole community, are absolutely unable to earn their living without outside help, and have to be partly supported by private or public charity.

PRINCIPLES OF RELIEF WORK FOR THE BLIND

The previous statement drives us to determine and explain the causes of such conditions. It will be enough, at this time, to glance at the organization of relief work for the blind, which has the honor and bears the responsibility of offering them the help they need.

In every nation of the world, we find that welfare work for the blind is based on the same principle—that of charity. Even if their governments share in the expense of relief work or assistance, it is only through charity, through its philanthropic institutions, that a world movement for the welfare of the blind can be developed. Therefore, this movement for the welfare of the blind, under the generous inspiration of humanity—an inspiration which is not always unselfish—is handicapped and even misled. It is handicapped, as a matter of fact, by all the psychological, institutional and financial shortcomings inherent in the products of spontaneity.

Incoherence, confusion, disorder—fruits of incompetence or ignorance—are the less important disadvantages of this welfare work which, in every country, proudly claims the great honor of liberating the blind from the bondage of their infirmity. And as if the problem to be solved were only its own, each institution, each welfare organization, each association is busy with its specific cases, without attempting to see what the others are doing. If perchance an institution looks at another, it is chiefly to compete with it and to safeguard its own prerogatives. Thus rivalries are bred of which the blind, absorbed as they are in their unfortunate infirmity, understand nothing and they are amazed at the lack of consideration which they sometimes receive from the institution.

Paradoxical though it may seem, my last remark is nevertheless well founded. Proof of this is shown in the attempts made throughout the world to create and organize groups made up solely of blind people who wish to take into their own hands the solving of their many problems.

The main cause of the defects which mar the universal welfare work for the blind appears to be lack of central authority. Each country should set up a central authority to take the leadership in this relief work, co-ordinate it and perfect it to the utmost.

GOVERNMENT INTERVENTION

At the present time, social legislation in behalf of the blind is everywhere being urged by those who devote themselves to philanthropic work. Now is the time when governments should be requested to provide means whereby blind people may be assured of benefiting from the results of all that is being done for their welfare. Such intervention would make the State the sole medium for co-ordinating all the welfare work for the blind.

What exactly is taking place? Nothing less than the abandonment of the narrow barriers in which welfare work for the blind has hitherto been confined, and the reaching-out to those great unlimited spheres where the work for the blind, instead of being founded on charity, will be able to evolve freely with brotherhood as the impetus. At the same time the means of obtaining help for the blind will be modernized by substituting for the present method of begging, a rational system of protection by the State. In this way, are we not helping the blind—particularly those born blind—to attain that much-desired quality of self-esteem? Is not the highest aim of the blind man today to develop his individuality under the protection of a social body working as a unit? It is this right to live which the blind are now urgently demanding through their Unions.

As pioneer work for civilization and social evolution, the French Revolution, as far back as 1790, proclaimed the right of the weak and the crippled to aid from the nation.

In France, where we suffer especially from the mistakes of inconsistent and out-of-date welfare activities for the blind, there has existed a written law ever since the Declaration of the Rights of Man which grants permanent aid to the blind, founded on human and natural right.

Then why is it, we may ask, that in France, the country of Braille and Haüy, conditions for the blind are today so little in harmony with the principles of right proclaimed for them? An explicit answer to this question is necessary so that those countries which have just begun organizing these matters may avoid the pitfalls of the past.

Let me say here, that, when a King of France, moved by pity for the blind, granted to the *Quinze-Vingts* the exclusive right to beg, he inadvertently led welfare work for the blind astray; he prevented the blind from gaining a true understanding of their right to live, and changed their social status.

Fortunate indeed are the countries which, unhampered by the mistakes of the past, yet profiting from its teachings, are in a position to begin work now under a rational and productive system destined one day to render illustrious universal welfare work for the blind. But for those countries which are burdened with a heavy legacy of philanthropic endowment, the problem is different—it consists, as it were, in remodeling an old-fashioned, unsanitary, and cramped house, whose doors and windows must be opened to admit light and air.

In this work, the rôle of the State should be clearly determined. Let us examine it.

THE RÔLE OF THE STATE

In the first place, the State must recognize the legal right of the blind person to be protected by society; to be respected as an individual; to receive just compensation for the burden and expense his handicap involves.

Human sympathy has always been aroused by the unfortunate life of those who naturally or accidentally have lost the invaluable gift of sight. In several countries, particularly in England and in some of the states of the United States, legislation has been adopted by which the government grants financial compensation to blind persons whose plight it is to earn less and to spend more than the seeing.

But, up to now, no country has established a law for the

blind, neither has it set forth, in legal text, the duty of society in respect to the sightless. The obligation rests on us, in every country, to say whether the blind, deprived as they are of an indispensable sense, have the right to live a normal life. Not to give them this chance (if you will pardon my rather blunt statement) is to become the silent accomplice of a crime! Not daring to kill the blind, one would nevertheless leave them half-dead, in a shameful condition, and on the verge of starvation.

Such a thing is condemned by public opinion. It is to put an end to this that we demand from all the governments definite commitments on this matter. The problem they have to solve is no longer merely one of humanity; it is a deeply moral question requiring from governments, for the sake of their own honor, a reasonable, intelligent solution, both immediate and final.

What measures, then, should be taken for the legal protection of the blind? They are of different types: medical, statistical, administrative, financial, economic, etc. We shall examine them rapidly in order.

1. *Definition of Blindness.*

From the medical as well as the social angle, blindness should be defined similarly in all nations. The amount of vision remaining to the partially blind should be determined also, when we consider the extreme difficulties those people have to face in their daily routine on account of their visual impairment. When the vision is below one-twentieth, it should, for practical purposes, be called blindness. We should like to recommend here the definition of blindness by Professors True and Trousseau, of France, as the official formula to be codified.

2. *Compulsory Registration.*

A compulsory registration of all cases of congenital or acquired blindness seems to be indispensable if legal protection is to be sought. Even though such registration be unpopular, it should be exacted from the head of the household where the blind person has his residence, within three months after the illness or accident.

3. *Statistics.*

When compulsory registration has become law, it will be possible to compile a census of the blind. By means of statistics the governments will be able to appreciate correctly the importance and the scope of the general welfare work for the blind, and to take steps to manage and supervise it.

4. *General Administration.*

When defined, registered and counted, blindness should be

dealt with, in every country, under a general administration by the State. A Central Office should be founded to co-ordinate all the public and private agencies for the blind, and to recommend the adoption of such measures as will assure complete protection of the blind by society.

5. *Educational Policy.*

Education should be free and compulsory for every blind child. It should be given under the responsibility and the supervision of the above general administration. No special institution should be allowed to be organized or established without the consent of this general administration. In this way we shall put an end to the scandalous things which happen in so many countries and in France in particular, where blind children are deprived of a real positive preparation for life, through being allowed to remain in charitable institutions which suffer from lack of funds, inadequacy of programs and also from special prejudices.

For the adults who become blind by accident, professional and technical re-education should also be given free of charge and made compulsory. So many unfortunate adults blinded through accident are today abandoned to their fate! Without wasting more time, these units of economic activity should be re-educated in a practical way and take their accustomed place, or a new place, in society.

6. *Employment.*

As soon as the academic and vocational education of blind children or the re-education of adults has been completed, the state should endeavor to locate positions for all of them. The blind laborer's first supply of raw material should be partly given to him, and also some tools; loans and advances should be made when necessary. Supervision of homeworkers should be organized also. Such work as can be done by blind persons, such jobs as they can fill, should be reserved for blind workers, priority being accorded them over seeing workers.

7. *Financial Aid.*

If the total income of a blind person is inadequate to provide an average standard of living, he should have a right to an additional pension. May I just make two remarks here: (a) The granting of a pension to the blind must be considered by society as a worthwhile investment to recover some values heretofore undiscovered; (b) The granting of a pension is then based on the principle of common brotherhood, and therefore has not the character of charity. The pension should be so nicely calculated that it will not weaken the desire to work, or lessen the spirit

of independence or ambition regarding one's home life, but should be sufficient to compensate for the expense and the sufferings attendant upon the handicaps of blindness. This pension should also differ according to conditions within the family. The State should undertake as its responsibility the additional expense and the insufficient earning capacity of the blind. Such a pension should be granted without the assistance of charitable institutions.

8. *Fiscal and Tax Exemptions.*

It seems unfair that the blind have to pay the same taxes as the average unhandicapped citizen. A ruling should be established that a man's blindness be taken into consideration when his income tax returns are being computed, even if his financial condition is fairly good. The blind worker ought to have tax exemption commensurate with the additional expense he incurs in using a guide, an assistant, or a special employee or collaborator. If there is a payment made to such an assistant, financial compensation should be given equal to such payment.

In short, the extra expense for a guide can be compared to a compensation for a permanent depreciation of the earning power of the blind individual.

9. *General Protection.*

The growing difficulties of street traffic and the many risks of accidents outside as well as in the workshops greatly diminish the full enjoyment of personal liberty. For this a remedy should be found. Proper measures should be taken by the law to protect not only the lives but the rights of the blind. In addition, the civil status of the blind should be definitely established by law, and protected against alterations or changes caused by prejudice.

10. *Co-operation and Unions.*

Co-operative and mutual unions should be encouraged and supported for the many moral and material advantages they give and for their social and economic values. Here again the action of the State is exceedingly important. The State alone is in a position to suggest co-operation between the unions and the agencies for the blind, which would prove highly beneficial to the community.

11. *Health Problems.*

Steps should be taken also to keep the blind physically fit, since they are active members of society and heads of families. A social service should be organized to help them in matters of personal and family health as well as in problems of household sanitation. Thus, the function of the State in the social protection of the blind is of paramount importance in the program for the

welfare of the blind, and private and public institutions would, under this program, operate under its leadership.

PRACTICAL STEPS

The above suggestions on the Rôle of the State in the Social Protection of the Blind would be of no avail if practical steps were not considered at the same time. The blind must take the initiative.

"Heaven helps those who help themselves," says an old French proverb. In this case, may I ask permission to change it slightly and to make of it the motto: "The State helps those who help themselves." This should be an inspiration to all blind people!

I note, as a matter of fact, that where the State has begun to adopt special measures for the blind, the blind themselves have given the initial impetus.

May I remind you that the British Government adopted the "Blind Persons Act" following a public demonstration in the streets of London?

Everyone knows that in Italy, where today official welfare work for the blind is far advanced, despite the fact that before the War almost nothing had been done, such progress is due to the blind who took their problems into their own hands under the able direction of a war-blinded man.

In Germany and in Canada, the only countries where I was able to collect any data, it appears that the associations of the blind have been quite influential in securing good results.

In France, although for half a century the Valentin Haüy Association had been leading in this field, Parliament did not adopt the first measures to improve our status until 1924, when the National Union of the Blind (*Union Nationale des Aveugles*) was founded.

One logical and natural conclusion comes to the minds of all those who, like myself, have faith in a cause which is easy to win because it is easy to advocate. The assistance of the governments as described in this paper, will be granted only if, throughout all the world, the blind unite simultaneously and ask for the recognition of their own sacred rights.

The organization of an International Federation of the Associations of the Blind is the only means at our disposal to make this ideal a reality. It should have a representative committee for which delegates should be selected from every large existing group,—blind persons whose independence of judgment and ability are above the average. Such a committee should be established in Paris, world center of movements for the blind, where the ideals

of Valentin Haüy and Louis Braille would be a constant stimulus.

Before this audience, animated by such a spirit of good will, I ask your forbearance for this new policy which I have been advocating. In this America, country of dreams for the Old World, country of youth, of greatness and of beauty, country where man's bravery is equalled only by his broad-minded generosity, I should have been a faithless servant of my ideals had I hesitated to state my convictions freely. They are not only *my* convictions, but those of several thousand French blind, who, brought up by charitable institutions, feel that they have come of age, and claim today the right to organize the new work which will lead them toward ultimate liberty.

May all the workers for the blind understand this thought and may they all help us so that our dreams may come true! I trust they will show us their sympathy and be our guides on the path of progress on which we have set out, that path where human fellowship and world brotherhood throw their rays of everlasting light.

PENSIONS—A DIVISION OF WORK FOR THE BLIND

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When the plan for systematic welfare work for the blind was conceived 125 years ago and put into practice by a group of noble philanthropists, they found two problems of primary importance the solution of which represented the ideal goal: to educate the blind person, until then neglected, in a special school, and to teach him a trade so that his time might be profitably spent and that he might earn a larger or smaller part of his living himself. We know the results of these efforts, and we are grateful to all those who have given of their strength and their best understanding to this difficult work.

In ordinary times one is justified in saying, "Knowledge is power." Usually the road to success is open to him who diligently acquires extensive information on his subject. The truth of this proverb, however, has been severely shaken in the last decade. This short span of time has shown that values are shifted by exceptional, catastrophic events and we have not found the means of directing the course of life back into its regular channels. Millions of high-grade workers in all countries are condemned to inactivity, their knowledge wasted, their strength declining. Even if the blind form only an insignificant part of the community, they suffer from this world catastrophe in the same way as the others. Where before they could earn their own living, partially or in full, through unceasing industry, their few occupational opportunities are now being steadily encroached upon. That this is not a result of the World War, alone, is a fact familiar to those who were already active in work for the blind before 1914. It is, so to speak, a progressive—more truly, perhaps, a retrogressive—movement, which has taken on an unheard-of speed during the events since 1914, and has attained a powerful momentum in a disproportionately short time.

It is natural that the general shaking-up of economic life will be felt primarily by those having only a few occupations open

to them. Here we see the inexorable laws of selection, in that the weaker workers are the first to be eliminated from the competition and forced into unemployment. The effect of this on work for the blind in all the civilized countries is felt in two ways: on the one hand, a more intensive occupational program in work for the blind has been introduced in order to support the already existing occupations and to find new openings; on the other, workers for the blind have tried to determine whether there might be other measures that would guarantee an economic security to the blind. And this is the question with which we are now dealing.

I am sure that many, perhaps most, of the men and women who have found (and shall find) their life work in the intellectual and vocational training of the blind will find the subject of my paper a sad one. It seems as though a painstakingly erected building were falling into ruins. But we must be courageous enough to confess openly that the affairs of the world are of more importance than the cares of the individual. Difficulties have appeared that can hardly be overcome by the normal, mentally sound and ambitious person; for the handicapped person they are insurmountable, if he is not given special and effective help. Therefore, we must consider a pension for the blind as such a special relief measure required by the needs of the time. This designation may make an otherwise unpopular idea more attractive. The necessity of a pension for the blind, however, is becoming more and more widely recognized; for instance, the second German Congress for the Welfare of the Blind (*Blindenwohlfahrtskongress*) in 1927 declared itself unanimously for the pension. This vote was repeated at the third Congress for the Welfare of the Blind in 1930, the recommendation being worded as follows:

"The third Congress for the Welfare of the Blind, meeting July 30 to August 2, 1930, in Nürnberg, and jointly representing the German teachers of the blind, the civilian blind of Germany and the German workers for the blind, for the second time presents this urgent request to the German nation, to the Reichstag, and to the Government:

Help the blind in their intolerably bitter need by giving them a government pension! Three years ago the second Congress for the Welfare of the Blind applied to the legislative and public authorities concerning the same subject, but without result. In the meantime, the condition of the labor market of the blind has grown constantly worse, and the misery among them still more appalling. Since it is already impossible to find employment for millions of seeing workers, and since this phenomenon has devel-

oped into a permanent condition not dependent on the variations in business conditions, it is hardly to be expected from even the best welfare agency for the blind that it should care for its charges mainly through finding them opportunities for remunerative employment. Only a third of the blind can be counted as capable of working, as the other two-thirds consist of old people who have lost their sight late in life, and of those with other handicaps; in short, of people completely unfitted for real work. On June 6, 1928, we presented to the German Reichstag a complete draft of a law that would take care of the needy blind by means of a pension. Again, and with stronger emphasis, we demand today that this legislative measure be put through. Only a pension will alleviate the needs of the blind."

As you all know, pensions for the blind have already been introduced in England, Australia and a few states of the United States of America; while in other countries, such as Sweden, Denmark, Russia and France, the demand for such a measure is steadily increasing. The fact that these activities were started in quite different parts of the world at almost the same time indicates that they are not concerned with something fallacious or without purpose as is sometimes asserted by the opponents of this movement. The reasons given against the introduction of a government pension may be summarized as follows: the more ethical and more worthy idea of making the blind economically independent through their own efforts is particularly sacrificed in the struggle for a pension, thereby tending to make the responsible participation of the blind in public and social life very much harder; the decline of the so-called "blind occupations" can be balanced by admitting a higher percentage of the blind into regular industry, while, in addition, an attempt should be made to facilitate the entrance of the blind into the professions; further, there is danger that the introduction of a pension for the blind will lessen the interest of the general public in their employment; and lastly, the most serious effect of the pension is considered to be the incentive for idleness and the probable decline in the blind person's sense of responsibility.

Probably, ladies and gentlemen, we are all of the opinion that the primary object of work for the blind is to reach that goal, set up a century ago, of creating an economically assured existence for the blind. We will not deny that in the introduction of such a novel plan, some faults will appear; but where actual experiences are not yet available, they must first be gathered so that they can be made use of. It is not to be taken for granted

that the will to work would be so strongly impaired by the existence of a government pension; the knowledge and inclinations gathered by the young blind in the institutions and by the adult blind in the school of life will surely assert themselves to a considerable extent. With the blind, the wish for appreciation and esteem becomes stronger as the likelihood increases that he can reach an economically independent position through his own efforts. The chances of ever having this wish fulfilled, however, have grown so slight for a great, perhaps an overwhelming, number of the young blind that, without doubt, it must have a paralyzing effect upon their enjoyment of their work. Realizations of the fond hopes regarding blind workers in factories have not been up to expectations because, on the one hand, only a very small part of the blind can be considered for this kind of work; while on the other hand, there are always certain limitations in wage scales. The blind father of a family cannot possibly support himself and his dependents on the same wages as an unmarried female factory worker. Only really healthy and determined blind people can endure for years the nerve-racking work in a factory; and we must remember that the number of physically healthy blind people is not very large. The lack of one sense, perhaps the most important one, exerts too strong and destructive an influence on mind and body.

For the brain worker—the academically educated person—the occupational conditions are at least as difficult as for the laborer, the piano tuner, or the factory worker. Because of the necessity of providing for a reader and for other assistance in his work, and because of the limited field of employment, his chances of finding work suitable to his ability and knowledge are diminished. If, by himself, he succeeds in attaining a satisfactory position, the exhausting difficulties of doing so will have already consumed much of his strength; even if he is relieved of this care by a specially appointed vocational agent, good results cannot always be guaranteed in spite of the experience and influence of this agent. The overflow of job seekers in the few vocations open to blind brain workers is large in all countries, and in Germany, particularly, it is so large that for the blind to secure a higher education is like a *va banque* game. From this, it is logical to draw the inference that the young blind person should have some means at his disposal which makes it possible for him to exist without remunerative work, if need be. This plain fact is recognized by all. The benevolent attitude of the employer towards the blind war veteran is not carried over to the civilian blind. There

are obvious proofs of this, but the hopes that have been entertained concerning the development of vocational opportunities for all blind brain and hand workers are founded, in great measure, on the favorable results obtained from the rehabilitation of the war blind.

Finally, there is one oft-mentioned point for which there is no foundation; that is, if a pension were allotted to the blind, the other handicapped classes should in fairness get a similar provision. With the blind it is a question of a special case in which the economic and social consequences cannot be compared to the effects of any other handicap. Blindness, as opposed to mental deficiency, carries with it a twofold handicap of limited working ability and a need for social esteem. For the mentally unsound, the granting of a pension is of no importance, as in most cases they will be cared for in institutions; while the deaf and the crippled have, after all, far more opportunities for employment than have the blind. These facts cannot be overlooked in an impartial consideration of the subject. The representatives of the political parties in those countries where the pension for the blind has been introduced have realized these facts and made their decisions accordingly.

It is still to be determined which classes will benefit most by the granting of a pension to the blind. It will give the blind person, throughout his whole life, a nest-egg to which he may successfully add according to his own abilities. The following advantages can be especially mentioned: achievement of a higher education; facilitation of establishment in a vocation after training has been finished or the academic studies completed; support during a trial period following the entrance into a permanent position; compensation for inferior income as compared with that of the seeing worker in the same calling; assistance for the brain worker so that he can hire help for reading, shorthand and typing; economic security during unemployment and illness; and last, but not least, sufficient support in old age. I have not exhausted here the list of advantages of the pension, but what has been said will show how well-founded is the demand.

As mentioned before, we can answer all theoretical objections by pointing out the fact that in a few countries the condition of the blind has already improved with the granting of a pension. It is well known to you, ladies and gentlemen, who are in leading positions in work for the blind, how this form of social welfare is turning out in those countries alluded to. In the last few years the subject has been discussed in most European periodicals, so

that I will not go into it here. One fundamental thought, however, should be brought out. The granting of a pension to the blind should not and will not take away from them their obligation of personal ambition towards gainful work. The pension should be considered as a compensation for their greatly diminished capacity for making a living, and as a help towards meeting the necessary expenses of life where, otherwise, the income is obviously insufficient.

In whatever way and in whatever words one chooses to present this relief measure for the blind, the determining factor will always be the financial condition of the country. The willingness of the parliaments to improve welfare administration can be realized only if the individual government is able to do so. At this time, the economic condition of most countries is not favorable, and the prospects for introduction of pensions for the blind cannot be considered as good. In Germany, perhaps, the conditions are especially unfavorable; we German blind, therefore, are not very confident concerning the granting of our demand. The parties in the German Reichstag, to whom we presented our petition this year, assure us of their sympathy and good-will; but at the same time they point out that the German Government now has the right to refuse the execution of any resolutions of the National Assembly, if the necessary means are not available. Other parties point out that, in their opinion, a special consideration towards the blind in preference to the other handicapped groups (the deaf and the crippled) is not justified; a special provision such as the blind propose for themselves should be extended to all physically handicapped.

In conclusion, Ladies and Gentlemen, permit me to say that, in the interest of all concerned, the necessity of a special provision for the blind cannot be denied by anybody who has once realized fully the difficulties and the great need that follow the blind all their lives. May this comprehension be shared by all those who are responsible for the welfare of their countrymen.

DISCUSSION

CHAIRMAN GLOVER: When I contemplate this subject of State aid and of pensions for the blind, I am sometimes reminded of a story relating to a lady who was on a ship which was tossed about in a terrific state at sea. She rushed up to the captain and asked where was the nearest land. Absent-mindedly, he replied, "One mile down." I think that sometimes we feel that we have to go about one mile down in order to find anything that is solid and absolutely dependable. We call upon the State for relief; we know that help is needed and we turn to the State for it, but we have rather little encouragement sometimes in getting adequate assistance.

Captain Fraser's suggestion that if we go in the right spirit we can get almost anything that we want, is very encouraging and has an element of practicality in it. Perhaps that is the secret of the matter.

HERR ERNST JÖRGENSEN (DENMARK): I have had the good fortune to read Dr. Gaebler-Knibbe's paper on this interesting problem, and I saw that Dr. Gaebler-Knibbe had written that we have no pension for the blind in Denmark. I am not going to "blow the horn" for Denmark, but I am going to correct this mistake. We haven't a special pension for the blind, but we have an invalid insurance. You know, perhaps, that the Danish people are rather co-operative folk. We have a sickness insurance, voluntary, but it includes a very, very great part of the whole population, and connected with this insurance we have an invalid insurance, and under this the blind, of course, get their pension. It is not very great, if you exchange it into American dollars—about \$220—but, by good luck, of course, it means a bit more at home.

What I want to say is that we are just going to reform our whole system of social care, and in the bill before Parliament just now is a paragraph which may have some interest. It gives a supplementary grant to blind people, more than the other invalids get, and we have been trying to get this suggestion into the Parliament discussion. This project of a new law includes a paragraph saying that any invalid is entitled to get spectacles, artificial limbs and any other means of help which will enable him to overcome the worst effects of his disability. The law by this paragraph expresses its willingness to help invalids to overcome the worst effects of their disability, but you cannot do that for a blind man without helping him to pay for some slight assistance. If I may so express it, you will have to serve him with a living artificial eye.

Another argument we used was this: The need of assistance always grows together with the activities of the blind man; the more he does the more assistance he asks for. And, of course, the general argument includes always that he should be allowed whatever he needs to work with.

DR. CARL STREHL (GERMANY): I was very much interested in the instructive papers given by Captain Fraser, M. Guinot and Dr. Gaebler.

Now, I am a man who always thinks that we ought to try to relieve one another. I know very well that the blind must themselves try to get into life and get into touch with life. Unhappily, there are very few blind people who are leaders of the blind, who have the right sentiment and the right spirit, and right there is the difficulty. We can't work without assistance, without voluntary help, and we can't work without the State. Therefore, we must try with all these three; that is, the State and the authorities; voluntary help or assistance; and self-aid, working together hand in hand.

We have this plan in Germany, and this three-fold plan is working very well indeed. As long as we all stick together we get everything as far as the means of our government will go; but if we go further, and if we try to get aid, not only by general appeal but by going on the street, I am afraid we will get just knocks, we will get the worst. I am quite sure that the poor condition of the blind can be helped, and someone found to help them, and therefore I should be very much obliged if a motion could be carried that this International Conference requests that all governments, all nations, prepare some legislation to help the blind in general.

If this is possible, I am sure we will succeed, especially in helping those who are not able to work; but, first of all, what I am asking for is work. We want those capable of work to get places, positions, to be able to carry on what their capacities enable them to do, and if there is no way of giving them work, then, of course, we must ask for pensions for them; but first of all, work.

DR. ALEKSEJ ZÁHOR (CZECHOSLOVAKIA): The condition of the blind in Czechoslovakia is similar to that in other countries of Central Europe. In spite of the good proposals made here in the past few days concerning the subject, it is not easy to settle the employment problem of the blind, because only a small percentage of them will be able to gain independence by their own work. Everybody—therefore, also the blind person—has the right to a dignified human living. When I say “dignified human living,” I mean, to live in a community as a useful and valued member, with all the duties and the responsibilities that involves. This includes, of course, the duty of doing work and the possibility of perfecting oneself for a dignified human living by receiving for such work a living wage.

There is no doubt that if one has a sense of self-respect, it helps one's mental outlook, and without it one is often thrown back upon society, which has to pay. It is, therefore, the duty of society, which is represented by the State, to induce a better mental attitude in the blind person.

I agree with Captain Fraser and Dr. Gaebler-Knibbe and Dr. Strehl in the motion, and I hope that all nations present will second it, to appeal to the governments of all civilized countries where this pension is not yet an actuality, and endeavor to make it an actuality.

HERR ALRIK LUNDBERG (SWEDEN): First, I have heartily to congratulate Dr. Gaebler-Knibbe upon his very interesting paper, which is, in my opinion, one of the most important on the program of this Conference. Dr. Gaebler-Knibbe has covered the subject in a most exhaustive way from all points of view, I think, and has also succeeded in meeting the objections and arguments I thought might be raised against a system of adequate relief to be realized through the method of regular pensions. He has shown us how the growing unemployment in the world of sightless people will lead, day by day, to lessening of their opportunities for remunerative work given to many blind people; that there is only one remedy to employ in the blind community all over the world, and this remedy is an economic compensation for loss of sight, and loss of occupation—a compensation enabling them to live under tolerable conditions, as Dr. Gaebler-Knibbe pointed out. It may be that a personal financial aid is not the best one, and that they are not favoring the adaption in any country of expensive schemes of pension. But, to be sure, we must hope for better times, and then we ought to be fully prepared to get to work upon a definite solution of this problem.

There is nothing but danger in delay. Don't let this World Conference go into its grave without striking a powerful blow in favor of the resolution—a blow which must sound and resound in the ears of all those responsible for humanity and justice towards a considerable group of mankind. If you agree with me upon this point, I entreat you to support and to have carried through, after due consideration by the Conference assembled, a recommendation to the following effect:

The World Conference on Work for the Blind, New York, 1931, representing thirty signed nations, recommends, with a view to ameliorating the

condition of the blind, that governments in the respective countries may see to it that measures be taken as soon as can be towards the enacting of legislation for pensions in order to meet the urgent and growing needs of millions of men and women who are suffering from the terrible affliction of blindness and unemployment. Won't you help us?

CHAIRMAN GLOVER: You understand that this Conference has no official standing and does not entertain resolutions, but the resolution, the form of resolution, becomes a recommendation for our consideration and action.

MR. CLUTHA MACKENZIE (NEW ZEALAND): I wish to speak for a few moments regarding our experience in New Zealand, where we have had a pension for the blind for seven years.

In 1922 I was in the New Zealand Parliament, and we at that time set up a commission of inquiry into the welfare of the blind. That commission set up recommendations covering the whole field of blind welfare work: schools, workshops, outside occupations, field work, pensions, and the invalid and aged blind. The pension came into force very shortly afterwards. We had no need of such methods as have been suggested by our French colleague to secure it; we got it through Parliament by co-operation, without any difficulty whatever. And, on the other hand, speaking after seven years' experience, it has brought none of the evil results which have been predicted in various countries by opponents of pensions for the blind. It has resulted only in the greatest possible benefit.

The pension is not a very large one; on the other hand, however, it is a particularly interesting provision. The pension provides a weekly sum of 17s. 6d. In terms applicable to other countries, I should say that that sum in our country will provide ample food and clothing for a person who is living with his or her own people.

In addition to that sum, there is granted a bonus, which is granted as a part of the pension of 25 per cent of the average weekly earnings up until the total sum from all sources of £3:12:6 per week is reached. That is not, perhaps, the minimum which we would like to see; we would like to see a higher minimum. But, at any rate, it has worked extraordinarily well in enabling the less efficient blind worker, of which we all agree we have so many, to become entirely independent. It has been of the utmost possible benefit to that large class of blind people who either from disabilities, ill-health, and so on, cannot follow any occupation at all.

In conclusion, I would say that from our experience with seven years' pensions—I speak as director of the workshops for the blind, a voluntary agency—I can only give it the very strongest recommendation, and hope that this Conference may exert considerable influence in bringing about similar pensions in other countries.

REV. ARTHUR W. BLAXALL (SOUTH AFRICA): In two or three words, with all the power that I can, I wish to support what has been said by Dr. Strehl and Mr. Lundberg, and to ask those who are responsible for preparing resolutions for us to consider when we come back, to include a very strongly worded resolution from this Conference to all the governments of the world, asking them to adopt legislative measures for the relief and help of the blind. I feel that a resolution of this sort is immensely important, because it will be something practical for those of us who come from small countries and countries where work for the blind is in its infancy.

I do not intend to weary you by talking about the conditions in the country that I represent, beyond stating that with a population of a million and a quarter Europeans and six and a half million black people, we have hardly begun our work amongst the blind. Except education, which has been established for thirty or forty years, every other form of work—welfare work, social work, home teaching, libraries—is all in its infancy, and we have no form of support from the government beyond a very tiny subsidy which is given to the schools. So that you will see that, coming to such a Conference as this, one comes to learn much, and one hopes to go back and do something, and I should be strengthening myself and I believe there are others here who will also be strengthened by having a really strong resolution to take back and put to our government, and say that this is the opinion of a Conference gathered from all parts of the world, and personally I hope it is going to be unanimous when it is passed.

CHAIRMAN GLOVER: Mr. Neary has a resolution which I am asking Mr. Van Cleve to read for him, please.

MR. EDWARD N. VAN CLEVE (U. S. A.): Of course, again I would say that it is not to be acted upon as a resolution, but merely as a recommendation. This is the resolution which Mr. Neary desires to have read:

“Seeing that there are so many blind people existing in dire distress, and as blindness is invariably accompanied by poverty, we, the representatives of organizations and institutions for the blind, assembled at this International Conference for the Blind, call upon the governments of all countries to provide pensions for all blind persons over school age, at rates not less than the minimum pensions paid to British blinded soldiers and sailors, and that such provision shall not contain any means, disqualifications, or demeaning condition of any kind, as a reduction of such pension is harmful to the majority of the blind, and has a disheartening and discouraging influence on the industrial and professional blind.”

Copies of this resolution to be sent to all the governments who have been invited by President Hoover to take part in this Conference.

CHAIRMAN GLOVER: We will refer that to our Rapporteur for further consideration. Mr. Neary, you may discuss this matter.

MR. J. P. NEARY (IRISH FREE STATE): I have had some experience with the question concerning the blind legislation. I was Irish representative to Mr. Lloyd George when he was Prime Minister in 1920. I took part in a movement which was organized by the National League for the Blind, and which was to help the blind; but that blind movement, although in existence for eleven years, has done very little for many blind people, not only in Ireland, but also, I understand from the English blind, very little in many parts of England and Wales. The British representatives can correct that statement if it is not correct.

In Ireland there are many blind people who are getting only \$1 a week, and although they have no other means of existence, that is all they receive; but if they are taught means of working in their own homes, they get 50 cents instead of receiving \$1. After that it is stopped, so that it is a discouragement to them to do any work at all. But in the case of blind soldiers and sailors, their minimum pension is £2 a week, or in American money, about \$10; but the amount which they may earn in addition to that is added to the pension, and although rightly so, I would ask the blind

soldiers who are present at this Conference to show that the blind at this Conference—many of whom have lost their sight in aid of the nation—that those soldiers have a right to compensation from the State, and are entitled, if not on those grounds, at least on the grounds of human consideration.

MR. HENRY HEDGER (AUSTRALIA): I wasn't going to go into the matter this morning about what the blind are given in Australia by way of pensions, but as it seems to be an international subject, I would like to let you know as briefly as I can what is done for the blind in Australia.

The Australian people claim they have done more for their blind people during the last fifteen or twenty years than any nation under the sun. It was the first nation, I believe, to give old-age pensions for women sixty years of age and for men of sixty-five years of age.

Fifteen years ago they brought in a pension for the blind, where every blind person in the community from sixteen years of age upwards receives £1 a week, equal to \$5. In addition to that pension, the Institute I represent gives a man, for instance, something like \$9 a week in learning a trade. He gets \$9 a week and \$5 or \$6 a week, whichever it is, from the government. That would bring him up to \$14 to start learning his trade.

In addition to that, we provide him with doctor and medicines. Every man gets his doctor and medicines, and his sick pay without contribution, not only for himself, but for his wife and family. In addition to that, every man is provided with a yearly ticket over the railway lines within a radius of thirty miles, so that he can come in to work free of charge. In addition to that, he may ride on the tram cars for a penny, over six routes, and if a man is without funds or means other than what he receives from the institution, we give him his clothes, if that is a necessity.

So that, taken altogether, we think that the blind in Australia are treated very well indeed. When you come to consider that a man can get \$14 or \$15 a week before he earns one penny a week, you can see that blind persons are very well assisted in the way of money allowances to enable them to live while learning a trade.

When he learns a trade, he gets a bonus running up to 50 per cent. That is, if a man is very slow, he gets up to 50 per cent; we have some who are earning as much as 300 per cent. They get their money brought up to £2 a week, and in addition to that, as I told you before, they get £1 a week pension. So this means that an old chap who can't do much, if he has only got the earning power of 10s. a week, is given £2 for that 10s., and as he gets £1 a week in addition as pension, he gets £3 a week for earning only ten shillings. I think anybody will agree that that is most liberal treatment in regards to the monthly allowances as made in Australia.

If the boys haven't any friends, we have a hostelry to receive them. They are allowed to keep their £1 a week pension; we don't charge them anything for board and lodging during the first six months. When they get to earning 10s. a week, we charge them 7s. 6d. for board and lodging, so that they are not interfered with in regard to the money they are allowed from the pension. We have boys now seventeen years of age that are worth £2:5:0 a week, that is something like \$10 a week, at seventeen years of age.

But in regard to pensions, although we find that the system has been a great blessing to every adult person in the community, I don't think some of them get quite enough at £1 a week; still we do think, and we have

learned by experience, that granting a pension to the young blind at sixteen years of age, as soon as they leave school, has a very, very detrimental effect upon their character and work during their afterlife.

Sixteen years ago I interviewed the Prime Minister of Australia, who said he recognized the value of industrial institutions for the blind, and quite agreed with what I said. He stated he would make the pension applicable at twenty-one years of age, so that they could get a certain amount of industrial training between the time they had left school and the age of twenty-one, and they would be able then to have sufficient, with their pension, for a living. He said, of course, the institution would guarantee enough to keep them in the meantime.

Well, when they had that amendment drawn up and put before the Federal Parliament, the Labor Party threw it out. The consequence is that the blind, as soon as they leave school at sixteen years of age, have £1 a week hanging up in their stocking, which is not all they are going to get, and they think they are made for life, and the consequence is they don't care twopence about work or anything else, and they are growing up illiterate and idle throughout the whole Commonwealth.

I simply mention this for the sake of those who advocate the pension for young blind. In an experience of fifty years among the blind, I find it a great mistake and that it has had a very, very detrimental effect. The younger blind have not taken up work. These poor girls and boys are growing up in idleness and come to us now in after life, sometimes at forty and forty-five years of age, when it is too late to make wage-earners of them.

M. PAUL GUINOT (FRANCE): Where pensions are concerned, I think one particular point must be made clear. For myself, I consider that, the nature and form of pension necessarily differing in different countries, no uniformity is possible. But in my view, whatever procedure be followed, one thing must be kept in mind: namely, that in every country the blind experience the common difficulty of getting about. The assistance of another person is required at all times and in all places. For this assistance I claim that the pension should be so conceived as to cover the expenses of guides.

I take advantage of my return to the floor to express to the Organizing Committee of this Conference the gratitude of the National Federation of the Civilian Blind. In organizing in New York a World Conference for the study of questions concerning the blind, the United States has rendered an immense service to the blind of the whole world and I am grateful to it. The National Federation of the French Civilian Blind offers its sincere thanks for the present opportunity of recommending to all countries the enactment of a law for the social protection of all the blind.

CHAIRMAN GLOVER: This morning we have touched upon the most controversial subjects, probably, that enter into work for the blind. We have discussed a subject that does not require so much controversy, that does not stimulate so much controversy, namely, that of voluntary visiting and home teaching, but which carries with it some of the most important services that can be rendered to the blind. That is the field in which versatility, originality, and a very deep sincerity can express itself.

In regard to State responsibility and State aid, we found rather sharp distinctions in view point. We find, on the one hand, a very strong and

insistent demand for certain help, because it is a right. On the other hand, a result that we should not demand, but should ask in the name of humanity and in the name of justice., simply that of natural right. The part that the State should play, and the responsibility that the State should assume, of course varies, and the function cannot be easily decided upon by a large number of people, as you will agree, and different nations, different governments, will respond in different ways. However, the consensus of opinion undoubtedly is that such assistance as is needed, beyond the point of pauperization, should be granted, and the State should certainly play an important part in it. The humanitarian or voluntary service is in no way restricted, and it is to be regretted that we could not go further and could not have spent more time, but some very valuable literature has been presented to us at this Conference which well deserves our time and our study when we return to our homes.

SECTION 6

ROUND TABLES

WAYS AND MEANS IN PLANNING SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

Organizer: O. H. BURRITT, D. Sc., *Principal, Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, Overbrook, Philadelphia*

In opening the meeting, Dr. Burritt defined the phrase "school activities" to include only *activities—organized and voluntary—outside the usual school routine*. School activities within this definition, he said, were promoted in large measure through pupils' planning, through staff participation, and through organizations and individuals outside the school.

On the well-known principle that we "learn to do by doing," pupils should be encouraged to take the initiative in organizing extra-curricular activities, as a means of securing a practical education, learning self-confidence and self-reliance, and developing qualities of leadership, he said.

More effective than teacher and staff leadership (the stereotyped method of developing pupil activities in our residential schools), is teacher participation *under pupil leadership*, he continued. Such a program would place the responsibility upon the pupils, who would learn thus to carry responsibility. Not every teacher could subordinate his adult methods to those of the immature adolescent; but those who could, made a valuable contribution toward the development of the pupils through self-activity.

Dr. Burritt suggested that, though life in a residential school was extremely artificial and circumscribed, it could be broadened and made more natural by affiliation with organizations and individuals outside the school. Every reasonable effort should be made to establish these outside contacts, he said, so that young people might acquire a more accurate notion of the capabilities of educated blind people. Among ways and means used for developing normalizing school activities he named:

Camp Fire, Girl and Boy Scout Troops. In residential schools for the blind it had been found most feasible to organize troops within the school, membership in these troops being restricted to the pupils. A teacher or an officer of the school was usually selected as guardian, adviser, or scoutmaster. Some secured leaders outside the school—an arrangement that brought into shut-in lives the outside interests so much needed. In such work the

Full names, titles and official connections of speakers will be found on pp. 548-552.

importance of small groups should be stressed; if possible, small groups of blind boys and girls should be distributed among those who see. Though this might be difficult to do, the question should always be—What is best for the pupils?

Sunday School classes. Some schools have the Sunday school classes at the school, taught by the teachers of the school. In others, the pupils go out to classes at various churches—a valuable means of contact with the world outside the school. Classifying these children according to their several ages and abilities, and assigning them to the regular classes is preferable to having them put into “the blind class,” said Dr. Burritt.

Activities within the school. Most schools have debating or literary societies for the boys and girls. Some schools have voluntary religious organizations or athletic associations. In one school which has maintained an athletic association for many years, all the boys over fourteen years of age belong to it, and the teachers, too, participate in it. Dances are held through the athletic association from time to time, and these foster and encourage outside contacts.

Mr. George B. Fryer spoke of the activities planned for the forty boys of his school in China. Naturally, they differed somewhat from school activities in America, he said. The first one undertaken was to train a band, which proved to be a helpful factor in getting the public and the government to realize that a school for the blind was needed in China. Then debating societies were formed among the boys; also a Christian Endeavor Society, which met regularly; chorus work, too, was developed; and games were encouraged in which outsiders were invited to participate. Once a month the boys act a play, which, he said, they often write themselves, and every two or three months they go through their entire repertory of entertainments—a plan which promotes a sense of self-reliance and responsibility.

Miss Gertrude Reess told of the music activities among the pupils of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, Overbrook, and said that their orchestra was started under the leadership of a boy who had had considerable musical training. This lad found among the boys a good drummer; also a cornet player and a saxophone player, both of whom had already received musical instruction, and these formed the nucleus of the orchestra. Great interest in the orchestra is shown by the boys, particularly by those who are not much interested in regular school work, said Miss Reess. It plays for dances at the school, and is generally thought to be better than some paid orchestras.

Overbrook also has a glee club of twenty-five girls, Miss Reess continued. The girls sing three-part music, and entertain at church affairs, Lions' Clubs, etc.—contacts with the outside world which are very helpful to them educationally. People are glad to take the girls in their cars to the various places where they sing. So well established is the glee club, that a fee of \$5 is now charged for an evening's entertainment, transportation being furnished the singers.

Mr. Clutha Mackenzie said that his school in New Zealand also had a band, but as there were only thirty pupils in the school, members of the band were drawn not only from the school but from among the adult blind who were also under the school's charge. Eighteen months after its formation, the band made a tour of New Zealand and this resulted in a net profit of \$5,000 and proved an excellent means of publicity. The school had also a dance orchestra which accepted engagements within a radius of fifty miles—a means of making outside friends as well as providing the boys with pocket-money. A junior boys' band and a girls' orchestra were being developed. As a reward for good service in the band, Mr. Mackenzie explained, the prospect of a tour was held out to the boys. Each boy selected to go on a tour received a bonus of \$25.

In the New Zealand school, too, all pupils were taught to dance. Boys and girls were allowed to mingle once a month for social functions. These affairs were entirely under the charge of the pupils, who acted as hosts, etc. Two annual holidays of a week each were spent by the pupils at the seaside or on the hills, where they enjoyed camp life, riding, outdoor games, etc.

Mr. Henry Hedger, of Australia, gave an outline of the training of blind children in regard to amusements and athletics, as it was carried out in the Australian school of which his son is the head.

Music, said Mr. Hedger, was a part of the usual curriculum. There was a pupils' orchestra which played four nights a week, and a jazz band which, during 1930, earned as much as £1,800, its members being paid at rates similar to those paid to seeing musicians. Contact with seeing children was always encouraged, he said. Every day, pupils from a nearby school for seeing children took part in games with the blind. Dancing was taught, particularly the five national dances; cricket was played on a field 200 yards square; rowing was indulged in on a lake in the school grounds, for which sport specially designed boats (heavier than the usual light rowing skiffs) were used; running, bicycle-riding,

swimming, hurdle-jumping, and football were other games in which the boys were encouraged to become proficient.

Mr. A. J. Caldwell, of Louisiana, reminded his audience that there were two types of outside activities in which pupils engage: (1) those for publicity purposes, which resulted in keeping the children together as a group, and induced a desire among them to excel in public; and (2) those which promoted individual social development. He thought it a good idea to let the children go on tours, but not to use school time for this purpose. Programs might be given during the week-end, he suggested, the children leaving on Friday afternoon and returning on Sunday night. He did not advocate all-musical programs, as this practice often led to the conclusion among lay people that all blind people were musical. It was a custom in the Louisiana School for a group of Camp Fire Girls to prepare short plays. These had proved very popular with the townspeople, he said, and the public, after getting to know the girls in this way, often invited them to their homes. In accepting such invitations, it was found best for the social adjustment and the independence of the girls, to allow them to go one at a time, or, occasionally, in pairs.

A week-end camp for Boy Scouts and one for Camp Fire Girls, established by the Rotary Club, had proved an excellent means of contact between seeing children and the blind, continued Mr. Caldwell. An athletic club had been helpful, too. An athletic meet between a high school for seeing boys and the blind boys of the Louisiana School had recently been arranged. In regard to Sunday school work, Mr. Caldwell said that all the pupils went to their own churches, preferably in groups of twos and threes, and going to Sunday school was considered a privilege. Blind pupils were classified according to age, generally, he said, and sometimes there was not more than one blind child in a Sunday school class. Once, he had found a Sunday school with a "class for blind girls" but that was soon changed.

Mr. E. Chesley Allen spoke of the Sunday school work in his school in Halifax, Nova Scotia. There, two methods had been tried: First, a Sunday school at the school for the blind with volunteer workers as teachers; next, allowing the pupils to go out to the various churches in the town. The latter method had proved a most fruitful source of forming friendships.

Compulsory and voluntary debating societies had both been tried in his school, Mr. Allen continued, and they had found the quality of the debates was far better when debating became a voluntary activity. Camp Fire Girls and Boy Scouts were, in his

opinion, wonderful organizations for character- and citizenship-building, and most helpful as a means of contact between seeing and blind groups.

Mr. L. W. Rodenberg mentioned that at the School for the Blind at Jacksonville, Illinois, the rule that "parents are welcome as visitors at all times" had proved helpful to both parents and pupils. On the occasion of parents' visits, pupils were allowed to give little parties.

The school had an orchestra and a jazz band which formerly played for dances, but, Mr. Rodenberg explained, activities had to cease because the band became so good that the Musicians' Union objected to its playing.

Mr. Gordon Hicks mentioned the local spelling contests which gave a trip for a prize. Every year, he said, a pupil from the school for the blind at Hartford, Connecticut, was an entrant in such a contest. In athletic meets, too, the boys seemed anxious to compete. He told of a recent request of his pupils to be allowed to compete in certain events in a public school athletic contest sponsored by the Rotary Club.

Mr. Jacob Bausch, of Cleveland, expressed agreement with other speakers as to the importance of including music in the ordinary school curriculum. He warned against combining blind and seeing persons in an orchestra. Speaking from experience, audiences were disappointed, he said, if the "blind orchestra" was found to be not all blind.

Herr Paul Grasemann, of Germany, advocated the use of a question box. In his school in Soest, Westphalia, pupils were encouraged to write out any question they wished to ask and drop the slip of paper in a box for that purpose. Then, once a week, all would meet to hear the answers—an occasion of much interest for the pupils, he said.

Another thing emphasized in the Soest school, Herr Grasemann continued, was the development of manual skill through the voluntary use of tools outside class assignments. From a large tool box each pupil was allowed to choose the tool he preferred to work with.

Herr Grasemann then raised the questions: Should older boys be allowed to go freely into the town to get acquainted with its sounds and movements? Should blind pupils be allowed to play as they like—to climb trees, etc.? If so, was the institution liable for accidents?

Answering these questions, Miss M. M. R. Garaway, of Great Britain, told of her twenty-five years' experience in a school for

blind boys where the pupils were allowed to go out freely and where, in all that time, not a single accident had occurred. The boys, however, were not allowed to go out entirely alone. A boy with slight vision would accompany one totally blind. Visitors and parents would take the pupils out, too. Games, particularly football and cricket, were a source of real pleasure and interest to the boys. They formed their own athletic guild, arranged their sports as they liked, challenged seeing teams, and had their own committee to deal with the matter of rules and offenders, said Miss Garaway.

Various student activities were next discussed, and Mr. Gill mentioned the Y. M. C. A. and Red Cross work done among the boys of the Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind, at Staunton. The boys, he said, elected their own officers and conducted their own meetings. A questionnaire drawn up to find out what topics the pupils were most interested in had elicited from them the following: 1. Personal religion; 2. The proper relationship between boys and girls; 3. What is my life's work to be? Able speakers were then chosen to discuss these points, he said.

Another activity which evoked great interest among the children was correspondence with blind children of other nations, said Mr. Fryer. This activity had proved helpful to his boys in geography and in influencing their social viewpoint, he had found.

Mr. Umaji Akiba told of the custom prevailing in his country of having an annual meeting of champion athletes from the various schools for the blind throughout Japan. They met at a selected school and the winning school carried off the special "Champions' Banner."

In summing up, Dr. Burritt said that the discussion had emphasized the thought that volunteer activities, under guidance, are valuable developers of character, and it had also stressed the value of outside contacts. Though in a previous session of the Conference several had advocated getting rid of the special residential school, he found a need for it still existed. In conclusion, Dr. Burritt said that teachers of the blind must endeavor to develop the pupil's initiative, to let him learn by making mistakes, and, above all, not to institutionalize him.

PURPOSES IN EDUCATION: FOR LIFE AND FOR A LIVING

Organizer: J. T. HOOPER, *Superintendent, Wisconsin School
for the Blind, Janesville, Wisconsin*

Mr. Hooper opened the discussion with the following remarks:

"The principle on which this country was founded is that of equal rights for all—an idea which has come to be expressed in terms of 'a right to equal opportunities.' It is only within the last quarter of a century, however, that this principle has come to be applied to the blind, and that we have come to consider the blind as a part of the people, born free and equal with the others.

"From discussions brought out this morning, it seems that every child has a right to a free, uninterfered-with development of all that is best and capable in him. Even before he enters school, those who have the education of the child in charge must consider what the child is, what his tendencies are, and what he ought to be when his school days are over.

"First, the child has a right to unhindered physical development; he should be given all possible assistance to this end. He has a right to enough and proper food. All children are not given this right, therefore it becomes the duty of the state and of society to see that every child has proper and sufficient food. The child has a right to fresh air and sunshine; to physical exercise; to play in playgrounds. It is the duty and one of the purposes of education to see that the child gets all these things.

"Second, he has a right to as much intellectual development as he is capable of attaining. The school should be a happy, wholesome place. It should be that sort of institution or organization which says to every child who is entitled to come, 'We invite you.' It should be the place where the child is happier than anywhere else; the place that recognizes what he has to start with and what he is capable of becoming. His textbooks should be the best, the most modern, and the most adaptable to his needs. The supplementary books given him should be such as are most likely to put him in touch with the best minds, both of the past and the present. Newspapers, periodicals, and all other paraphernalia and apparatus used, should be chosen with the purpose of bringing the child into touch with things which his mind is capable of grasping, and thus aid in his intellectual development. His environment, too, should be such that it will bring out the best that is in him.

"Third, he has a right to social development. This means a great deal, especially in our residential schools. How easy it is to give too narrow a life, as in the institution! Children should grow up with the social graces, which give not only an outlook on life in school but are of benefit in life after school. How many are handicapped not only by their blindness but by a lack of social education! They don't know how to meet people; they don't make a good appearance; they have habits and tendencies which repel rather than attract. We should keep in mind, therefore, that one of the many purposes of education is to develop the social graces which make for a more pleasing, more helpful, more efficient man or woman.

"Fourth, he has a right to vocational training. I differ with some of the papers read this morning which seemed to contain the idea that an intellectual training or an academic training should be given first, and a vocational training afterwards. Personally, I believe that every child has a right to start his vocational training immediately. I believe that when we wait until a child has finished the academic work before we begin to train his hands and to find out his vocational tendencies, we lose a period in which his most pronounced tendencies are shown. And I believe that, right along with the academic training, and without using more time, we can give a training along vocational lines, keeping in view the fact that it is a general vocational training—a training that will tend to show, as far as possible, the tendencies and traits and abilities of the child in regard to his true vocation.

"Fifth, he has a right to commercial training. If we are going to give a child a broad education, no matter whether he is going into commercial life or not, that is, if we are fitting him for *life*, there is nothing we can do which will be of more value to him than training him in such a way that he will know how to handle money and to buy things.

"Lastly, there is that big and worthwhile purpose—the training of the child along moral lines. Everybody here will agree with me that that is the most important and biggest motive of all.

"Now for the other side of our subject—training to enable him to earn a living. If the training of the child for life has been done with purposes big enough so that he is a person who has the right outlook on life, and has developed his physical, mental, vocational, commercial, and moral nature to their fullest extent, we have more than three-quarters prepared him for earning his living, and the other part of his training is a very simple, though technical, matter.

"Before beginning to train a child to earn his own living, we must know two things: First, the child's or the student's capabilities and desires; second, the things in the world that correspond to his desires that are worth training him for.

"Now there are many things which blind people are capable of doing but which as a means of earning one's living are not worth two cents. Many vocations which, twenty-five years ago, were practical and worth training students for, are today absolutely obsolete. Business has changed, changed wonderfully, since the war. Manufacturing organizations have junked their entire equipment—more than once, some of them—since the war, because it was out of date. There isn't a line of industry, there isn't a line of commerce carried on today in anything like the same manner it was carried on before the World War. Therefore, the training for a vocation must, in many instances, be a training that is continuous, and whatever line is chosen, let it be something which will enable the child, on completion of his training, to go out into the world and really make a living at it.

"To speak more specifically: What is the use of training a boy to cane chairs when he cannot make over a dollar a day at it? What is the use of training a woman to hem garments when she cannot make fifty cents a day at it? What is the use of training blind persons to make baskets when they cannot make them in large enough quantities to earn a living doing this work? The vocation that we train for must be something that is practical, something that a person can work at continuously and can make in such quantities as will meet the demand.

"It must be remembered, though, that in ten years that very thing may become obsolete. Piano-tuning, for instance, was once a wonderful vocation for the blind, but, in Wisconsin, we have had to re-train a great many piano tuners. So I believe that institutions which train persons to earn their living, should take into consideration the fact that, after working at a trade for a few years, the former pupils may have to return for re-training, or else be re-trained in the factory in which they are working."

Mr. Riddervold, of New Hampshire, asked for more information in regard to new fields for blind workers. It was almost impossible now, he said, to find openings for the blind in factories. In regard to training, more thought should be given to the nature and ability of the child. Music, for instance, had been over-emphasized in the schools, he considered. He knew of one or two cases in New Hampshire where pupils had studied music though possessing no talent at all for the art.

Dr. R. S. French, of California, stated that in his twenty-four years' experience with the blind, he had not found that there were any special occupations for the blind. "A blind person is an individual, with perhaps an exaggeration of individual differences; we must give more attention to individual differences." He then spoke of the career of a former pupil of the California School for the Blind. The boy had little talent for music, did not do well in academic subjects, and had no vocational training. When "movies" were becoming popular, and organs were placed in the "movie" houses, he made \$125 a week playing the organ. When a slump came in the "movie-organist" business, he went back to his old home town and played in the "movies" there for \$150 a month. When the "talkies" came, he studied law, and passed the "bar" examination in two years. He had won the confidence of the community, and was elected Justice of the Peace. He was also elected to the Rotary Club—all by sheer force of personality and moral courage. Dr. French thought that the clew to education was something vastly more important than any attempt to standardize. What is needed is to develop in the pupils so much force of personality and moral courage that when they go out into the world there will be no slacking, no faltering of courage.

Mr. S. W. Starling, of England, said that, although a few blind persons succeed in entering the professions, the vast majority have to earn their living by manual occupations. Therefore, he considered that an elementary education must form the basis of their future training, and vocational training should follow. In his institution, when the question arises as to what training a person should have, the answer is generally found by considering, first of all, where the person will be employed, that is, whether in a workshop for the blind, or in his own home. If in a workshop, then he can be trained for the occupation to which he is best suited; if he is to work in his own home, then the circumstances of his environment must be taken into consideration before deciding what his occupation shall be.

Answering Mr. Riddervold's inquiry concerning practical lines in which the blind may make a living, Mr. Hooper stated that in Wisconsin, despite the present depression, employment of the blind has increased 20 to 30 per cent. Rug-weaving is the most remunerative occupation. Rugs are made in quantities and sold in quantities. The weavers make from \$900 to \$1500 a year. The agency has a Sales Department with a director who organizes the work of the salesmen. The agency is financed by a revolving fund, originally given by the Alumni Association. It buys the

raw materials, supplies them to the weavers at cost, then collects the rugs and sells them at wholesale to a private organization—the Blind Products Company. This Company operates by house-to-house canvassing, and every sale is recorded. The salesman has a letter from the Superintendent of the Wisconsin School for the Blind stating that he is selling only products made by the blind and that the products are of the value he asks. A sum is charged for the rug which will give to the blind laborer ample pay but the salesman may make 40 to 50 per cent on the sale. Quite a number of the salesmen are blind or partially blind. Selling is not restricted to house-to-house canvassing, for there is a retail establishment in the Workshop, and ladies' clubs, church organizations, etc., also sell the products. Volume of sales for the first three months of 1930, for the agency alone, amounted to about \$20,000. In addition, products sold from the Workshop of the Blind, a state institution, amounted to \$15,000, making a total of \$35,000 in the three months.

Dr. Ernest Whitfield, of London, spoke on the subject of training in music. He thought there should be advanced training given in music. In England, he said, there is a College of Music known as the "Royal Normal College for the Blind" in which students are trained until able to take their place in the world as first-class musicians. In Germany, too, there is a movement to establish a special school for higher education in music for the blind; the Cologne Conservatory is already established. In Paris, if students are good enough, they have time off to study music intensively.

Blindness demands special training for the blind musician right up to the time when he can take his place in concert halls, said Dr. Whitfield. Part of his training, though, should be taken in outside schools to prevent him from becoming narrow either in his attitude toward music and toward the general public, or in repertory. Only those who have extraordinary talent should be encouraged to take up music as a profession, although as part of the ordinary curriculum music is of great benefit. It is important that the blind musician receive proper training in the correct attitude to use toward the general public. The concert musician, especially, should have a certain distinction of bearing, a good "platform manner".

In regard to the musician's education, Dr. Whitfield advocated study of piano first, then the organ. Wind instruments, compared with violin or piano, are comparatively easy to learn, he said. Only the gifted should be taught to play the clarinet, because it is an orchestral instrument and can easily become outworn. A drum-

mer has very little to learn if he has the proper appreciation of rhythm and the "tricks of the trade."

As to openings for blind musicians, Dr. Whitfield said he could only speak from his experience in England. There were always openings for organists in churches—in England, there are now 250; in France, nearly 1,000. The remuneration may not be great, but a position as church organist is a desirable one because the prestige of the church means that the blind organist will get pupils. Personal experience had proved to him that a blind musician could take his place in a first-class small orchestra. Dance bands are still popular in England in spite of radio broadcasts. To obtain work, blind musicians must have a thoroughly efficient salesman or placement officer—one who can "sell" the blind.

Mr. Joseph F. Clunk, of Canada, reminded the conference that approximately 80 per cent of all children from schools for the blind become manual workers. He found that the average blind child has no conception of what it is to work with spirit or action and no appreciation of the value of time. Therefore he would like to inquire of the conference whether any school had made an effort to teach the value of time so that when a blind person gets a job he may realize that the day is not indefinite.

Mr. W. R. Halliday, of Glasgow, emphasized the importance of character training. In "sheltered" occupations (workshops and home work schemes), efficiency of the training and of the workman himself are matters that count. In non-"sheltered" occupations, however, the thing that counts most is the character and capability of the blind individual, he said. It is useless to give a man an expensive training, no matter what he may be in the end, if he has not the moral qualities to make his own way.

Mr. B. Berinstein, of New York, spoke of the necessity of a "guiding hand" for the blind person after school days are over and he is seeking a job. School work should not be considered finished with the granting of a diploma; complete and continuous co-operation with alumni agencies should be given. It is important, too, to instil in the mind of the blind student some knowledge of the world outside the school walls, so as to avoid disillusionment when he begins to make his own way.

In answer to a previous question of Captain Fraser, Mr. Berinstein explained the duties of a Justice of the Peace and stated that it was a suitable occupation for a blind man.

Mr. Harrison referred to the research work being conducted by the American Foundation for the Blind in regard to occupations for the blind.

Mr. Clunk inquired if, in the Wisconsin School, the same standards prevailed for the blind as for the seeing. For instance, if a seeing person can do a certain unit of work in an hour and a half, is it demanded that a blind person work as rapidly? To this, Mr. Hooper replied in the affirmative.

Miss Sybil Marston, of California, suggested that it might be possible to instil into the minds of young blind people some ideas regarding "selling" themselves.

Mr. I. S. Wampler, of Tennessee, said that all education, whether for the seeing or for the blind, should be purposeful. Education should prepare the child for life—to appreciate the cultural side of life as well as to be capable of useful employment—hence he thought it a good plan to include music in the school curriculum, though one should not expect to make practical musicians out of all the students. By giving some cultural training, one may discover tendencies and talents in the young which may mark them out for the higher professions.

Mr. George Keane, of Brooklyn, N. Y., inquired if the smaller instruments used in orchestras were taught in the English schools. Dr. Whitfield explained that such instruments were not taught for fear that trainees might be encouraged to play them at street corners. However, the National Institute in Paris teaches all orchestral instruments, he added. Mr. Hooper remarked that they were also taught in the Wisconsin School.

In summing up, Mr. Hooper pointed out that it was the duty of everyone in charge of schools to have some means of testing the results obtained, not only by having a survey of the fortunate few, but by a thorough survey of the entire alumni body, in order to discover to what extent their efforts are succeeding and what is the degree of efficiency of our institutions in carrying them out. No one, he said, has the right to end his work with the achievement of the diploma; education is a continuous lifelong process.

TACTUAL EDUCATION

Organizer: HAROLD T. CLARK, *Chairman, Committee on the Physically Handicapped, Cleveland Conference for Educational Co-operation, Cleveland, Ohio*

Mr. Clark opened the meeting with an account of the work done by museums in other countries in regard to the education of handicapped children, and with a general statement of what he would like to see done by museums in this country. He emphasized the fact that civilization in general, and education in particular, have profited by work done for special groups of people. By way of illustration he mentioned the telephone, which was invented originally to help the deaf, and the typewriter, to help the blind. Mr. Clark then read letters from people who have been unusually successful in developing educational museum services. His feeling was that if we can profit by the experiences and ideas of workers in other countries as well as in our own, then, with our ability to organize and invent, we can open to blind people wide fields of experience which are at present closed to them.

Miss Maxfield explained what had already been done by the American Foundation for the Blind to bring objective material accompanied by suitable braille literature directly to the schools and classes for the blind.

Miss Carmer made a pertinent suggestion about forming a contact with the Industrial Arts Co-operative Service. This Service has a membership of thousands of teachers for whom it prepares projects with printed directions accompanying them. It also tries out different types of play material for preschool and school children. The New York Commission's Experimental Toy Shop receives orders for many of the articles sold by the Industrial Arts Co-operative Service.

Miss Conrad, of Newark, and Miss Coffin, of Cleveland, told of exhibits and experiments which had been tried with their classes of blind children. Also, Mr. Clark explained the work done by Mr. West of the Boy Scouts in teaching seeing children to recognize animal tracks, etc.

Mr. James West spoke about the desire of his organization to do what it could for blind Scouts. There are, he said, about 200 blind Boy Scouts in the country and about 150 blind Girl Scouts. Miss Maxfield reported that the Girl Scouts are also planning to adapt their material so that it can be of more direct value to handi-

capped girls, including the blind. Both Mr. West and Miss Maxfield felt that particularly in the field of nature study the museums could be of great assistance to the blind.

Mr. Elliott of the Metropolitan Museum asked Miss Ruth Lord Jenkins to explain the architectural project which she is working out at the American Foundation for the Blind. Miss Jenkins outlined the plan as follows: The Richter stone blocks, made in Germany of an especially devised composition approximating the weight and texture of stone, are the medium used. These blocks come in such a variety of forms that it is possible to construct with them accurate reproductions of Greek, Roman, Gothic and Renaissance buildings in miniature.

It is clearly not possible for a blind person to embrace an actual building or many of its details in one gesture. Nor can he gain a true idea of a given structure from a rigid miniature model, since certain facts concerning foundation and interior must necessarily elude his fingers. But with the Richter blocks he can begin to build at the foundation. He can examine at length and in detail the ground plan as he builds upward, course by course. He can grasp the rationale of trabeated, vaulted, and other construction, and can from first-hand experience learn that flying buttresses, and other Gothic features which seem to the layman to be purely ornamental, have a practical reason for being.

In experiments carried on in the offices of the Foundation with one of the blind dictaphone operators as a subject, continued Miss Jenkins, the blind pupil learned how to build wall elevations of both irregular and rectangular bonding, and to construct miniature buildings of rectangular form, with doors crowned by lintels and with window openings placed high under the roof. In these experiments the subject developed a decided aesthetic preference for irregular as opposed to the more mechanical rectangular bonding. The former style of bonding gave her decided pleasure, both in the processes of building and in feeling afterwards the completed surface.

The ground plan of Perneb's tomb was next laid and part of the walls built. A small, approximate model of the Great Pyramid at Gizeh was built. The subject voluntarily expressed aesthetic appreciation of the severe, angular form of the Pyramid and what she imagined its relationship to the surrounding landscape would be. Related historic, archeological, and literary data were introduced to her attention during the course of the lessons, arousing deep interest and leading to many questions. Miss Jenkins concluded by saying that after the simple basic architectural forms are

grasped by a blind pupil, such a pupil might gain much from visits to museums where arrangements might be made for him to examine certain full-sized details.

Dr. Clyde Fisher, of the Natural History Museum, spoke about the work that he and others have done with blind students at the Museum. This work was financed by the Jonathan Thorne Memorial Fund which was established some twenty years ago.

Dr. Coleman made the point that there were two sides to the question of obtaining information through the sense of touch; one was the strictly informational, and the other was the aesthetic. If you take some object of art in your hands and feel it, with your eyes closed, you can feel the symmetry. In other words, this is more an experience of pleasure than of information. The sense of pleasure is increased by the handling of the object. Dr. Coleman said he would like to see John Dewey interested in this program, because of his pragmatic philosophy; also Professor Robinson, psychologist at Yale. He suggested that some definite program be formulated as a result of this round table, and presented at the meeting of the Association of Museums during the latter part of May. At that time it might be possible to form a joint committee made up of representatives of the museums and representatives of those who know the blind—a committee which could work out a more definite program of procedure. One important matter to consider is that of getting sufficient funds to put on the demonstration and to do the preliminary experimental work.

Mr. Clark spoke of the possibility of having museums in different sections of the country act as distributing centers for objective material, just as different libraries throughout the country are centers for the distribution of braille books.

Dr. Frieda K. Merry spoke about the work done in nature study with children in the Department of Special Studies (an experimental primary school run jointly by Perkins Institution and the American Foundation for the Blind at Perkins).

Herr Altmann, of Vienna, gave an account of the general method of teaching in his school, Dr. Löwenfeld acting as interpreter.

Before adjourning the meeting, Mr. Clark said he had found that the museums must take materials to the children and to the teachers, rather than expect them to come to the museums.

WORKSHOPS

Organizer: PETER J. SALMON, *Secretary and Business Manager,*
Industrial Home for the Blind, Brooklyn, N. Y.

The Chairman, Mr. Salmon, opened the discussion with the statement that in a general way, workshops in the United States were divided into two main classes: First, the selective type, in which blind people who hold some real promise are employed—for the most part, the younger and more alert types; second, workshops which take in a wide range of blind people, including all those willing to work or those who can be coaxed to give it a trial, varying in capacity from the worker whose job is for purely therapeutic purposes, to the skilled industrial worker. The age of admission ranges from eighteen to sixty years.

In the second class of shop, the deaf-blind also find employment, and often, "borderline" mental cases of blind people. Naturally, this second type of workshop is the more frequent and has the larger population.

Workshops in the United States, Mr. Salmon continued, and probably those abroad also, had always occupied a central position in the general scheme of work for the blind. From the workshops, in many instances, there had branched forth other departments, such as placement and home teaching.

The main job of the workshop, however, as its name implied, had been the training and employment of blind people, who, for one reason or another, had been unable to "make a go of it" on the outside; and it seemed that this was still the chief job of the workshop. Carrying this thought a step further, he said that the workshop should be willing to act (1) as a training center and clearing house for those blind people capable of doing work later on in the sighted world, and (2) as the only logical place to which blind folk who were unable temporarily or permanently to "make a go of it" on the outside, could turn with any degree of certainty of employment. Placement agents were, of necessity, rigid in their requirements and wanted the pick of the blind applicants for employment. The shop, however, should—and does—take in for employment blind people who would otherwise be unemployed.

From the standpoint of obtaining the best results, the workshop should separate the blind of productive capacity from the purely occupational cases. Also, whenever possible financially, the shop should be kept small, with about thirty to forty blind

employees, for, in a factory of this size, Mr. Salmon concluded, it was possible to get a maximum of efficiency as well as to obtain the best in morale.

The Chairman then suggested that since only a limited number of topics could be discussed in the time available, it might be best to confine the discussion to such questions as, for example:

1. Is there any shop industry in which the blind are gainfully employed other than the following: broom-making, brush-making, shoe-making and repairing, basketry, rug-weaving, chair-seating, leather work, tennis-racquet stringing, mattress-making, needle-work, and making wooden toys?

2. Should there be created a national, or, perhaps an international research bureau for the study and dissemination of information relating to the employment of blind people in workshops, with the particular object of finding new ways of training and employing such blind people—either in the shop or outside?

In answer to (1) above, members of the Conference added the following industries: doll-wig manufacturing, furniture-making of all kinds (done extensively in Glasgow), polishing furniture, mattress-spring making, manufacturing riddles for use in foundry work, upholstery, electrical assembly, and the manufacturing of reed and rattan furniture.

Mr. H. Hedger, of Australia, gave an interesting report¹ of the work of his institution.

In the discussion of the need for a national research bureau for the study of shop industries, the functions of the American Foundation for the Blind in this connection were brought up. Mr. Herbert H. White, Treasurer and Trustee of the American Foundation for the Blind, explained why it had not been practicable, hitherto, for the Foundation to undertake such work on a large scale. The consensus of opinion was that while this position was appreciated, the Foundation should be asked to proceed as speedily as possible with an industrial research bureau and a resolution to this effect was passed.

Mr. George Danby, of Scotland, gave a resumé of the work of the Royal Glasgow Asylum for the Blind which showed that this institution employs some 600 people of whom about 110 are sighted. They are successfully operating in the manufacture of furniture, furniture-polishing, mattress-making, mattress-spring making, and the making of riddles. They are also engaged extensively in brush-making, both wire-drawn and pitch-set types.

¹ For content of Mr. Hedger's report, see pp. 448-453.

Mr. Henry K. Hyman, of New York, pointed out in regard to new industries for the blind, that, while such industries might be new to the blind, they need not be, necessarily, new industries.

The consensus of opinion of the meeting was that the workshops still have a definite and pressing job to fill in taking care of that large group of blind people who constantly seek assistance. The industries—at least many of them—which are now maintained in the shops for the blind, are waning, and new ones must be found to take their places. One of the things which the workshop of the past has accomplished is, that blind people, even those who have additional handicaps, may be trained to do highly useful work of standard workmanship and quality. Their productivity, however, must be recognized as being far below that of the average sighted person.

The Conference closed with the feeling that although it had been in session for two hours, this was altogether too little time to discuss adequately the pressing needs in the field of workshops. The Chairman recommended that, in regard to future conferences, those having the program under consideration should allot more time to this all-important subject in the work for the blind.

HOME TEACHING

Organizer : KATE M. FOLEY, *Home Teacher, California State Library, San Francisco, California*

In reminding her audience of the purpose of the round table, Miss Foley referred to the words of an old miner, who, realizing that he was being worsted in a game of poker, philosophized thus: "Life isn't in holding cards, but in playing a bad hand well." It was to learn the best methods of helping those handicapped by loss of eyesight to play their "bad hand" well, that the meeting had been called.

Continuing, Miss Foley said that the majority of blind persons who demanded the care of a home teacher were adults who had lost their sight while still in the prime of life and were consequently overwhelmed at their loss. What they needed most was someone to bring them hope and to stimulate their will to live. Therefore the home teacher whose mission it was to steer the blind through this period of readjustment must possess infinite patience, wisdom, courage, an understanding sympathy, and a love of humanity. Further, she must realize her great responsibility and be alert and resourceful in meeting her pupils' demands.

Miss Foley suggested that the discussion should cover ways and means whereby the blind adult might be most speedily readjusted to his changed condition. She emphasized the importance of the method of approach, since an unwise word from the home teacher might result in untold distress. A blind home teacher could be the means of inspiring great hope in the newly-blinded adult, said Miss Foley, for the pupil will gradually come to know that what she has accomplished, may be possible for him, too.

Miss Merivale, of England, was asked to speak, but said she had come to listen, and would like to know what home teachers from other countries taught.

Mr. Herbert W. Thompson spoke of home teaching in Australia. Braille and handicrafts were taught, he said. Each pupil received free £10 worth of material at first, and what he needed afterwards was supplied to him at cost. Articles made included door mats; nets for holding light baggage in railway trains (similar to those in sleeping cars in America); halters, for which farm work provided a good market; basketry, caning, etc. Moon type was taught as a stepping stone to braille. Great importance was attached to the training of a home teacher. Teachers, it was

thought, should have high standards which they could impart to their pupils, and should also be able to get down to the level of the pupil and make him feel that the teacher had a sympathetic heart.

The home teacher in Australia helped in marketing articles made by the blind, continued Mr. Thompson, by advertising his pupils in the district in which they lived. Also, the home teacher trained pupils for entering workshops. Home teaching, in his country, was considered a main artery leading to the workshop, he said.

Mr. S. W. Starling, of England, said there were two kinds of home teaching, from his point of view. The one provided service to the unemployable blind, none of whom could earn a living. Such blind persons, in England, were entitled to monetary help from the State up to £1 a week. To these pupils therapeutic occupations were taught; they were encouraged to learn to read, and to do knitting, basketry, etc. Social centers and various forms of amusement were also provided for them.

The other kind of home teaching, continued Mr. Starling, was for people able to work in their own homes, who became capable workers when properly trained. The reason they worked at home was because they did not live near a workshop. Home teachers for such blind persons were craft instructors who were themselves blind. Raw material was supplied to them at cost. Sometimes work-sheds were built for the workers in their own gardens where they could carry on caning, boot-making, etc. The Birmingham Institution did all it could to advertise their wares. The Institution had a motor-van shop which traveled about to agricultural shows, fairs, etc. and distributed home-made products. The home worker generally earned more money than he could make in the workshop. His earnings were augmented by the State on a definite scale. In addition to the training received from the home teachers, the home worker received training for a certain length of time from the Institution. The earning capacity of men on such home work was about £1 a week, and of women about 9s. In England, there were about 430 home teachers, he concluded.

Mr. W. R. Halliday said that in Scotland the home teacher expected to be of intimate service to blind people in all stages of life, including infancy, during school years, in their trainable age, and in senility. The home teacher, too, did much in the way of prevention of blindness. The education authorities kept a census of all children and knew when each child should start school. The home teacher kept his own record of children under five years of age, and made application to the authorities for a child to enter

school at the proper time. If the child's home was not a suitable place for him to live in, the home teacher could arrange for him to be taken to a nursery for the blind until he was ready for school. In the west of Scotland there was a clinic where every case was examined and certified to be blind before being turned over to the home teacher. The Snellen test was used; more than 6/60 vision was considered "not blind." The Wassermann test was also made.

Mr. Lewis H. Carris explained that "home teacher" was just a generic term for a social worker among the blind. In New York all home teachers were required to have some training in social work, though in some places blindness was the only qualification required of the home teacher. Home teachers should not be encouraged to depend upon their own diagnoses of eye conditions, he said.

Dr. O. H. Burritt stated that Overbrook decided some time ago that it was not fair to girls to send them out to do home teaching without special training. The Overbrook course was started eight years ago. He thought the day was past when the old idea of home teaching could be considered as adequate, good as the work of the early home teachers had been.

Mr. Halliday expressed surprise at the reference to "girls" as home teachers, for, in his own district in Scotland, he said, there were fourteen home teachers, only one of whom was a woman. Eleven of these home teachers were blind. On his register, Mr. Halliday added, there were 3,500 cases.

Then followed a discussion on the methods of teaching braille. Miss Foley remarked on the importance of teaching the pupil to hold his head up when reading. Mr. Halliday said that he had found it best to teach the letters in an order based on which letters were easiest to learn, rather than the usual a, b, c, order. The National Institute had published a book on this method, he added. Miss Garside had found that it helped to tell pupils that no letter was more than three dots high. Miss French was of the opinion that it confused pupils to number the dots; they would do this of their own accord when familiar with the letters. She had found few who cared to learn braille, she said.

It was agreed that, in cases of impaired touch, the teacher should not try to teach braille, but rather basketry and other easy handicrafts. Some pupils had learned to read with their lips. Blind home teachers should not forget that the things that seem so easy to them because they have been blind for a long time are not at all easy for the newly-blinded pupil.

Miss DeFrances, of New York, said she had found that pupils with an I. Q. of 60 could learn braille. No matter how little they could learn, she tried to give such pupils something to do which would keep them from being such a burden on their families. Some, she found, could do nothing with their hands; others, nothing with their minds. In New York, there was no provision for the training of blind feeble-minded children, she said.

Miss Bertha Johnson spoke of her experience with the feeble-minded. She had seven sub-normal pupils ranging in chronological age from twelve to forty-five and in mental age from six to fifteen. Three of these pupils had learned to read braille; some had learned to sew by hand; five had learned to knit; and those of six-year mentality could string beads.

Miss Merivale remarked that the National Institute opened a school for blind mental defectives in July, 1930. It was found that such children retarded the normal ones in the regular schools.

MUSIC

Organizer: L. W. RODENBERG, *Illinois School for the Blind,
Jacksonville, Illinois*

The following recommendations were submitted by the Round Table meeting on "Music":

1. That there be created, under the proposed International Council for the Blind, an International Committee on Music for the Blind, of such number and term of appointment as may be the will of aforesaid Council.

2. That the International Committee on Music for the Blind be responsible for the establishment and direction of sub-committees or bureaus to effect the following:

(1) International Bureau of Braille Music Catalogs—to assemble (or re-print in union form) the catalogs of all braille music presses, to distribute said catalogs or catalog to whomsoever may apply therefor, and to direct or relay orders made therefrom to the proper presses.

(2) The International Test of Methods or Styles of Braille Music—to co-operate with the American Braille Press in the distribution of test material, the editing of a treatise and questionnaire on the test, and the formulation of facts derived therefrom.

(3) The Revision and Completion of *Notation Musicale Internationale Braille*—to equip this text (a) with a table of signs, new and old; (b) with an alphabetical index of terms; and (c) with an appendix explaining all signs and methods in vogue prior to the Paris Conference of 1929, not already explained in the text.

PREVENTION AND SIGHT SAVING

Organizer: LEWIS H. CARRIS, *Managing Director, National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, New York, N. Y.*

Despite the variety of problems and the distance—geographically, socially, and educationally—between the groups under discussion, there was a marked accordance among the representative ophthalmologists as to the methods of approach and the ultimate outcome.

I. MEDICAL-SOCIAL ASPECTS

Dr. Miguel Mérida Nicolich, of Malaga, Spain, deplored the prevalence of ophthalmia neonatorum among children. In his opinion, although it is possible in civilized communities to force the use of prophylaxis, it is only by widespread education of doctors, midwives, and the laity, that this will become a universal practice.

Peru, too, recognizes the importance of the prevention of ophthalmia neonatorum, according to Dr. José Rivera, and although all of its limited work in the field of general prevention is in the hands of volunteer organizations, prophylactic treatment of the eyes of the newborn is compulsory by law.

In Egypt, cases of ophthalmia neonatorum are rare. Yet nearly one per cent of the population is blind. Acute ophthalmia is the cause of 79 per cent of this blindness. Dr. Mahmoud Azmy el Kattan, Professor of Ophthalmology at the Kasr el Aini Medical School in Cairo, expressed the opinion that, because of the widespread poverty and the peculiar climatic conditions of Egypt, very little can be done in preventing the disease itself, although through prompt medical attention the serious sequelae may be avoided. One of the important projects of prevention, therefore, is to educate the people to seek the aid of the hospital units, both permanent and traveling, which are so successfully organized in Egypt.

Dr. C. R. Watson confirmed the opinion given by Dr. el Kattan, and blamed the ignorance, poverty and superstition of the Egyptians for the general prevalence of eye disease and the tremendous amount of blindness. The public must be taught to grasp the essentials of sanitation and community hygiene in order to combat blindness, he said.

Mr. C. G. Henderson spoke briefly of the All-India Blind Relief Association's prevention program. A study of the blind and partially blind of India brings to light many of the same

conditions of poverty and ignorance that exist in Egypt, he said. With the number of blind and of partially sighted amounting to nearly 6,000,000 persons, the All-India Blind Relief Association is making a valiant attempt to prevent blindness, despite its limited resources. Traveling clinics and trained field workers attend people in the outlying districts, watching for signs of ophthalmia neonatorum in the young infants, treating locally any eye infections, and sending to eye hospitals any cases which require persistent or operative care.

Czechoslovakia, in whose eastern sections trachoma is a very real menace, also relies upon a traveling hospital unit to give local care, reported Dr. Aleksej Záhor, of Prague, Czechoslovakia, while social service workers devote their energies to improving the living conditions of blind people, in so far as health and sanitation are concerned.

Dr. Conrad Berens stressed another, and more direct, agent in teaching the prevention of blindness. Because the regular eye clinics were overcrowded and overworked, it had been discovered that less than 30 per cent of the patients completed prescribed treatments. Accordingly, with the co-operation of the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness and the New York Association for the Blind, a follow-up service had been instituted by the Lighthouse Clinic for the Prevention of Blindness. With the help of this service and the added advantage that the number of cases at the Lighthouse is limited, 80 per cent of its patients have now completed their treatment with sight saved or improved.

The Pittsburgh branch of the Pennsylvania Association for the Blind has no prevention of blindness department, said Mr. H. R. Latimer, Executive Secretary of the Association, but in his opinion, every association for the blind should participate in some activity for prevention. Through the services of a clearing-house of eye cases from the city hospitals and clinics, the Pittsburgh branch has handled 250 cases a year for the past fifteen years, and has saved from total blindness 30 of these each year, he added.

Mr. E. Chesley Allen, of Halifax, Nova Scotia, stated that an association for the blind has a definite rôle in prevention. In his school, he carries on a prevention of blindness clinic. All acute cases are sent to the proper agency, and the definite results obtained have been most gratifying.

The organization for the blind in Scotland is undertaking an original research into the causes of blindness in that country. Every blind person will be examined by an ophthalmologist to

determine the cause of blindness, and this investigation may lead to a perceptible reduction of the already low percentage of blindness. Of the 9,000 blind persons in Scotland, only 15 are below the age of four, a record which promises to reduce materially the number of blind in the next generation.

In England, the work for prevention of blindness is in the hands of the local public health authorities, and much of it—under the head of prevention of venereal disease, vaccination against smallpox, school eye examinations and general health measures—is essentially part of the health authorities' routine work, said Mr. F. R. Lovett, of the Ministry of Health. He added that a growing interest in the prevention of blindness in middle life is engaging the attention of ophthalmologists, while industrial safety societies are working to overcome the reluctance of the worker to avail himself of eye protection in industry. An informal committee on prevention of blindness has recently been organized with the idea of co-ordinating the work done by the government and volunteer agencies.

Mr. Lewis H. Carris took this opportunity to make clear the function of the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness: (1) as a research and demonstration center and (2) as an educational agency, to prove and disseminate the practical value of preventive measures which are subsequently taken over in active practice by the local state authorities.

In summarizing the reports made by the various speakers, Dr. B. Franklin Royer pointed out that there are many fields of work which are seemingly remote, but which nevertheless have a bearing upon prevention of blindness. Broadly speaking, any general improvement in hygiene and sanitary living, by raising the level of community and individual health, should contribute in the largest measure to the prevention of blindness.

II. THE SIGHT-SAVING CLASS—ITS FUNCTION, WORK, AND ACHIEVEMENT

Dr. Berthold Löwenfeld stated that, although there are sight-saving classes and other helpful services for those of limited vision in Austria, many children who possess a small amount of sight are still to be found in the Austrian schools for the blind. In order that these children may develop and utilize the little sight which they possess, classes in "seeing" have been organized. Trips about the city teach the pupils to use their eyes for seeing—counting trees, measuring distance, observing flowers, etc.—so that when they leave the school for the blind they may be able to make their way as independently as possible.

Should children in sight-saving classes learn braille? This was a question which precipitated diverse opinions. In America, children in sight-saving classes are not taught to read braille unless there is a positive need for it. If the child's eyes are very poor, and there is little hope for any improvement, braille is taught as a supplementary system, it was stated.

Colonel Forbes said that in Scotland braille is taught to increase the field of reading, since there are many things in braille which have not been published in print suitable for the use of those with myope conditions.

Mr. Allen, in whose school sight-saving classes for the Maritime Provinces are conducted, said that 30 per cent of the pupils were sight-saving material, and when they were taught braille, it was discovered that they were trying to read the characters visually, a task of great strain even for normal eyes.

Should children with limited sight be taught to use the typewriter? The general opinion expressed was that though the use of the typewriter has many advantages for the partially sighted, it also has some disadvantages. In Scotland, it is feared that the children may be tempted to read what they are writing, and for this reason typewriting instruction is not widespread. In Cleveland, no instruction is given in the use of the typewriter for the same reason. Mrs. Hathaway was of the opinion that all myopes should be taught typewriting, since frequently those who have this visual handicap are compensated by having scholarly minds and are usually the ones whose education is largely with the written and printed word.

When it is necessary to combine a school for children with limited vision with a school for the blind, special problems arise. In Cleveland, where sight-saving classes are conducted in schools for children of normal vision, the sight-saving principles have a very good effect upon the school as a whole. Other teachers become light-, print-, and legibility-conscious, and the class is an advantage to the school. Mr. Allen admitted the disadvantages of combining instruction for the blind and the partially sighted, but even this, he considered, would be preferable to no education at all for the partially sighted children, as would prove to be the case in Nova Scotia, for instance, if such combined instruction were not given. Mrs. Hathaway, from the fund of her experience, stated that children with all types of vision defect should, if possible, have social contacts in outdoor work and rote-singing, etc., since they would all need the benefit of social contacts later in life. But when the blind and the partially sighted

are isolated together, the partially sighted child suffers, because, with his very real advantage over his blind companions, he is likely to develop an exaggerated ego, making his transition to normal society difficult, while the blind child, using his partially sighted companion as a prop, relinquishes much of his initiative and independence.

PENSIONS

Organizers: MARY DRANGA CAMPBELL, *Executive Director,*
Missouri Commission for the Blind, St. Louis, Missouri
and HENRY HEDGER, *Manager, Industrial Blind*
Institute, Sydney, Australia

Mr. Eagar, of London, opened the discussion by criticizing a proposal made by Mr. Neary, of Ireland, that the civilian blind be dealt with as favorably as the soldier blind. The British Government, he said, recognized the claims of the soldiers as superior to those of the civilian blind. In Great Britain the civilian blind get the old age pension at fifty.

The Chairman, Mr. Hedger, while fully approving of the pension system for the adult blind, felt that it frequently destroyed the incentive to work if given at too early an age. The result was that many refused to work.

Mr. Mackenzie, of New Zealand, said that the pension law in his country was based largely on the Australian experience and pensions were given at as early an age as twenty. He preferred twenty-one. Seventeen shillings and sixpence was allowed to all civilian blind over twenty, a sum which they could add to by their labor up to a maximum of £2:4:0. There were in New Zealand only 720 blind persons of whom 370 were in receipt of pensions.

Mr. Halliday, of Glasgow, felt that a pension even at the age of forty was undesirable because men at that age were still trainable.

Mr. Hedger said that in Australia the blind received £1 a week. Beggars received no pension, preferring the larger amount derived from begging, which the police had no power to prohibit. The blind, he said, were more often given the privilege of earning than those disabled in other ways.

Miss Johnsen referred to the blind relief administered in New York state, which she said was withdrawn from the blind in the case of intermarriage, although, as reported in the case of Australia, such married couples are allowed one pension.

Dr. Strehl, of Germany, spoke of the desirability of employment in preference to pensions.

Mr. Lundberg, of Sweden, preferred the term "compensation" for a blind man should be recompensed in this way, he thought, for the handicap of loss of sight and occupation.

Mr. Hooper, of Wisconsin, did not care what word was used so long as the blind received the consideration to which they were entitled, he said. The pension in his state is administered by County Boards who determine the amount in each instance, although this can be revised on appeal. The maximum amount allowed by both pension and earnings is \$780. The superintendent of the school in Wisconsin has supervision of everything pertaining to the blind. College students, he added, get an allowance of \$300 a year to use as they wish.

SOCIAL WELFARE

Organizers: HERMAN M. IMMELN, *Director of Social Service,
New York Association for the Blind, New York, N. Y.*
and MURRAY B. ALLEN, *Vice-Chairman, Workshop
for the Blind, Salt Lake City, Utah*

Mr. Murray B. Allen raised the question as to what extent organizations for the blind should seek the co-operation of other agencies.

Miss A. Ruenzi said that it was the policy of the Missouri Commission for the Blind to do for blind clients everything that came within the Commission's functions. If a pension was needed, the home teacher helped the client to apply for it. If temporary relief was needed before the pension was granted, she brought the case to the attention of a local relief agency. If the children needed help, she appealed to a local agency. If training was needed, the home teacher gave it. If medical treatment was necessary, an attempt was made to arrange for that.

Mr. Murray B. Allen expressed the opinion that blind persons prefer to obtain aid through an organization for the blind. He felt that this idea should be encouraged and the agencies for the blind should make the contacts between blind clients and other social work organizations. A blind person is likely to feel his "pauperism" when going alone to a general social work agency.

Rev. E. P. Ayer, of Connecticut, suggested that it was a good plan to have outside agencies help in an emergency. Mr. Allen agreed, pointing out that the co-operation of outside agencies helped the work of the local organization, not only from the viewpoint of publicity, but in raising its professional standing and in giving new contacts and ideas. Moreover, on the one hand, some general state and city agencies were likely to be unsympathetic and hard in their attitude; on the other, welfare workers in seeing organizations were likely to be over-sympathetic, he added. The blind get either too little or too much when dealing with organizations for the seeing. A blind person understands his own organization best, and the organizations understand their blind.

Miss Rose Trainor said that the Worcester County Association for the Blind followed this plan, always in co-operation with the Massachusetts Division for the Blind. Other speakers mentioned similar instances of co-operation existing between agencies for the blind and general welfare agencies in Utah, and in Memphis, Tennessee.

Mr. Francis Ierardi, of Massachusetts, reminded the conference that the purpose of an association for the blind was to develop the personal service and friendship which grows out of forming contacts—a service which money cannot replace.

Mr. Murray B. Allen spoke of the work of groups of young society people, inexperienced in dealing with the blind. This sometimes resulted in blind persons forming an unduly high opinion of their own capabilities. Such cases, said Rev. E. P. Ayer, had been studied in Connecticut for several years, but, in his opinion, they eventually adjusted themselves.

Encouragement of "self-help" among the blind was another point stressed by Rev. E. P. Ayer, who spoke of his own experience as a blind man among seeing persons. This point was further emphasized by Mr. Herbert W. Thompson, of Australia, who said that relatives and friends of the blind, through mistaken motives of kindness, often hinder the blind man's progress in this respect.

Mr. Murray B. Allen raised the question as to how far the methods of ordinary case workers should be used with the blind.

Case work technique should be developed, said Miss Bertha Hanford, of Minnesota. In her experience as State and County Agent for the Blind, she had found that the more careful the case work done, the better were the results obtained. When a blind person asked for a small service, it was often found through case work that other services were needed which might prove more important than the one requested by him. Miss Hanford thought it unwise for more than one agency to visit the same family. Jewish agencies preferred to handle cases in Jewish families, she had found; other agencies preferred an organization for the blind to take the lead.

Mrs. Glover suggested that in all professions the worker began with technique, but when he had mastered it, he ceased to be conscious of it.

Miss Roberta Griffith, confirming Miss Hanford's remarks on the importance of case work technique, stated that in Grand Rapids, when a blind person needed material relief, the organization for the blind decided which welfare agency should be approached on the matter—city, church, or state—and made the contact, after which the agency was left to deal with the problem. Every endeavor was made not to disturb the friendly relations existing between the blind person and the organization for the blind; hence, inquiry into family affairs was avoided as much as possible, and left to the Social Service Exchange or the welfare

agency dealing with the case. Where the organization for the blind was the first agency interested in the case, an investigation was made. The information required might not be obtained during the first interview, but could be obtained subsequently.

Senor Ramón Beteta, Mexico City, expressed the opinion that the social worker should adopt a scientific attitude in dealing with cases. Above all, *tact* was required in finding out the facts of a case, so that the feelings of blind applicants should not be hurt in any way. Frequently, people applied for assistance, he said, who did not know just what they wanted, and in such cases it was important to help them in ways other than they at first wished. He preferred the "hard-boiled" methods to the giving of relief without due thought.

THE DEAF-BLIND

Organizer: LYDIA Y. HAYES, *Chief Executive Officer, New Jersey Commission for the Blind, Newark, New Jersey*

For purposes of discussion the blind-deaf were defined as those who lose sight and hearing simultaneously, or so nearly together that their handicap is dual and their education is through the means of touch; the deaf-blind, as those who lose first their hearing, and gain their education through the eye, and later adjust themselves to the further handicap of blindness. Together, these form a comparatively small group; yet it is a group which is divided and subdivided into almost as many sections as there are individuals in the group. The purpose of the program was to consider the causes of these handicaps; the physical, mental, moral and financial needs of these individuals; and how best to secure for them their rights.

Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe's work in the education of Laura Dewey Bridgman and others, was presented most interestingly. His leadership, followed by that of Mrs. Anne Sullivan Macy, with her illustrious pupil, Dr. Helen Adams Keller, was shown to have formed the basis of all subsequent policies of educating and employing the blind-deaf. Their leadership has blazed the trail by which others are enabled to take advantage of resources near their homes, and fit themselves into their own environment.

Kathryne M. Frick (deaf and blind), who was educated in the residential school for the deaf at Mt. Airy, Pa., suggested that the education of the blind-deaf, during the earlier years while language and speech are being acquired, would be better spent with the educators of the deaf. She recommended that after this period a transfer should be made to a school for the blind, where all tactile apparatus and books would be available. It was agreed that this would give to the blind-deaf the benefit of the cumulative knowledge and experience of the educators of both the deaf and the blind. However, it must be remembered that throughout the lives of the blind-deaf, special attention must be given toward keeping up a pleasing, clear, and distinct manner of speaking.

Helen Schultz (deaf and blind) showed that the objective in her training and education has been to keep her in touch with normal surroundings and with hearing and seeing people. Teachers of public school classes in Jersey City, Montclair, and Newark, N. J., co-operated in the realization of this objective. Unusual

conditions, both at the schools and at home, made it possible to demonstrate the value of the experiment of educating a blind-deaf child in the common school system. Teachers made great efforts to instil confidence and self-helpfulness, and to make her feel she was one of the school. An outstanding benefit of this method of education was the privilege of a good home with its social and church privileges. She herself said, "I give little thought to my seeming limitations, and am never happier than with my hearing and seeing friends."

Demonstrations of speech by the blind-deaf and the deaf-blind were given. One student, Tad Chapman (deaf and blind), read by touch from the lips, the throat, the chest—front and back, the back of the neck, and the top of the head; also through a long paper tube which transmitted vibrations to the palm of his hand. Kathryne Frick and Helen Schultz read papers which they themselves had prepared. Katherine McGirr (deaf and blind), once a proofreader in the office of the *Matilda Ziegler Magazine for the Blind*, answered questions concerning her work, and concerning the methods used in group teaching at the New York Institute for the Instruction of the Deaf.

"Financing such education," said Dr. Edward E. Allen, "is a civic duty and cannot be measured in dollars and cents. This type of loving service which gives freedom to the imprisoned spirit cannot be measured that way. However, salaries given should be commensurate to those paid to the most highly qualified teachers. The understanding and sympathetic heart of the successful teacher is her greatest asset. Insight, imagination, resourcefulness, ability to sense the feelings and emotions of the pupil, and a love of service—all these are vital. Without them, expert training in methods of education is futile. Yet a trained teacher is essential."

It was agreed that these doubly handicapped people have rights in common with their fellows, namely: 1. To enjoy the best possible bodily health. 2. To receive an education which will fit them to express the highest and best that is within them. 3. To do their share of the world's work. 4. To give to, as well as to receive from, the social life of the community.

Another point emphasized was that provision should be made to finance a blind-deaf person through life—such as that made for Thomas Stringer, which yields an annual income of \$1,000 and which is augmented somewhat by his own earnings.

It was shown that the occupations and vocations followed by the blind-deaf are as varied as the individuals. Basketry and chair

reseating, and other home industries have been followed successfully. A few individuals have taken their places in workshops conducted for the blind; others have been very successful as home-makers. An appreciable amount of sighted supervision is necessary, however, for all occupations. A promising field for future effort appears to be the cultivation of potted plants, bulbs, and ornamental shrubs.

Miss Rebecca Mack, of Cincinnati, Ohio, estimated the number of deaf-blind in North America at approximately 750. She advocated the establishment of a national educational, employment, and recreational center for them. Both Miss Mack and Mrs. Corinne Rocheleau Rouleau urged the appointment of a committee to promote the interests of such a project. Reports from various European countries showed that this procedure of furnishing permanent custodial care had already been adopted by them.

Mr. Umaji Akiba, of Japan, and Mr. V. L. Ramadano-vitch, of Yugoslavia, presented interesting reports. The deaf-blind of their respective countries are known individually, and their individual needs are considered. The delegate from Yugoslavia stated that in his country they had followed the example of Samuel Gridley Howe in teaching a younger brother of one of their six deaf-blind the use of the braille machine and the finger alphabet. This increased opportunities for conversation.

The consensus of opinion of those present at the round table was that the American Foundation for the Blind, the League for the Hard of Hearing, and the Volta Bureau should appoint a joint national advisory committee to act as consultants and a clearing-house for the study of the problems of the blind-deaf and deaf-blind, and to make recommendations to the various organizations in the United States and its dependencies regarding the standardization of education, employment, social life and maintenance of the blind-deaf and the deaf-blind.

EDITORS' NOTE—Round Table discussions on the following subjects also took place: "Outside" Occupations, Printing and Appliances, Libraries and Museums, International Organizations, and Education of the Public Regarding the Blind. Reports of these Round Tables, however, are not available.

SECTION 7

RAPPORTEURS' REPORTS

EDUCATION

Rapporteur: MARY M. R. GARAWAY, *Honorary Secretary,*
College of Teachers of the Blind, Bristol, England

I think that the feelings that are uppermost in the minds of all of us who have had the unique pleasure of the trip that is just ended are those of gratitude for all the extraordinary kindness which has been showered upon us, for the thoughtful consideration which has foreseen and supplied every want even before we were conscious of it ourselves, and for the readiness to show us all and everything we could desire and to answer the stream of questions with which we have sometimes, I fear, nearly overwhelmed those who were in charge of the different sections of the work.

The results have been that we have acquired a wealth of information, all of which takes far more time to assimilate than we have been able to give. We have continually had the feeling that we have touched but the fringe of the matter in hand and that we should be amply repaid and be able to speak with far more assurance had we been able to devote to it ten times the amount of time which has been at our disposal.

I think we have all been filled with admiration and, I fear, sometimes with envy of the beautiful educational buildings and equipment that you have time after time shown us. We all recognize that fine buildings do not of necessity mean fine work, but they certainly make it more easy to accomplish and enable you to put a finish on it which it is otherwise difficult to obtain. The spaciousness and beautiful settings of your residential schools has appeal for us all; so, too, has the charming tone which appears to prevail on all sides and the easy movement and good carriage of the pupils due to the excellent physical training which they receive; while the domestic science training for which such adequate provision is made seems to us well above the average.

Out of the Tour of Visitation and the Conference that preceded it arise several questions and points of discussion that have been debated by most of us during our journeyings:

1. Social organization in residential schools for the blind
2. The education of the blind in the public schools for the seeing
3. The education of the deaf-blind
4. The training of teachers of the blind, and
5. Vocational training.

1. SOCIAL ORGANIZATION IN RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND

I am not for the moment dealing with the education of blind children in classes attached to the public schools for the seeing, but comparing day schools for the blind with residential schools for the same class of children.

Opinion appears to be unanimous that nothing can replace in the life of the child the influences and benefits of a good home, but since it is also generally agreed that circumstances often make residential schools a necessity, or at least a desirability, the question rather is how best to diminish the attendant difficulties.

The reply universally given is "As much freedom and as many outside influences as possible." Suggestions for outer contacts are numerous, such as, Scouts and Guides or Camp Fire meetings, particularly when the Scouts or Guides have as officers others than officials of the school; the attending of churches and church functions, with their resulting friendships; the encouragement of intercourse with the children from schools for the seeing; the fostering of competitive games with other schools, especially such games as those in which the blind can excel and find themselves at no disadvantage, such as, chess, rowing, swimming, etc.; the formation of school orchestras which perform outside of the school and bring their members into close touch with other people; allowing the pupils to go out alone or in pairs, one who has partial sight taking one who is quite blind, and going for walks in the neighborhood of the school.

It was also frequently stressed that rules and regulations within the schools should be reduced to a minimum. There should be the smallest possible number of negations. Individuality and the spirit of adventure should be encouraged and not unduly repressed. Results must be taken and are preferable to safeguards if the price of the latter is serious loss of new experience. Another factor is the value of as much self-government as possible and the absolute need of the formative influence of responsibility with the sense of independence.

On the credit side of the residential schools must be put the fact that the life is frequently much healthier than the home life of the children could be. Better food, more sleep and exercise than a blind child gets in his home, a firmer discipline and plenty of occupation out of school hours, all tend to make a stronger and healthier development in the critical years of life than is possible in a poor home, which is the type of home from which so many blind children come.

2. EDUCATION OF THE BLIND IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR THE SEEING

No work has been examined with greater interest than the education of the blind child in the public schools for the seeing; and the enthusiasm for this system of education shown by those who have adopted it is remarkable.

To some of us who examine it for the first time it appears to react extremely favorably in some cases. For able and self-reliant children better results are possibly obtained through these means than could be obtained by any other course of training. Such pupils leave school with more normal reactions than you will find in children educated in a special school; but, for children who are less generously endowed naturally, it seems to us that the residential school will probably offer better possibilities, such children being less able to rise above their handicap and to hold the place among their seeing companions.

We find that some educators strongly recommend that the early education of the child should be provided by the residential school, and that when the foundations of his education have been firmly laid and he has made his medium—braille—entirely his own, and provided he is suited to the other type of instruction, his later education should be carried on with the seeing in the public school. This course of action seems to us to have much to recommend it, and we are inclined to think it might provide the best results.

Obviously, the home conditions of the child need very careful consideration, and the success of the public school education must depend very largely upon the success in handling the home situation. In cases where the conditions are bad, and the parents not responsive to advice and guidance, it is pretty sure that the opportunities and advantages of the residential school will outweigh those offered by the public school, the good food, ordered life, careful training and free exercise given by the former being the most important considerations.

3. THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF-BLIND

The deaf-blind can be divided into three classes:

- a. Those born without either sense;
- b. Those born deaf who later become blind; and
- c. Those born blind who later become deaf.

It is the first class with which it is most difficult to deal. In the second and third classes a mode of approach already exists and does not need to be made with infinite patience and care; the necessary new knowledge can be added to what is already there.

It appears to be generally agreed that the best teaching for that most difficult class, those deprived from birth of both senses, is to be found either in a special school for such cases, or failing that, first in a residential school for the deaf followed by training in a similar school for the blind. In the school for the deaf the special instruction in speech and the use of the manual alphabet can be most easily obtained. The child should be taught not only to speak, but to read speech by touch from the lips and even from the chest and back of the neck. When that most difficult work of speech-training has been accomplished and avenues opened up, training in a school for the blind can follow; the further work of mind training can be attempted and through braille the child can be introduced to the world of books.

All training must be practical, and as many simple domestic duties as possible introduced, so that the doubly handicapped child can take his place in the family life to the fullest extent of which he is capable. Service may become for him a means of expressing his personality.

The education of a deaf-blind child is necessarily expensive. Ideally, and if funds at all permit it, he should have not only a special teacher who should not himself be handicapped, but also a special companion as attendant who will walk and play with him and generally interest him in his surroundings. These conditions, however, are beyond the reach of many educators of the deaf-blind who, nevertheless, are able to do excellent work.

In many countries schools for the deaf-blind exist. Frequently, also, there are homes in which the deaf-blind continue to live, work and, to some extent, earn their livings, following such occupations as they are able. The number of children being educated at any one time is small and apparently ranges from one to six.

4. TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF THE BLIND

There is no question as to the desirability of training teachers of the blind. In Germany and Italy, for instance, training is done systematically. There and in England all teachers of the blind must first be fully qualified as teachers of the seeing. They are also required to pass a special examination as teachers of the blind, although England has no organized course of training except for blind teachers at the Royal Normal College.

In America, there is a comprehensive course in connection with Harvard University and Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind. It covers a period of six months. Lectures are given on all subjects connected with the work. There are also appropriate demonstrations and a fully prescribed course of reading. This course can be followed by a second, also of six months' duration. Then the students are assigned to classes for practical work and have definite supervised teaching practice. Also, they live in the Institution and thus gain valuable experience of all kinds.

There are also training courses for home teachers, as, for instance, at the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind in Philadelphia. Here a two-year course is provided. The first year it is carried on at the school itself and covers such subjects as the Moon system, handicrafts, deaf manual and the history of the education of the blind. The second year the course is carried on in connection with the Pennsylvania School of Social and Health Work, and case-work, racial differences, hygiene, etc., etc., are studied.

In England all home teachers are obliged to pass a qualifying examination, but there is no organized course of training.

5. VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Another vexed question is the amount of vocational training to be introduced before the age of sixteen when, in many countries, compulsory elementary education ceases. When a student remains at school until eighteen or twenty the question becomes even more urgent. It is felt by many that for those for whom an academic course is going to be out of the question, a course with a vocational bias should be introduced well before the school-leaving age is reached; that it is a mistake to educate the child to even a moderately high standard and then to turn him out to sink or swim as the case may be; and that fairly early in his career his probable life work should be considered and his education and training shaped so as best to fit him for his future, whatever it may be. Such a considered course makes the work of placement much easier and, when complete industrial training is undertaken, a sacrifice of much valuable time is avoided.

In determining the nature of the vocational training to be pursued, due consideration must be given to the pupils' preferences and aptitudes, to the types of work most profitable in the districts where they will eventually live, and to whether they will be employed in a workshop or as home workers.

EMPLOYMENT

Rapporteurs: S. C. SWIFT, *Librarian, Canadian National
Institute for the Blind, Toronto, Canada*
and UMAJI AKIBA, *Director, School
for the Blind, Tokyo, Japan*

The undersigned have understood their duty as your rapporteurs to be the crystallization of opinion among the delegates to the World Conference on Work for the Blind in the sphere of employment, and with this understanding we have prepared the present report.

PLACEMENT

Among the papers presented to the Conference on April 15, perhaps none aroused more interest and excited more discussion than that on Placement.

Opinion in America appeared to be almost a unit in favor of the idea of placement as set forth in that paper, while some European delegates were also enthusiastic. Others, however, were doubtful of the practicability of voluntary placement on a large scale in the Old World, either because of lack of precedents, or because of the existence of prejudice against the blind outside those occupations which have come to be considered as the peculiar sphere of the sightless; or because of the great amount of educative propaganda required to induce a favorable attitude on the part of employers; or, finally, because of varying views as to the duty of the state toward the blind. It was felt that individualistic countries could not readily assimilate a scheme of obligatory placement, notwithstanding the undoubted fact that placements under this latter system would be many times in excess of those under the voluntary method in use in America and, to some extent, elsewhere. It was quite generally agreed, however, that placement as opposed to employment in the sheltered workshop offered greater opportunity of developing a completely normal life because of the absence of financial consideration made to the employee on account of his handicap. The blind man or woman thus situated finds himself in direct and more or less unassisted competition with the sighted and knows that success depends upon himself alone.

In placement work, either voluntary or obligatory, the placement officers must be men of especial ability and force of char-

acter, while the individuals placed must be, if we may use the expression, *hand-picked*. The confidence of the employer must be secured and held, and no failures can be permitted to check it. This confidence can be more quickly gained if the blind can be admitted to the benefits of workmen's compensation legislation. Such a *desideratum* has been reached in the province of Ontario, Canada, and it is confidently expected that in that section still greater numbers of placements will be made in general industry than heretofore, once the present economic depression has passed.

But there is one class of placements which, though dependent for its returns on the state of general trade, is not influenced by legal restrictions; we are referring to what in America are known as *stand concessions*. The great success of this form of placement recommends it strongly to the attention of the friends of the blind and to the blind themselves. It was agreed that every successful placement of any kind whatever, in occupations formerly thought to belong exclusively to the domain of sight is, at the same time, a genuine investment, an educative force, and an enlightened social service.

SHELTERED SHOPS

But it was acknowledged that placement does not offer a solution of the whole problem of the blind. There will always remain a large number, possibly the majority, of the employable blind who will have to be treated in a different way. This way seems to be the special or *sheltered* shop. With regard to this factor of the problem, opinions as to its present efficiency and ultimate fate were almost as numerous as the constellations of heaven and as far apart as the Pole Star and the Southern Cross. Your rapporteurs were assured, for instance, that the special shop was a complete failure and should be abolished, its place being taken by a combination of some form of placement, relief and state allowance; while, on the other hand, it was asserted that the blind could there be employed with perfect success and on a strictly commercial basis. The most freely expressed view, however, was that the sheltered shop as at present constituted filled an important place in the economic life of the blind and should, therefore, be maintained at as high a level of efficiency as possible. The defects of the system are that shops are too numerous, employ too few workers in each individual case, and thus cut down the size and variety of orders which can be handled and greatly increase the overhead cost by an undue multiplication of plant and administrative charges. That this duplication of effort is more or less inevitable, due to the desire of workers to live as close as pos-

sible to family and friends in familiar and loved surroundings, was recognized. Not only does the small shop, generally speaking, not pay its way, making augmentation of wages a necessity, but it tends to restrict activity to a few stereotyped lines, and the ability to meet the demands of the changing market is limited. Could fewer and more centralized shops be established, drawing their workers from larger areas, it was contended that much larger orders could be solicited and executed, that a greater number of lines could be handled, that ruts would be more easily avoided, that more energetic and efficient management could be engaged, that the workers would receive higher actual pay, and that the cost of administration would be notably reduced in comparison with the present wasteful duplication of executives.

HOME WORKERS

The problem of the home worker, always a doubtful and difficult one to solve even partially, was considered best handled by having these workers, not as independent craftsmen free to pick and choose the articles they should make and the manner of their disposal, but as what would perhaps be termed *out workers*. Thus, they would receive orders from a central organization which they would execute according to specifications and which they would deliver at an agreed date and for an agreed price, acceptance depending upon the excellence of manufacture. These home workers would, of course, receive their raw materials at cost from the organization giving the orders. But the condition of such workers is at best a precarious one. Producing, for the most part, articles without the aid of machinery, depending for orders upon the state of an ever-changing popular demand and upon the effectiveness and standing of the central organization, there are comparatively few who can fully earn their livelihood. The statement of Mr. Retsler of Sweden that machinery and mass production would soon pronounce the sentence of extinction upon the home worker while, perhaps, not to be ranked as inspired prophecy would, none the less, appear to contain a large element of probability.

MUSIC

Professor Villey's contention that music as a profession for the blind was no longer as attractive as formerly, owing to the radio, the phonograph and the talking picture, etc., and that great care should be taken to limit this career to those with special gifts who should be assisted in securing positions when ready to begin the first business of earning their bread—this contention finds almost unanimous support. During the Tour of Visitation

a striking proof of the truth of Professor Villey's position was encountered. A really brilliant musician, whom many among the American delegates had often heard over the radio when he was playing on circuit with one of the largest moving-picture syndicates, was found operating a concession stand in a municipal building. The "talkies" had thrown him out of work, deprived him of an income of between five and six thousand dollars a year and reduced him to the necessity of selling cigars, candies, soft drinks and chewing gum. If a man who is a real artist, a composer of no mean ability, and who has sat at the consoles of some of the best organs of North America—if such a man cannot withstand the onslaught of mechanical music, what hope is there for the man with less noble gifts and more imperfect training?

Piano-tuners are also sorely stricken by the closing of many piano factories and the scrapping of thousands of privately owned pianos, all because of the radio and the phonograph.

POSITIONS OF TRUST

The position of the blind in the various divisions of their own industrial sphere was expressed unanimously by the blind delegates thus: Wherever a suitably qualified blind executive can be found, he should be appointed. With this view we believe the sighted delegates heartily concurred. As our work becomes better organized and more blind men and women are trained to responsibility and direction, it is inevitable that more and more positions of importance will be filled by them. On the other hand, it is recognized that the cause of the blind can prosper only in proportion as it secures the co-operation of the sighted, which will be ever more generous and enthusiastic as the real capabilities of the blind become better understood. But the question of the aid of the sighted is not confined to executive positions; it is also found in the employment division of shop work. An added percentage of sighted labor is acknowledged to be not only possible, but necessary, if our smaller shops, in particular, are to become in a measure commercialized in the true sense of the term.

CONCLUSION

The Conference has proved an inspiration to all, and it is confidently affirmed that progress in the solution of our economic problems will be everywhere accelerated by the information obtained and the ideas generated during the past three weeks. All those in attendance at this Congress are looking forward to the assembling of the next, which it is hoped will not be too long delayed.

TECHNICAL AIDS AND PROVISIONS

Rapporteur: A. C. ELLIS, *Superintendent, American Printing House for the Blind, Louisville, Kentucky*

The discussion of the general topic of technical aids and provisions falls into four main divisions as follows:

1. The nature, purpose and value of museums for the blind.
2. Appliances, apparatus and special devices for the use of the blind.
3. Processes, methods and machinery used in the production of embossed literature.
4. The circulating library and its problem of collecting and distributing embossed literature.

Museums for the blind may be classified into two groups. The first is that large group of object-teaching materials to be used in the instruction of blind children. This type of museum is being replaced by the practice of permitting the blind children to examine real and live objects of everyday life in their natural environments. Aside from collections of object-teaching materials we have a second type of collection which is of a purely historical nature. Such collections contain pictures of the blind, appliances, apparatus, embossed books, articles made by, and for, the blind, and such books and articles as may have been written by, or about, the blind. This type of museum should be complete enough to enable the investigator to study the progress of efforts in behalf of the blind in all countries over a period of many years. Such collections should present, at once, the results of past efforts and past experiences in this field. Happily, serious students are making these collections the subject of extensive educational research, and much literature of a scientific nature is being produced as a result of these investigations.

At the World Conference on Work for the Blind were exhibited many appliances for the use of the blind. The fact was most obvious that many useful appliances known and widely used in one country were almost totally unknown and unused in other countries. Here again is manifest the need for a greater dissemination of useful information relative to such appliances as might be of a wider usefulness if made known to all the blind everywhere. A central, international agency could very properly collect, improve, manufacture, advertise, and distribute such appliances to the great advantage of the blind.

The question of printing braille literature is one of vital interest to all who work for the blind. The past twenty years have witnessed a marked improvement in the quality, and a corresponding increase in quantity, of embossed literature. The perfection of speedy and accurate plate-making machines, the adaptation of high-speed, automatic-feed power-presses, the introduction of modern bindery methods and machinery, generous grants of money to promote printing, and the general acceptance of inter-point printing have all contributed to more and cheaper literature. However, we must record the fact that braille books are still so bulky that they constitute a grave problem as to storage and distribution. The small editions required result in relatively high prices. With all of the improvements in printing we must admit that it is still impossible to give to the blind individual libraries; indeed, it is impossible to provide even in circulating libraries all the books in braille that the blind would like to read. It seems that we must continue to do research in an attempt to find new and better methods of conveying to the blind the material of the printed page. With the recent development in sound-recording and sound reproduction by mechanical means it is to be hoped that the best in all literature can be recorded on a steel tape and reproduced in sound for the blind, thereby relieving them of the tedious necessity of reading by touch. Many enthusiasts are ready to hope that such a sound-recording and reproducing device may prove a solution to the problem of conveying literature to the blind. It is argued that such a process will be more satisfactory and less expensive.

In other quarters, we find highly intelligent, scientific investigators busily engaged in perfecting an electrical device which automatically transcribes in code from the printed page to an embossed page. This device, it is hoped, will transcribe any printed page accurately and rapidly, enabling the blind, thereby, to read at once from any ink-print book. To those of us who are engaged in producing embossed literature by present methods, these before-mentioned devices seem, at first, just a bit fanciful; but after witnessing demonstrations of these devices, one, however skeptical, must admit that it is not improbable that we are soon to witness entirely new methods of approach to literature for the blind, which will enable them to interpret the printed page with ease, facility, pleasure, and at a cost so low as to make possible individual collections of books or sound-reproducing apparatus, as the case may be.

Passing now to the question of circulating libraries, we approach the subject which provoked a great deal of discussion and led to the expression of widely divergent opinions. As a general principle, it seems that the establishment and maintenance of such libraries depend largely upon two factors: the number of blind readers and their peculiar literary tastes, and the amount of money available for printing. With these two factors determined, a question of policy arises: Shall we publish many titles and fewer copies of each; or shall we choose fewer and, presumably, more select titles, and provide more copies? The production of many titles in smaller editions makes for a greater production cost, as this policy precludes the possibility of large-scale production.

It is evident that many nations have produced large catalogs of embossed literature. The time has come when a braille reader need not be confined to the limitations of the braille literature of his own country, or even of his own language. Circulating libraries are receiving an ever increasing number of requests for books in foreign languages. Each nation is developing a catalog of its publications, and it is time that an international clearing-house should take over the function of collecting the various national catalogs and disseminating information as to where books in any language or on any subject may be obtained.

There is also need in each country for special circulating libraries built around special subjects. In the United States, for instance, one large circulating library might collect and advertise foreign books; another might build up a large catalog of music; another could become pre-eminent in science and mathematics; while still another might direct its attention to the collection and circulation of religious literature; and so on, until all special subjects are exhausted. This practice would eliminate costly duplication of titles in the several libraries, develop large collections on a given subject, and greatly improve the service to braille readers.

The interchange of books and plates between peoples speaking the same language is seriously proposed. It is urged that such a practice will prevent duplications and result in an increased number of titles available to readers; but, when we consider the different standards of printing in the various countries, we are impressed with the fact that, in order to have any considerable interchange of books, we must have a certain uniformity of standards as to quality and cost. For instance, in one country the quality of the dot is of first consideration, and the grade of paper and type of binding are matters of secondary importance. In

another country only expensive papers and attractive bindings are used. Therefore, the price per volume of books will vary greatly in different countries, and make impracticable any interchange of books; for, obviously, no country would give two volumes for one in an exchange. Not until books are produced according to uniform standards as to type, materials, size, and quality of print, may we expect a free and satisfactory exchange of books between nations speaking a common language.

In conclusion, it may be stated that all of the discussions on the subject of this report pointed conclusively to the need for international co-operation. A central bureau, acting under the auspices of an international organization could render invaluable service by serving as a clearing-house. This bureau could:

1. Maintain a complete catalog of the materials in all of the historical museums for the blind, and publish bibliographies to aid students who are doing research;
2. Collect, improve, advertise, and distribute appliances and devices for the blind;
3. Collect and publish information relative to standards of embossing, printing, and binding braille books;
4. Maintain an international catalog of braille publications showing where any publication may be obtained.

These considerations, alone, would justify an international bureau.

SOCIAL SERVICES

Rapporteur: W. McG. EAGAR, *Secretary-General, National Institute for the Blind, London, England*

The subject which I have been asked to report on, Social Services, falls, as things have turned out, into three parts: The first part of the subject matter relates to those practical matters of social action which are concerned with the prevention of blindness and with saving sight; the second part deals with the theory and practice of home teaching and home visiting; and the third rises to the more abstract sphere wherein are discussed the big political questions: What is the attitude of the state to the blind, and what is the attitude of the blind to the state? All these must be dealt with in the time at my disposal.

On the first, the practical question of preventing blindness and saving sight, we had two papers from Mrs. Hathaway and Dr. Mérida Nicolich which, I venture to say, are contributions of permanent value to this subject. I need do no more than express our appreciation, first, of the papers themselves, and secondly, of the obviously efficient and energetic work being done in this country by the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness under Mr. Carris and his Associate Director, Mrs. Hathaway.

The interest of the blind in the prevention of blindness was pithily expressed by Captain Baker in the discussion which followed the papers: "We are a select class," he said, "and we are not anxious to see our numbers added to."

The logical result, or the logical sequence, of this remark and of the general tenor of our discussion is that we have arranged that the new International Council for the Blind shall co-operate at every possible point with the International Association for the Prevention of Blindness which is also already housed in Paris.

On the next division of my subject matter, the theory and practice of home teaching and home visiting, we had a paper from Miss Merivale who, with a human touch and a literary ability which we all admired, drew a picture of a comprehensive and practical scheme in working.

The impression—I hope my American friends will forgive me—the impression that I think we all have obtained during our talk and our many discussions with others engaged in similar work in this country is that in England, that country of which Miss Merivale wrote, we are some years ahead of America in this matter of home teaching and home visiting. I hope I shall not be put “on the spot” for saying that. By way of extenuation of what might be regarded as a boast, I would add that our problem in England is much easier. That was brought home to us vividly when we went to that great state of Pennsylvania, and were told that it was nearly equal to England and Wales in area and that the blind population of that area—about one-eighth, I think, of the blind population of England and Wales—had to be served by seven home teachers. We have, if I remember rightly, some 450 teachers for a similar area.

It is obvious, and it is one of the things which kept coming to our minds during the course of this Conference, that the problem of dealing with the blind in their own homes is much harder in countries where the population is sparse and scattered, and much easier where you can get the blind population closely concentrated in such an area as can be covered by a single person or a group of persons.

How to cover vast territories and sparsely populated countries is not for us to say. But we may properly emphasize that there is a technique of home visiting and home teaching, a quite distinct technique, and that skill in home visiting and home teaching is fundamental to all work in the welfare of the blind. You must not—we must not—draw our blind away from their homes more than is strictly necessary. We must, if possible, bring up our blind children in an atmosphere where they get the advantages and the benefits of family life, and, perhaps, make the sacrifices that family life entails, because the school of life is the school both of opportunity and of sacrifice. Home visiting and home teaching, therefore, are fundamental; there is a technique of home visiting and home teaching which, perhaps, we have developed more fully in England than elsewhere. It seems essential that you should be able to call on home teachers and home visitors who are qualified for their work.

That is all I have time to say on the second part of the subject. Let us come to the third part, the relation of the blind and the state.

On that, I do not think any of us will say that we have reached a final decision. There is a real controversy, there is a real difference, in political theory between Captain Fraser, on the one hand, and M. Guinot, on the other. And involved in the general theory is the practical question of Pensions, on which we heard an admirably categorical and logical paper from Dr. Gaebler-Knibbe.

The discussion on Pensions was, in my judgment, the best discussion that we have had during the Conference. It reached and maintained a high level but, as is typical of so many discussions in this baffling world of ours, there was confusion all of the way through because the term which was being argued was ill-defined. We found at the round table that some people interpreted pensions as being something which came late in life, and others interpreted it as meaning any sort of allowance whatever made by the state to no-longer-employable, employable, or unemployable blind persons. But one definite conclusion was reached; that no one wants pensions which destroy the incentive to work. Pensions of that kind lead to pauperization and to the bankruptcy of constructive work for the blind.

What everyone wants is that the state should recognize that the handicap of blindness can be compensated for without in any way bringing the persons compensated within the scope of the Poor Law of the country concerned.

On the theoretical question involved, M. Guinot made it very clear that, in his opinion, something other than "philanthropy" is needed. (If anybody is puzzled by the word "typhlophile" used by M. Guinot, I suggest that there is no translation of it except "philanthropy for the blind"; it is a purely French coinage.) He is quite clear that something other than philanthropy is needed; but he left most of us in doubt as to whether that something can be obtained by the means which he advocated.

To save time, I would use to M. Guinot an unabashed *argumentum ad hominem*. M. Guinot referred, dangerously, to the history of work for the blind in England. He said that the Blind Persons Act of 1920 was gained by a procession of blind persons led from the provinces to London. In point of fact, this procession was only an episode in a long story, too long to relate here and now, but the leader of that procession was Mr. Ben Purse, who is known to many of you and who is the highly trusted head of a department in the National

Institute for the Blind in London. Now, in Mr. Ben Purse's own mind, as his knowledge has deepened and his experience has widened, there has gone on a very considerable change, and I should be very much surprised if the opinions of M. Guinot do not go through a similar change before many years have passed.

Now, M. Guinot demands for the blind "economic security," and at first we rather wondered what that meant. When he came to define it we found, in fact, that he was asking for the French blind a program practically indistinguishable from the program provided by the Blind Persons Act in Great Britain.

If "economic security," however, means pensions from childhood, we have received a very definite warning from Mr. Hedger of Australia that a pension given from childhood may have the effect of depriving the youngster of the incentive to work, and so may destroy his life, mentally and morally, from the beginning.

We reach the conclusion that philanthropy is required; but that philanthropy is not enough. The state should underpin the whole fabric of the welfare of the blind by financial and administrative aid. That is actually the gist of the Blind Persons Act in England, and in effect is the program set out by M. Guinot in his paper.

I must now briefly refer to the underlying political theory. M. Guinot rose in the discussion and said, quite frankly, that he disagreed entirely with Captain Fraser's political theory. It is perhaps natural that a countryman of Rousseau should have a particularly strong idea of natural rights, but I want to remind M. Guinot that the whole doctrine of natural rights is part of the doctrine of the social contract, and that the exaction of rights for the individual depends upon the performance of duties by the individual to the community of which he is a part. If the first duty of the state is to enable the blind person to contribute to its economic, intellectual and moral well-being, it is also the first duty of the blind person to make his contribution. This doctrine affects our attitude toward the public who, after all, constitute the state. We have to teach the public that the blind are more than a social emotion. We have to beware of provoking the public into estimating the weight of the blind as a political force.

In M. Guinot's arguments there is a wholesome astringency; but there is also latent in them, I venture to think, a very great danger to the future of work for the blind. The welfare of the blind, as Dr. Strehl said admirably in the discussion, "demands the co-operation of the state, philanthropy and the blind themselves." That is the tripod on which work for the blind must rest, and if any one of those legs is taken away we must labor to make good the defect.

In some countries it is not a question of taking away a leg; it is a question of constructing a leg. And that is the task which obviously lies before some countries in Latin-America, and others where the state has not yet recognized its responsibilities in the matter. Without the state, philanthropy, working for and with the blind, is weak. Without the blind as an organized and articulate force, philanthropy, supplemented by the state, falls short in understanding and lacks moral authority. Without philanthropy, the blind can expect and, in the long run, will obtain only a bare recognition and an assistance which must be undiscerning and indiscriminating and, therefore, to a large extent futile.

I wish I had time to refer more fully to Captain Fraser's paper. Apart from the unceremonious treatment which he gave to the doctrine of natural rights, he gave us a valuable and interesting summary of the Blind Persons Act of 1920, which I venture to mention again because my friend Professor Villey and others tell me that they would like to see that Act transferred bodily to their own statute books.

After all, Ladies and Gentlemen, legislation is the practical expression of the relationship of blind persons to the community. M. Guinot's program is, in effect, the English Blind Persons Act of 1920. Captain Fraser's principles permit him to admire that Act without reservations. And so we come to this comforting conclusion at the end of our day's work: that, even if we are pulled apart in our theories, when we come down to practical action we agree.

SECTION 8

BUSINESS SESSIONS

PROPOSALS FOR WORLD COUNCIL ORGANIZATION

(Session of April 29, 1931)

Chairman: EDWARD M. VAN CLEVE, *Principal, New York
Institute for the Education of the Blind, New York*

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: I am glad to be present and to welcome you all again in this room and in closer quarters so that we may speak to one another more familiarly.

We are now ready for the closing up of our work.

There being no definite program for this afternoon, Mr. Irwin and the other members of the Executive Committee have agreed that we shall first receive the report of the committee that was appointed at the round table on International Organization. This committee has been in conference a great deal of the time since it was appointed on the 16th of April. Its chairman is Robert B. Irwin, whom I now call upon to make a report.

MR. ROBERT B. IRWIN (U. S. A.): Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: As you know, a committee has been working ever since the conference began upon plans for an international or world bureau for the blind. We have put in many hours, had many discussions, consulted with many people, and have at last prepared a tentative plan to be submitted to you. We have asked a well-known lawyer to put this matter into legal form, but as that legal form has not yet been voted upon by this special committee, it seems best to submit the plan as your special committee drew it up.

According to this plan, you will notice that the Executive Committee which you will elect this afternoon will have the power to adopt a constitution and by-laws. The Executive Committee will therefore meet immediately after this session, or at least before they leave New York, and go over the plan, the constitution and by-laws as set up by our lawyer, and I think that there will be substantially no important changes in the plan submitted to you today.

I am now asking Mr. Eagar, who acted as scribe for the committee, to read these proposals for me.

MR. W. MCG. EAGAR (GREAT BRITAIN): The report runs as follows:

"The Committee have met a number of times and propose the following resolutions for the approval of the Conference:

1. That, subject to the satisfactory completion of negotiations now in hand for finding the necessary finances for the first three years' work, the World Conference now assembled shall establish an International Council for the Blind, under this or some other name to be afterwards decided, with an independent office in Paris.

2. That Mr. William Nelson Cromwell, President of the American Braille Press, and Mr. M. C. Migel, President of the American Foundation for the Blind, be asked to serve as President and Vice-President, respectively, of the General Council.

3. That the International Council at its meeting in New York on April 29, 1931, shall appoint an Executive Committee consisting of not more than nine members, in addition to the President and Vice-President of the General Council, who shall be ex-officio members of the Executive Committee, each of whom shall have power to appoint a nominee to represent him on the Committee; and that the Executive Committee shall have power to co-opt not more than three other persons.

4. That the Executive Committee be instructed to establish an office and proceed with its work at the earliest possible date, and also to prepare a constitution for the International Council which shall be submitted to the Council at its next general meeting.

5. That the General Council, in the first instance, shall consist of all the delegates here assembled, except that no single country shall have more than eight members of the General Council, together with persons approved by the Executive Committee to represent countries not represented by delegates present at this Conference, and such other persons, the total of whom shall not exceed 20 per cent of the total membership of the whole Council, as are elected to membership by the Executive Committee.

6. That every member of the General Council shall have a vote at the general meeting in New York on April 29, 1931.

7. The Executive Committee constituted at the first meeting of the General Council shall hold a meeting before its members leave New York and adopt a working plan of operation.

8. Pending the adoption of a permanent constitution by the International Council, the members of the Executive Committee shall not be representatives of any country as such, but individuals selected for their special qualifications from not less than five countries; and the Committee shall be guided generally by the following directions:

a. The appointment of the directors of the office and the figures of the annual budget shall, during the first three years

of the Council's work, be subject to the approval of Mr. Cromwell and Mr. Migel.

b. The Executive Committee shall have power to appoint such sub-committees as are necessary for carrying on its work, and to delegate any of its powers to such sub-committees.

c. The Executive Committee shall elect its own chairman who shall also call a meeting at any time upon receiving a written request to do so from five or more members of the Committee.

d. The members of the Executive Committee shall draw up by-laws on which they shall act and shall hold office until the constitution of the Council is adopted by the General Council.

e. Members of the Executive Committee shall not receive any fee for their services.

f. In the case of a vacancy on the Executive Committee, whether due to resignation, death or any other reason, the members of the Executive Committee shall have authority to co-opt the necessary person to fill the vacancy."

The Acting Committee at its meeting on April 25, 1931, adopted the following resolution:

"That in order to insure the representation on the Executive Committee of the specific point of view of the Unions of the Blind, where such Unions exist, the representatives of such Unions who are at present at the Conference as delegates should meet in order to put forward the name of one of their number to serve on the Executive Committee of the International Council."

In accordance with this resolution, a meeting of the representatives of the Unions of the Blind was held on the S. S. "New York" (en route from Boston to New York), April 28, 1931, and M. Paul Guinot was nominated to serve on the Executive Committee.

MR. IRWIN: I reserve the right to interrupt the scribe, as I want to explain to you a little bit about the personnel of the Executive Committee. The election of that committee is in your hands, but we thought it would be wise to accompany this plan with a suggestion of those who might serve on the Executive Committee.

In selecting these persons whose names we are proposing to you, we tried to forget, as far as possible, the question of nationality and to select people interested in the blind who would be com-

petent to render the Bureau effective service regardless of nationality. You will notice, however, that, so far as possible, we have avoided having more than one person from any country.

I am suggesting that you consider the plan of the Bureau as it has been outlined to you, apart from the personalities of the Executive Committee. Then let the Committee propose to you for your consideration certain names for members of the Executive Committee.

There is one point that I hope you will bear in mind in all of your discussions, and that is that this is a rough plan which describes the working of the organization in principle and which we hope you will adopt in principle. The new Executive Committee will take this plan and the plan submitted by the lawyer, harmonize them, and throw them into what we hope will be a satisfactory form. In other words allow the new Executive Committee some liberty in adjusting details.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: You have heard the proposed formation of the Council, omitting the personnel. We are ready for discussion, and it is important that this discussion take place now, so that if this plan meets with the approval of the assembled Conference, it may be put into effect and the action suggested in the report of the committee may be taken before the delegates leave New York.

MR. HENRY HEDGER (AUSTRALIA): I move that this meeting stand adjourned for fifteen minutes, and that each delegate be supplied with a typewritten copy of these resolutions that have been read out by Mr. Eagar. I am very sure it is impossible on an important occasion like this, in calling an international bureau into existence, for everybody seated in this room to be familiar with what has already been read, and I take it that we should be supplied with a copy and that each resolution read out by Mr. Eagar should be taken separately and discussed very fully by every delegate who wants to speak.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: Does anyone else desire to speak? Mr. Neary.

MR. NEARY (IRELAND): I have listened very attentively to Mr. Eagar's reading, but I should like to have the purpose and object of this international bureau more clearly indicated. I consider that we would be foolish to set up an organization without knowing what the ends and objects of that organization are to be.

I am an Irishman, but the world is my country, and trying to do good is my religion. Let us be fair, square and honest with each other. Let us have a free and full discussion no matter

how widely our points of view may differ; let us thresh it out, and I am sure that if we do we will come to a decision that will meet with the approval of the blind, no matter in what country they may be situated.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: You have heard the motion; before you vote upon it, there has been put into my hands a paper¹ which will answer Mr. Neary's question, and if you will listen to that I will be pleased to read it to you.

RESOLUTIONS PREPARED BY COMMITTEE ON INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION

Pursuant to an Act passed by the Congress of the United States on February 19, 1930, authorizing President Hoover to call a World Conference on Work for the Blind, the President, in March, 1930, caused to be addressed to each nation a communication stating that the World Conference on Work for the Blind would be held in the City of New York in the spring of 1931 for the purposes among others:

1. Of affording an opportunity for workers for the blind from various countries to discuss problems of common interest.
2. Of evolving plans for the interchange among nations of information regarding matters of peculiar interest to the blind, such as new special appliances, approved methods of teaching, and profitable lines of employment.
3. Of evolving a plan for international co-operation in the study of problems relating to the blind and in the manufacture of equipment designed for their special use, etc.

And also expressing the hope that every country in the world would participate in this Conference and that each would send a delegation of experts thoroughly conversant with the technical aspects of work for the blind in their country.

In response thereto, the Conference on Work for the Blind has assembled in the City of New York, April 15 to April 30, 1931, composed of delegates of governments, associations of workers for the blind, leaders of special experience and experts in this great field of humanity, numbering in all over one hundred, who have in daily sessions exchanged views, held conferences and made visitations to other blind agencies in the United States; and in final discussion have reached the following conclusions in furtherance of their common aims.

Aside from the benefits to flow from their individual organizations and which they pledge themselves to continue with unabated

¹ This form of the draft differs in some slight particulars from the one finally adopted. The final draft appears in full on pages 529 to 534.

interest and activity and in a co-operative spirit with the World Council next herein established, it is hereby

RESOLVED:

1. That this Congress hereby establishes a World Council on Work for the Blind, with headquarters in the City of Paris, France, as a separate and independent entity apart from any other organization;

2. That the terms of office of the members of the council shall be three years from the date of incorporation of the Council;

3. That each nation, officially or unofficially represented at this Congress, to wit: Argentina, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Egypt, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Guatemala, Holland, Hungary, India, Irish Free State, Italy, Japan, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Peru, Poland, Roumania, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United States, Yugoslavia, shall be entitled to one representative on the World Council; and that like representation shall be accorded in respect of each nation who may hereafter join the World Council;

4. That the meeting of the Council shall be held annually at the head office of the Council in the City of Paris at a time to be fixed in the regulations of the Council;

a. The World Council shall be vested with the general direction of its affairs and especially the rationalization of existing technical apparatus and appliances used by the blind and of the machinery used in connection with producing braille books and literature for the blind, and the co-ordination of research in the technical equipment used in work for the blind;

b. The securing of uniformity in braille notation for all purposes, and uniformity of braille method in music;

c. The collection and dissemination of information respecting new experiments, ideas, legislation and the like in all countries;

d. The establishment of a clearing house for embossed music, literature, apparatus and appliances;

e. Negotiations and arrangements on behalf of the blind world in general on such international questions as free postage, removal of customs barriers to the importation of special appliances and books used by the blind and materials used in the manufacture of such books and appliances, as well as matters of transportation;

f. The promotion of new work for the blind in all countries where their present condition is inadequate.

g. And generally such other purposes as may be calculated to aid the blind in any manner soever.

5. That the officers of the World Council shall be a President, a Vice-President, Secretary and Treasurer, the last-mentioned to be a first-class banking corporation with offices in Paris, convenient of access to the officers of the World Council.

The duties of the Secretary and Treasurer shall be of the customary nature.

The terms of office of President and Vice-President shall be for three years from the incorporation of the World Council and they, as well as members of the Council, shall severally have power to appoint (during said period) their successors or representatives in writing filed with the Secretary, and shall be qualified to vote and act in person or by proxy.

For the first term of three years from the incorporation of the World Council the President and Vice-President, respectively, of the Council and Executive Committee, respectively, shall be Mr. William Nelson Cromwell and Mr. M. C. Migel, and they are hereby designated and elected to said offices, respectively.

6. To encourage, initiate and make possible this noble cause, Mr. Cromwell and Mr. Migel will contribute annually for the first period of three years the sums they have already intimated, provided that this plan be established in such a manner and form as to give them confidence and assurance that it will result in the accomplishment of the objects and purposes herein generally set forth.

That the Members of the World Council shall, in a spirit of mutual helpfulness, contribute such amount annually to the budget of the Council as they may severally find practicable so to do; and they severally fully realize the supreme duty to the cause of the blind of the world that such contribution should be as substantial as practicable.

7. That there shall be constituted by the World Council an Executive Committee of eleven members and the first members thereof are hereby constituted as follows:¹

8. That the terms of office of the members of said Executive Committee shall be three years from the date of incorporation of the World Council and vacancies which may arise in their number during their term of office shall be filled by a vote of three-fourths in number of the members of the World Council acting as afore-

¹ See page 428.

said in person or by proxy in like manner as is provided by subdivision 5 thereof ;

9. That the President and Vice-President of the Council shall, ex-officio, occupy the same offices and relations to the Executive Committee.

10. That the Executive Committee shall establish a Bureau in said headquarters for conduct of the routine work and shall appoint a Sub-Committee of three of their number who shall have general charge of said Bureau and who shall appoint a Manager of the Bureau for the conduct of the current business, but this Manager shall be at all times subject to the approval of the President and Vice-President of the World Council.

11. The Members of the World Council, the President and Vice-President of the Council and of the Executive Committee shall serve without compensation, except that the expenses of the Executive Committee in attendance at meetings called and held shall be reimbursed.

12. That the President and Vice-President are hereby constituted a Special Committee with plenary power to cause the World Council and the general plan herein provided for to be duly and legally incorporated with by-laws or regulations, under such laws as they may consider most appropriate and as closely in harmony with the foregoing as they may consider best to accomplish the purposes of these resolutions.

It is to be ever kept in mind that this World Council is not a Home for the Blind where individual care and treatment is to be afforded, but that it far exceeds that work, noble as it is. This is to be an executive organ or instrumentality dealing with far greater questions and duties than those relating to individual cases. We design to create and conduct a world-wide executive instrumentality for the blind, aiding minor forces of helpfulness for the blind and endeavoring to alleviate their needs, to elevate their standards of life and its duties by bringing the whole world into a spirit of helpfulness and rejuvenation for the blind. In consequence we must conduct the World Council affairs with high executive ability and on broad and not merely personal lines.

Our duty is worldwide—not merely local. It is humanity in the broadest sense—but it must be in the most unselfish sense that we deal with this great human problem—with a horizon unlimited by territory, race or creed, and with the best executive faculties and with careful regard to economy of funds contributed primarily for the benefit of the blind.

(The motion to recess was agreed to.)

MR. IRWIN (on reassembling): I am going to read now the point which is appropriate to this discussion:

(Mr. Irwin reads from point 3 on to the first resolution.)

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: Captain Fraser has asked for the floor.

CAPTAIN IAN FRASER (GREAT BRITAIN): With the object of assisting the Committee to arrive at a conclusion, I beg leave to make a proposal. I feel that we are spending too much time on preliminaries. Mr. Neary's question was an apt and proper one, and full answer has been given. Moreover, most of us who are here were present at International House when I myself happened to make some observations about the general desire for an international bureau, and such suggestion was received with very general assent.

You will remember that a round table was convened earlier, at which a great many of those who are here present were in attendance, and at that round table the general principle of having a bureau, the object which it was to fulfil, and the desirability of it, were threshed out and were carried not merely unanimously, but with acclamation.

I propose accordingly a resolution indicating the general agreement of this meeting with the principle of establishing an international bureau, and while I am on my feet I want to make the suggestion that if this meeting sees fit to carry that resolution, we should then take the details, resolution by resolution, step by step, so that Mr. Hedger and others, who naturally found it difficult to follow the whole mass of material at a time, may be able to follow each point as it is read out.

I feel it would be a tremendous loss to the blind world if the leaders of the work who have come here to make such useful contacts had no machinery through which they might continue those contacts between now and the next world conference.

Without elaborating on the necessity for this bureau, I feel that I can hope, and perhaps expect, that at this stage this meeting may be prepared unanimously to vote that we are in favor of the principle of an international bureau. I beg to move that.

MR. ALRIK LUNDBERG (SWEDEN): I second the motion.

(The motion was unanimously carried.)

MR. J. T. HOOPER (U. S. A.): Mr. Chairman and members of the Conference: I offer the following motion: I move that the purposes as read by the Chairman be now adopted as the objects for the formation of this international organization.

(The motion was duly seconded.)

M. PAUL GUINOT (FRANCE): Mr. Chairman, I beg leave first to present the following suggestion: That, in order to avoid confusion, only official delegates be authorized to vote on the articles of the constitution about to be submitted to us, so that guides may not think themselves entitled to vote.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: You have heard the motion that the objects for the formation of this international organization as read by the Chairman shall now be adopted. Are you ready for the vote?

MR. C. G. HENDERSON (INDIA): I have only one point to make. It seems to me that in the objects read out to us, the words "work for the blind" are not very clear, and I should like to know whether it includes preventive work.

We have a very large field, and if this organization is to be an international one it must include a large number of nations in the East for whom the chief problem is prevention. And I would like to move that in the statement of objects the words "work for the blind" should be supplemented by some wording to include prevention, or tentatively that we should say that the objects of the association should include co-operation with the International Association for the Prevention of Blindness already established in Paris.

(The motion was duly seconded as an amendment).

(The motion was thereupon put and unanimously agreed to, and the amendment adopted).

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: Now, with the suggestion that has been made here, will those who have not a right to vote please refrain from voting. The delegates are the persons who ought to vote.

MR. P. N. V. RAU (INDIA): Since we have had fifteen minutes' rest and time to go through the resolutions of the Committee, we have had time to understand them and we think it is not possible to take all the points at one time and pass them. Therefore, I propose that each recommendation be taken separately, considered and voted on.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: I think that can be agreed to, unless someone wishes to make a motion that it be taken all together. Does anyone care to take it up as a whole? If not, we will proceed item by item.

MR. IRWIN: The Chairman suggests that before taking up the question of the membership of the Executive Committee, we take a vote resolving ourselves into a Council to act upon these various items.

First, I would like to ask how many American delegates are present. (A count showed seventeen present).

Now, it is proposed that in this Council no country should have more than eight votes. It is suggested that the American delegates cast but eight votes. Will nine of those present, therefore, refrain from voting.

I move that we now resolve ourselves into a Council of the World Bureau on the Blind, and proceed with our work.

(The motion was duly seconded).

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: It has been moved and seconded that we do now resolve ourselves into a World Council on Work for the Blind.

(The motion was put and carried. Thereupon the report was read item by item with pauses for objection or discussion.)

(The discussion which followed resulted in only a few minor verbal changes in the original items and is therefore omitted in the interest of brevity. The full report may be consulted at the office of the American Foundation for the Blind, 125 East 46th Street, New York City.)

The items which have been read by the Chairman are now before you for action. I am ready for the motion.

DR. M. A. EL KATTAN (EGYPT): Now as a member of the World Council, I should like to propose that the American Braille Press in Paris do the work of the International organization, which would result in great economy to the Council.

Then I should like to make a suggestion that one of the responsibilities of the World Council for the Blind should be to initiate a movement in a few of the backward countries where no institutions exist, for the training and education of the adult blind. This activity should take the form of a traveling school in countries like India, Egypt, etc., so that their blind may find some place where they can be taught trades. And these countries, having seen such a traveling institution, will carry on and help their blind. I should be grateful if you could adopt this suggestion.

PROFESSOR GÉRARD BORRÉ (BELGIUM): Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I wish only to say that I fully agree with the suggestion of the delegate from Egypt. I, also, am afraid of the expense involved in setting up a new organization. Were the money thus expended, it would not do as much good as in the way proposed by him.

MR. EAGAR: Perhaps I may be allowed to answer the point that has been put by Dr. Kattan and M. Borré, because in the original plan for an International Council which I had the honor

to circulate to a good many delegates before they left for New York, that was the proposal put forward.

When we came to New York and met Mr. Cromwell and Mr. Migel, we found that it was not a practical solution. Mr. Cromwell himself was not willing to use the American Braille Press in that way. He himself suggested that the bureau should be wholly independent of any existing organization. (Applause). And that briefly is the reason why the present proposal is before you.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: Is there any other point?

MR. IRWIN: Regarding the model school, may I say just a word. If I understand Dr. Kattan correctly, his suggestion is that the Bureau be asked to arrange for the establishment of a model institution in certain countries where work for the blind has not been developed. With the meager funds available to the Bureau at present, such an undertaking would be impossible, but I recommend that this matter be referred to the Executive Committee.

We have had to work rather hurriedly in the preparation of this plan. You have already found several defects which you suggest the Executive Committee should correct. There are a few other minor points to be considered. One is the method of voting to be adopted for the Council. This will be thoroughly discussed and, I doubt not, satisfactorily worked out by the Executive Committee before it leaves New York.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: It has been moved and seconded that the portion of this report now before you, down to the question of personnel, be made the action of the Council. All those in favor say "Aye." (Chorus of "Ayes"); contrary, "No." (None). It is adopted unanimously.

Do you now wish to consider the question of personnel? The following names have been proposed: Siegfried Altmann, Austria; W. McG. Eagar, England; Paul Guinot, France; Alrik Lundberg, Sweden; Dr. Miguel Mérida Nicolich, Spain; Comm. Dott. Aurelio Nicolodi, Italy; Miss Margaret Schaffer, Switzerland; Dr. Carl Strehl, Germany.

MR. IRWIN: You will note that eight names, including that of M. Guinot, have been proposed for membership on the Executive Committee. The majority of these are Europeans and the Committee which has this important matter under consideration would suggest as the ninth member, Mr. Yoshimoto of Japan. Mr. Yoshimoto is a partially-blind business man, keenly interested in the cause of the blind of the Orient to which he contributes very liberally. He spends much of his time in England and would

therefore be able to attend meetings of the Executive Committee with very little expense to the Bureau.

MAJOR EDWIN WAGNER (POLAND), speaking in French, pointed out that though the Polish, Czechoslovakian, and Bulgarian delegations to the Conference represented 66,000,000 Slavs, including 40,000 blind, these would be wholly unrepresented on the Executive Committee of the International Bureau if the present suggestion were accepted. He had no objection to the election of a Japanese member but thought that, since German-speaking peoples were so fully represented, they might be willing to yield a place to the Slavic nations. He therefore put forward the name of Mme. Grzegorzewska, the director of an institution for the blind and a well-known writer on psychology, as the Slavic representative.

PROFESSOR PIERRE VILLEY (FRANCE): Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I should like to say a word on behalf of France. M. Guinot has been elected by the Federation of the Unions of the Blind. He represents this Federation. All other delegates represent of course no nation, they are only personalities. M. Guinot is therefore in a different position, and should he have to resign for one reason or another, probably a person from the Federation would replace him. I think, therefore, if there are to be no national representatives on the Executive Committee we are establishing, it is nevertheless advisable to seek a means of representing the great nationalities. As it is, the land of Braille and Valentin Haüy has no real representation, and I ask whether you would not be willing to have a personality of France who is not a representative of the Federation.

MR. F. R. LOVETT (GREAT BRITAIN): Mr. Chairman, if I rightly understood, Professor Villey is referring to a matter already passed. We have adopted this temporary constitution, in which we said that pending the adoption of a permanent constitution by the International Council, the members of the Executive Committee shall not be representatives of any country as such. There are thirty-three countries here and you can't get thirty-three representatives on a committee of nine. I suggest, therefore, that paragraph eight, which has already been passed, should stand.

MR. NEARY: I am in thorough agreement with the decision that the Committee should not be formed on the basis of nationalities. The Federation of the Union of the Blind elected M. Guinot as its representative on the committee, but the question of the election of the remainder of the Committee is one of great importance. One person who should be elected to this Committee

is some outstanding man or woman who has made a substantial contribution to the prevention of blindness. Secondly, I think that men and women who have made contributions to the education and industrial employment of the blind should also have a place. Those who have been working for pensions for the blind should also be considered. As a question of principle, we should consider the election of this Committee, and not a question of nationality or personalities.

MR. S. W. STARLING (GREAT BRITAIN): It seems that this is a rather awkward point. Therefore, to enable the Council to do its work, I suggest that we nominate such persons as we think best, and let the nominations come before the Council tomorrow, when we can take our votes.

MR. CLUTHA N. MACKENZIE (NEW ZEALAND): We must all recognize the enormously difficult task which the round table, the Council and the Committee have had in settling a very serious question. We cannot all be represented on the Council. An excellent selection has already been suggested and nominated, and I think that the only profitable thing to do at this stage is to elect them *en bloc*, which resolution I beg to move now.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: The motion is that the nominations be under consideration until tomorrow when a vote will be taken. Mr. Starling has proposed one amendment, Mr. Wagner another.

MR. LOVETT: I speak with some independence on this matter because, although I have served on the acting committee, I am not proposed as a member of this committee, and as a government representative I could not stand in any event.

It would appear to me to be a dangerous procedure to throw open to this Council, nominations for a Committee whose membership should include only persons possessing special qualifications for the work they will have to do. Some of those on the list already proposed have been working for years on this international organization and know it from A to Z. Others are present—one a well-known lady, another a distinguished ophthalmologist, both of whom would be valuable to the cause.

CAPTAIN FRASER: I rise to second Mr. Mackenzie's motion. In the proposals which have been made, it is, in my judgment, only putting off the evil day and this Conference will probably find itself in precisely the same difficulty tomorrow that it is in now if it throws the matter open for nomination and subsequent vote. The personnel suggested is one which from the British point of view I should like to support very strongly, and I would like to take the opportunity of saying this word in favor

of Great Britain's attitude, because we have followed two lines representing evidence of a very genuine desire not to give the impression that British influence was in any way pro-British in these discussions. For example, it has never been proposed by us that the Council office should be located in London, and when it was proposed by others, we were the first to suggest a European center; and secondly, those without sight on the British delegation have been the first to desire that our hard-working secretary, who has done more than most to make a contribution toward the success of this Conference and who himself can see, should be our representative. None of us who do not see have desired to put ourselves in competition with him.

May I therefore plead with the British delegates to join in endeavoring to secure a *bloc* vote now. And now may I turn to our French colleague and say a word to him by way of perhaps winning his support. Professor Villey should be delighted, and I feel will be delighted, that his country, out of all the countries that might have been selected, is in fact to be the one where the Bureau will be located. If there are not to be two Frenchmen on this select list which we have before us, may he be consoled by the thought that *la patrie* is greater than any Frenchman. (Laughter and applause). May we ask if he will not promote the *Entente Cordiale* by coming in with us British in this matter and supporting the *bloc* vote which Mr. Mackenzie has pleaded for? (Prolonged applause).

DR. LOTHAR GAEBLER-KNIBBE (GERMANY): We are wasting our valuable time in fruitless discussions. We have had the opportunity during our intercourse with each other at the Conference and on our tour to become acquainted with the gentlemen composing the list of nominees. Furthermore, we may have confidence in the Committee's judgment for it knows what these gentlemen have accomplished in the field of work for the blind. Therefore, I suggest, like Captain Fraser, that we vote upon the nominees *en bloc*, today, and leave the election of the ninth member over till tomorrow.

I make this motion and call for a vote on it.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: We have three motions now, and they will be taken up in their order. Mr. Starling's motion is first. (The motion was put and lost).

Mr. Starling's motion is defeated. Now Mr. Wagner's motion that a list of nominations should be compiled and voted for singly, in alphabetical order.

(The motion was put and lost).

(Mr. Mackenzie and his second accepted the amendment to his motion proposed by Dr. Gaebler-Knibbe).

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: The motion before you now is on the acceptance of the eight names upon this list and to make them by your vote the members of the Executive Committee, leaving until tomorrow the choice of the ninth member.

(The motion was put and carried).

The eight persons¹ named are now elected as members of the Executive Committee. (Applause).

Will you kindly listen to the chairman of this committee for a moment?

MR. IRWIN: You have elected Mr. Cromwell as President and Mr. Migel as Vice-President; they have not yet been consulted as to whether they will accept this honor. I am asking if you will give the Chairman of the committee the honor of presenting this matter to Mr. Cromwell and Mr. Migel on your behalf, asking them to serve?

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: It is agreed. There is one more resolution.

MR. EAGAR: Mr. Chairman, the resolution is that the members nominated by the committee be accepted *en bloc*, with the proviso that each member, besides doing his duty generally, shall interest himself, as far as possible, in the blind of a particular area, of the world, so that the representatives of the blind of that area might approach him whenever such a course be found desirable or necessary.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: As many as favor the resolution will say "Aye"; contrary, "No." It is adopted unanimously.

We now stand adjourned.

¹ See p. 428.

AGREEMENT ON WORLD COUNCIL ORGANIZATION

(Session of April 30, 1931)

Chairman: EDWARD M. VAN CLEVE, *Principal, New York Institute for the Education of the Blind, New York*

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: The unfinished business of this morning is the election of the ninth member of the Executive Committee. The organization is now in session as the Council of the newly-formed International League.

The Chair will recognize any person who wishes to make a nomination.

(There ensued a short series of nominations for the ninth place on the Executive Committee of the International Bureau, with discussions and setting forth of the particular qualifications of each candidate. As these qualifications are found in resumé in the list read to the Council before voting began, it has been thought advisable in the interest of space economy to omit the verbatim report from this account. Anyone desirous of consulting the verbatim report may do so at the office of the American Foundation for the Blind, 125 East 46th Street, New York City.)

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: I ask Mr. Eagar, who has been acting as Secretary, to state what persons have been nominated; and to indicate, as far as possible, the qualifications of each.

MR. EAGAR: The nominations made are as follows:

The first is Mr. Yoshimoto, a partially-blind Japanese gentleman, who is interested in work for the blind in Japan and Asia generally. He is in contact with the directors of the schools for the blind and is frequently in Europe on matters of business.

The second nomination is Mme. Grzegorzewska, who is an outstanding worker for the blind in Poland and known to the representatives of the various Slavonic countries.

The third name is that of Mr. Shah, Principal of the Calcutta School for the Blind, and happily known to all of us.

The next name is that of Señor Pardo Ospina, who is also well known to all of us at this Conference. Señor Pardo Ospina is Director of the Colombian Institute for the Blind at Bogota.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: Four persons have been nominated. We shall make the election by show of hands. We must therefore announce that no country, according to the rule which we adopted yesterday, may have more than eight votes. Americans who wish

to vote will be counted, but above the number of eight will be disregarded.

It has been suggested here by the chairman of the committee that the eligible voters of America be stated. I do not care to state them. I will therefore ask the chairman to nominate the eight persons who will vote.

MR. IRWIN: I will ask Mr. Joice of Pittsburgh to nominate them.

(The eight American delegates thereupon named by Mr. Joice were: Mrs. Campbell, Mr. Glover, Mr. Latimer, Mr. Ellis, Dr. Burritt, Mr. Sinclair, Mr. Carris and Miss Harper).

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: It is agreed that we shall vote on these names in the order in which they stand, beginning with Mr. Yoshimoto of Japan.

(The voting then proceeded, as a result of which the following was announced):

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: Mr. Yoshimoto received thirty-two; Mme. Grzegorzewska, eight; Mr. Shah, eight; and Señor Pardo Ospina, seven. I declare, therefore, that Mr. Yoshimoto has been elected.

There is additional business to be transacted before we resume our character as a conference. I refer to the reading of the constitution which has been proposed for the Council. Mr. Irwin will first make a statement in regard to this matter.

MR. IRWIN: Mr. Chairman, fellow members of the Council: As you know, this Council is made possible at present only through the generosity of two men. After our meeting yesterday I took our resolutions, as prepared, to Mr. Cromwell and to Mr. Migel. Mr. Cromwell, especially, felt that the language was not in exact legal form, and until it was in such form he felt that it was not sufficiently satisfactory for him or Mr. Migel to invest in the undertaking.

I told him that we had empowered the Executive Committee to make all necessary alterations and corrections, but he expressed the preference that we read over the draft as prepared by himself at my request; and I think it would be advisable for us to do so.

I might say in advance that the changes, so far as meaning is concerned, are quite minor. After the reading I would suggest that the Executive Committee be asked to consider the minor differences, and take them up with Mr. Cromwell this afternoon, and have them settled to his satisfaction.

The draft is practically the same as it was yesterday, and as you have already authorized the Executive Committee to make

changes in the constitution, I should think it were best that it be read without translation, in order to save time. It comprises some four or five pages, and unless there is objection from those unfamiliar with English, I would suggest that the Secretary be permitted to read it through, and that it receive your approval.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: Mr. Eagar will read.

(Mr. Eagar then read the document which, with the later modifications proposed from the floor incorporated therein, will be found reproduced on pp. 529-534.)

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: We should now proceed with the adoption of this paper. Will someone make a motion so to adopt it? Mr. Lundberg moves to adopt; and it is seconded by Mr. Kimura of Japan.

(Whereupon proceeded several modifications as proposed from the floor, which, as stated above, have been incorporated in the document "Final Resolutions" reproduced on pp. 529-534.)

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: We shall resume the duties of the Conference. The Summaries of Rapporteurs are now called for.

(Since the Summaries of the Rapporteurs appear on pages 397 to 415, they are omitted here.)

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: We are very grateful to these five rapporteurs who have given us such valuable resumé. These will appear in the published *Proceedings* of the Convention.

We have now reached the stage of finality. Mr. Irwin, the Chairman of the Organizing Committee, the man on whom most of the work has fallen, will now make a few remarks.

MR. IRWIN: Before we separate, I wish to congratulate you on having come together and established our World Council for the Blind. We now have, I think, our financial problem nearly settled for the next three years; but let us bear constantly in mind the fact that after three years we must, in large measure, ourselves support the Council. We must not wait three years before finding a solution of that problem. Immediately upon our return home, we must begin making plans for our respective countries, either officially or privately, to make contribution to the expenses of this Council.

It is the hope of those who are making the Council possible financially, that every country will participate, even though it be only to a small extent. As an American I am going to begin next week to find ways in which the United States may do its part, in addition to what the two Americans who are already contributing are doing. (Applause).

I know that our friends from Great Britain are making similar plans; and I hope that our friends all over the world will, as soon as they return home, begin making plans and getting commitments and sending in letters to the President of this Council informing him of what their respective countries will do.

Let us not wait until enthusiasm is dead, until we are overcrowded with our own duties, but let us make that our first responsibility.

Incidentally, as Chairman of the Organizing Committee, I should appreciate the courtesy of a copy of the letter you send to the President, so that I may know what progress is being made. I am sure also that Mr. Eagar, who I think first suggested this Council, would be glad to be kept informed as to how your respective homelands are participating, and how you may continue to participate.

Each delegate, governmental or non-governmental, will receive a bound copy of the papers and of the discussions carried on at this Conference. (Applause).

Now, may I in behalf of the Organizing Committee, thank you for your splendid co-operation, both before and during the Conference. And may I also thank you for your patience with our mistakes; we know that we have made many but they have been mistakes of the head, due to lack of experience, and not mistakes of the heart. (Applause).

DR. GAEBLER-KNIBBE: Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I am sure that all the delegates have already expressed their sincere thanks to the members of the Organizing Committee for the great pains they have taken. The Organizing Committee has, from the very beginning, even while we were still in our native land, watched over us like guardian angels. Before we came to New York we received letters expressing friendly interest and telling us of the great work already being done here. And this solicitude has surrounded us from first to last. Therefore, with the permission of the delegates, I desire to extend our sincerest thanks to the Organizing Committee and to our good friends, Mr. Van Cleve and Mr. Irwin.

MR. P. N. V. RAU (INDIA) said (in part)—I stand before you, brother delegates, to tender to the Executive Committee of this World Organization the thanks of one-sixth of the whole population of the blind in the world.

I come from India, which vast country is the birthplace and home of a million and a half blind persons. Being in attendance here, I should fail in my duty if I did not bring to the attention

of this World Congress the present need of the blind of India.

The continuation of this World Organization will hereafter lie within the province of the organization constituted yesterday. Whether it will be called a World Council for the Blind, or World League of the Blind—to stand side by side with that august body, the League of Nations—we shall have this organization to look to, wherever we may be.

Before we disperse, I should like to make some suggestions: First, as the problem of blindness has three sides—Prevention, Education, and After-Care—I suggest that the members of the Executive Committee divide themselves into three sections, each section specializing in one side of the work in addition to the other special work it has to do.

Secondly, whether we take for statistical purposes, countries, nations or areas, or the number of the blind, they are so vast that some sort of division of love and labor is an absolute and immediate need. I might therefore repeat here what I proposed yesterday, and what was referred to the Executive Committee as a valuable suggestion for consideration; that is, that the blind world should be divided into as many areas as there are members on the Executive Committee, and that each member should hold himself responsible for the welfare of that part of the world, and see that that part of the world gets everything it needs.

Before concluding, I may be permitted to say that the Indian Association of Workers for the Blind, Mysore, India, feels obligated to render any and all possible assistance in the matter of ameliorating the condition of the blind of India.

Finally, our thanks are again due to the American organization, especially to Mr. Irwin, for having requested the Government of India and the several other governments to send us all here, for enabling us to attend this important World Conference, and enabling us to be more useful in our sphere of work in India. I hope that what we have learned here we shall use in India, and see that the blind of our country will get better things from us.

COMM. ORESTE POGGIOLINI (ITALY): In the address delivered at International House on the evening of April 13, Captain Nicolodi promised you that the Italian delegation would be very sparing of words. We have kept our promise, because we like acts better than words. Therefore, not even now, in the act of thanking you, our dear American hosts, for the exquisite courtesy and kindly interest you have showered upon us, not even now, I say, shall we fail in our firm resolve not to annoy you with long speeches.

Perhaps, in 1933, there will be held in Europe, as you already know, the great International Congress on Work for the Blind, for the preparation of which men of wisdom and strong will are now working.

We now say to you, with our rough frankness, that while we are ready to admit the usefulness of reunions and conferences such as that held in America, of a pre-eminently informative nature, we do not believe at all in the usefulness of congresses where time is spent in discussing a great number of questions of a petty and analytical nature.

Such congresses are and will be fatally inconclusive. We have had a painful experience with them in Italy, where seven academic congresses were held in the course of forty years, from which nothing serious or conclusive ever resulted. Progress was made, and conclusions were reached, only when, towards the end of the last of these congresses, the basic lines of the more essential problems were laid down with clarity and firmness, omitting useless details, and creating the proper organization to conduct the work in a practical manner and push it forward energetically.

Gentlemen, we have brought to this World Conference two fundamental and essential questions. One of these has already been raised by Professor Romagnoli—who is, in Italy, one of the most eminent of the persons born blind—when he told you that the co-education of blind children with those who see, even in the lower schools, is one of the best means for succeeding in giving them useful preparation for life. The experiment conducted for the past twenty years in Florence, where the children of the Institute for the Blind are sent every day to the public schools, has caused the Italian Government to establish a law, that all grade schools be obliged to welcome to a common course with those who see, the blind who, from the fourth grade on, apply for admission. In this manner the preparation in the special schools is limited to the essential minimum, that is, in the kindergarten and the first three grades—reading, writing, modeling, drawing, and orientation in space.

Only through this system can we help the blind child to develop self-reliance and poise, and prevent him from appearing timid, embarrassed and inferior in the society of his fellow-men, for contact with seeing children of his own age is for the blind child the most effective schooling for life.

Another more burning and delicate question has been put before you by Captain Nicolodi, who with characteristic energy told you in his speech of April 15, that in Italy the cause of the

blind has made rapid progress only since the blind themselves have organized fraternally, putting themselves in direct contact with all civil authorities and taking upon themselves the guardianship of their own interests. They have not isolated themselves from those who see, but have chosen men with a modern point of view to help them in their difficult task, and, wherever possible, have set aside philanthropists of the old school.

These philanthropists with out-of-date ideas, even though guided by good intentions, did not, because of their oppressive guardianship, leave to their protégés the means of fully developing their personalities. They did not believe in the intellectual and productive possibilities of blind persons, and too often used them as objects of publicity, over-emphasizing, to their detriment, the note of barren pity.

Now we should like to express our wish that the principal discussion of the next great world congress hinge upon these two great issues. Other subjects of a technical or analytical character might be easily relegated to second place, and discussed at the end of the meetings, at "round-tables," or by a special group of experts. Only in this manner, to our way of thinking, can the International Congress really be made productive and useful to the cause of the blind throughout the world.

We do not delude ourselves into believing that our views will be easily and readily accepted, but we wish to ease our consciences by speaking clearly and in time.

We are sure that our voices will not fall on empty space, and that they will be listened to by the intelligent and independent blind who will ponder and act. With time, we shall surely see the development of new conditions.

With this hope, with this wish, we express to all of you, congress delegates from all the world, our brotherly love.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: This statement will find its proper place in the *Proceedings*.

MR. HERBERT W. THOMPSON (AUSTRALIA): Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: On behalf of thousands of the blind of Australia, I should like to express their heartfelt thanks to the various organizations who have contributed to the success of our enjoyment and also of carrying out the various details of this Conference. We should not like to go away without expressing our heartfelt thanks and our very sincere wish that the future policy of those who are administering the executive work of the international center may contribute the greatest success to the blind of the various nations of the world.

When we return to our native lands we will endeavor to do our utmost to further the interests of our various blind communities. We ask that those who will direct this great international activity will ever keep in mind that no policy should be adopted which does not give to the blind the choicest gift of all, the power to work, the power to read, and the power to live as normal citizens. No matter what your intentions, you cannot give them anything better than to stand shoulder to shoulder with the various sections of the community, because they are workers among the great toilers of the world. (Applause.)

On behalf of Australia, let me say this: we wish you God-speed in all your undertakings, and we in our turn will put forth our best effort to assure the greatest possible success in the future.

Ladies and gentlemen, I thank you again, and on behalf of my co-delegate and myself, I should like to express our sincere appreciation of the cordial welcome which has been extended to us. We go back with the kindest feelings, and we leave with you our hearty good wishes.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: It is now necessary to bring to a close our discussions and felicitations. At the opening session it was announced that, according to the regulation made by the Committee on Personnel and Program at its meeting in Hamburg last spring, no resolutions of any sort would be brought forward for action by this Conference. However, it is expected that any papers that have been presented, bringing forward certain ideas to be set forth in formal statement, will be referred to the Executive Committee of the International Council.

I ask Mr. Eagar, therefore, to make this statement, so that it may be clearly understood and that everyone may have the opportunity, if he desire, of expressing himself in a resolution.

MR. EAGAR: I think I can put these most briefly. Resolutions have been received dealing with the following subjects: Esperanto; the need for forming an organization with a director for blind persons in all countries, and bringing into force a comprehensive scheme, part of which is pensions, but providing also for training and employment and re-education; uniformity of braille notations; and fourthly, the vital importance to blind children of having their confidence established while they are young by the employment of a reasonably proportioned number of blind teachers. Then, fifthly, the need of securing free postage and an interchange of apparatus for blind appliances, and materials used in such things between different countries.

CHAIRMAN VAN CLEVE: Now for the Organizing Committee, and for myself, I wish to thank you all for your felicitations at this time, and for your generous acceptance of a very inadequate chairmanship. This duty of acting as chairman was, in a way, forced upon me, without being premeditated. I have realized that my business as chairman here was not to hold fast to strict parliamentary rules. My action here has been with one purpose only, and that is the most amiable purpose, to allow everybody to have his say, and to go away feeling that he has not been prevented from expressing his sentiments. This is not a world conference for promulgating any great truth, or for the passage of resolutions; but it is a conference for getting together, listening to one another as we express our views and opinions, and becoming better acquainted. Our purpose is to improve, if possible, the relations between nations, and especially to improve the relations among the blind of the world.

I hope that you are going home feeling that this foremost purpose of the Conference has in large measure been accomplished.

I now call upon the Reverend Mr. Blaxall to pronounce the benediction.

(At the conclusion of the benediction, the meeting was adjourned.)

PART II
SUPPLEMENTARY PAPERS

SECTION 1

WORK FOR THE BLIND
IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES

WORK FOR THE BLIND IN ARGENTINA

JULIAN BAQUERO

*Librarian, Biblioteca Argentina para Ciegos,
Buenos Aires, Argentina*

On the 16th of August, 1887, under the patronage of the Benevolent Society (*la Sociedad de Beneficencia*) of the Federal Capital (Buenos Aires), the first school for the blind was founded. This first school was an annex to the La Merced Asylum for the Orphan (*Asile de Huêrfanes de la Merced*) in the Capital and from its establishment it worked under the management of Mr. Juan Lorenzo Gonzales, a blind graduate of the Santiago de Compostela (Spain) School for the Blind. In 1908, the Federal government having founded another school for the blind, the Benevolent Society closed this first school.

NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR THE BLIND¹

In 1900, the blind pianist of the school for the blind of Naples, in co-operation with Miss Eva San Román, founded a private school for the blind which they supported from their own resources until 1908, when they succeeded in securing from the government all the teaching equipment needed. The school thus became a national institution, and the National Government appointed Miss San Román and Mr. Gatti as Principal and Assistant Principal, respectively, of the institution. Such was the administration of the National Institute for the Blind (*Instituto Nacional de Ciegos*) until 1913, when Congress passed a law by which the Argentine Institution for the Blind (*Institucion Argentina de Ciegos*) was founded, and placed the Institute under the control of this institution. The immediate aim of the Argentine Institution for the Blind was to secure a building adequate for the education and other activities of the blind in accordance with the most modern methods.

Up to the present time they have raised a fund of one and a half million *pesos* to start the work, the plans of the building having been approved since 1925. At present the Argentine Institution for the Blind, whose president is Mr. Augusto Montes de Oca, receives a subsidy from the National Government of two hundred thousand *pesos* for the maintenance of the Institution. The Institution accommodates one hundred and fifty students of both sexes.

¹ Address: Instituto Nacional de Ciegos, Rivadavia 6277, Buenos Aires.

It has excellent equipment for teaching, and a good faculty, and the system of education comprises primary, musical and manual education. The department of piano-tuning (which is under the management of a blind teacher) is, so far, the one which gives the best results. Massage is also taught but its results have not been satisfactory, not because of the students (whose progress is very good) but because physicians and the public in general have no faith as yet in the blind masseur.

TUCUMAN SCHOOL FOR THE BLIND¹

This small school was founded in 1919 on the suggestion of a former student of the National Institute for the Blind, named Patricio Acuña. The local government has provided a grant of thirteen thousand *pesos* a year and with this sum they manage to cover all of the expenses of the institution. Its faculty consists of a Principal and four teachers, and it has from twenty to twenty-five students. Due to its very poor financial condition its development is difficult and rather distressing.

ARGENTINE LIBRARY FOR THE BLIND²

This institution was founded on the suggestion of Mr. Julian Baquero (its present librarian) and with the assistance of the Misses Vicenta Castro Cambón and María C. Marchi, and Messrs. Segismundo Taladriz and Jorge Stang. To the above list we must add the names of Dr. Agustin C. Robuffo, a noted oculist, president of the institution since its foundation, and Messrs. Alberto Larrán de Vera and Luis A. Rosa. The institution depends on the voluntary financial help of its Board of Trustees and on a few private and municipal subsidies. Its working system is rather complicated, its principal aim being to stimulate the blind to further interest in, and love for culture. It sends its embossed books entirely free of cost to all the countries of the world upon request. These books number about five thousand volumes, and while the majority are in Spanish, there are also some in French, English, German and Esperanto.

This library arranges for lectures as well as for literary and artistic performances, and every year it holds a contest among its borrowers in the reading of embossed books, on which occasion desirable cash prizes are given. The library publishes the monthly braille magazine "Towards the Light" (*Hacia la Luz*), consisting of sixty quarto pages, and a fortnightly bulletin consisting of twenty pages of varied reading material. Its braille printing shop

¹ Address: Escuela de Ciegos de Tucuman, Marcos Avellaneda 411, Tucuman.

² Address: Biblioteca Argentina para Ciegos, Pedernora 502, Buenos Aires.

is undoubtedly the best in South America and has two stereotyping machines, one Minerva Victoria with a large setting capacity and a double system of electric heating, one paper-cutting machine, one set of shears, one two-head hook-and-eye fastener, one Fortuna machine for book-binding and a complete book-binding shop. At the present time its own building is under construction and will be ready for occupancy about the end of the year 1931.

GENERAL SITUATION

There is no official record of the number of blind in the entire country, but the best estimates give some ten thousand, of which hardly one thousand can read braille. The blind in Argentina develop their activities of their own accord instead of by suggestion of, or with the assistance of, any institution for adult work for the blind, of which there are none in the country. Of all the trades taught in the official institute, such as the manufacture of baskets, brushes and brooms, piano-tuning, music and massage, the one that gives the best practical results is, as we have already stated, that of piano-tuning. The blind who are not piano-tuners have been compelled to abandon the trades they learned in school in order to make a living. The blind have found a profitable field in selling cigarettes in public buildings, banks and other institutions of the kind. Furthermore these small merchants have in their favor the advantage of a monopoly in the sale of National Lottery tickets. Some blind teachers once succeeded in getting positions as assistants to teachers of music and literature, but due to economy measures in the official administration, such positions were cut out. A few blind persons make their living by either playing or teaching music, but in spite of all these endeavors there remains unsolved the great problem with its inexorable question: What field should the blind resort to in order to earn a living?

AUSTRALIA AND ITS BLIND

HENRY HEDGER

*Manager, Sydney Industrial Blind Institution,
Sydney, Australia*

Australia, in area, is bigger than the United States, with a population of nearly seven millions. There are six states in the Commonwealth: New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, West Australia, and Tasmania. In each of these states there are fine institutions for the education and industrial training of the adult blind, the Melbourne Institution, which has a total of 247 pupils and blind workers, being by far the largest in the country. Each state, too, maintains fine libraries in braille and Moon type. These libraries, in some of the states, are not connected in any way with the institutions. In addition to the institutions, we have several societies in Australia which are doing good work in caring for those blind persons who are not actively associated with any institution.

All these institutions and organizations, with the exception of one in Queensland which is controlled by the government, are supported by public subscriptions and by government subsidies. The very fine educational institutions also can charge the parents who are in a position to pay a maintenance fee for their children's board while they are in residence.

The industrial institutes, in which the blind of both sexes are employed from the age of fourteen, are fine and well-equipped. In addition to the support which I have already mentioned, these institutes realize a fair sum from the sale of goods manufactured by the blind workers. But as no profit is made on the work of the blind employees, the institutes do not reap any benefits from such sales, for all money obtained in this way is used for wages, bonuses, and in payment for materials. Consequently, all expenses for teaching and overhead in the industrial institutes must come out of the revenue obtained from the other sources I have mentioned above.

Blind persons from the age of sixteen are granted a government income of £1 a week in addition to their wages and bonus, provided their earnings with the pension do not exceed £4:5:0 a week. This means that if a worker earns more than this amount, his pension is reduced accordingly. There are, however, very few who can earn up to, or can average more, than the amount allowed, so

that this provision would not affect more than a total of 20 per cent of those employed in handicraft.

Blind persons who intermarry and are thus eligible for two pensions, do not exert themselves to earn more than the minimum of £2:5:0 a week, preferring to take the full pension of £2 per week rather than work up to their full capacity.

Just a few words here with regard to granting blind children the pension at the age of sixteen. When the pension scheme was brought into operation, I informed Mr. Andrew Fisher, then Prime Minister of Australia, that I considered it to be a grave mistake to pay pensions to children of sixteen. I pointed out that it would undoubtedly act adversely to the government's real intention when the Pension Act was drafted, and that if it was allowed to continue, it would be a backward step, detrimental to the youthful blind person in his future career. At this stage of a blind person's life, I considered, legislation should rather be directed to preparation for the battle of life after school days.

Now, after a lapse of years, I see no reason to change the views then expressed. On the contrary, experience has borne out the wisdom of the opinions I then held. Many young people between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five have refused to take up industrial training. Some have even refused to learn to read and write, preferring to remain in idleness and grow up illiterate, utterly oblivious to the fact that the day would come when they would regret the years of usefulness and happiness thus lost.

In many cases, over-indulgent and careless parents are to blame for this state of affairs. Instead of encouraging their children by every means in their power to take some interest in life, they are quite content to take the pound a week and allow their children to adopt a life of idleness instead of active occupation, without ever thinking of the consequences.

It is only necessary for me to add that many of the adult blind have expressed the same opinion that I hold in regard to this matter. At a small conference of blind workers held in Melbourne before the Pension Act came into force, the delegates—all blind—numbering eleven in all, were not at all unanimous in favor of a pension being granted to the blind. One delegate said that "the payment of a pension indiscriminately to all blind persons will place a 'wet blanket' on their efforts and enterprise."

Another delegate urged the conference to reject the proposal to ask for pensions stating his opinion that the payment of a pension would act detrimentally to the blind. He also said that the payment of a pension to all blind persons would adversely affect

those who were conducting businesses since their competitors could make use of that fact as an argument to persuade the public from patronizing the blind business man.

Finally, the proposal to ask for a pension was carried by a bare majority of one. It is the general opinion, however, that the granting of a pension has been a great blessing to the adult blind, especially to married men with families. The opinion has often been expressed by the blind themselves, that it would have been much better for the interests of the young blind if the pension had been started at the age of twenty-one instead of sixteen.

All blind persons, regardless of age, are granted a free yearly railroad pass which enables them to travel over all suburban lines up to a limit of thirty miles, anywhere in the state, and includes also one free pass for a guide. When on business trips, the blind are allowed to travel with their guide on one ticket charged at five-eighths of excursion rates. They are also allowed concessions on the street cars in which they may travel over all sections on any one route for the small charge of one penny.

The trades taught to the blind in the Sydney Industrial Blind Institution are as follows: Basket-making in all its branches; brushwork of every description; making of door mats, heavy and light; weaving coir material in all colors and patterns; mattress-making; making horse halters; netting; plaiting; making parts of wicker furniture; piano-tuning; repairing and caning chairs.

Other branches of work carried out by the Institution are:

1. Home teaching in reading and handicraft. (Teachers are sent all over the states free of charge.)
2. A free lending and reference library of 14,000 books in braille and in Moon type.
3. A hostel for blind women—no fees charged.
4. A hostel for blind boys—no fees charged.
5. Assisting the out-door blind and institution workers with clothes, grants of material and monetary assistance in cases of distress.
6. Providing picnics, concerts, and theater parties.
7. Pianoforte tuition, and training in repairing, tuning, and polishing.
8. Singing tuition.
9. Medical attendance for workers, their wives and families.
10. Sick pay for workers, without payment of contributions.
11. Pensions granted to aged workers after retirement.
12. Legal advice free by a member of the Committee.

13. Grants of raw material up to £10 per annum to blind people working in their own homes.
14. Braille of examination papers for students.

The work covered by this Institution is really typical of the work done for the blind by all the institutions in Australia.

In the State of New South Wales, according to the last state census, the total number of blind people was 1,057, of which only 65 were under the age of fourteen, and approximately 547 were over sixty years old, the remaining 445 being of an age where it is expected that they would be able to take some form of occupation. The average age of the blind was fifty-four years.

At present, the total number of blind persons administered to by the Institution in New South Wales is 415, classified as follows:

1. Blind workers and blind teachers.....	130
2. Blind home workers assisted with raw material	20
3. Blind persons obtaining books from the library, excluding those of the workers who read braille	277
<hr/>	
Total.....	427

The work performed by the blind workers is paid for at the trade union piece work rates, and the sum thus earned is supplemented by allowances from the general funds of from 20 per cent to as much as 50 per cent, so that totally blind men and women may live their lives with as few monetary difficulties as possible. But all this costs money, and constant outlay is necessary, too, for the upkeep of the buildings. The goods must be well made and sold at an attractive price compared with trade prices. Therefore, if a workshop for the blind is to become anything like an economic success, it is very necessary that the highest quality, as well as the greatest production, be secured. The highest standard of quality will create a ready market for the products, while greater production will lessen the overhead expenses and make it possible for the management to pay even higher wages to the employees.

Unfortunately, some of our present workers, owing to mental and physical troubles, will never be wage earners, despite diligent efforts on the part of their teachers. It has now become a matter for serious consideration whether at the completion of his training a worker can be regarded as "efficient" unless he or she is able to do good work and earn, in the case of male workers at least 17s. 6d., and in the case of females 12s. 6d., a week at trade union rates.

Blind men and women who live in the country, and for various reasons cannot attend the state institutions, are visited by home teachers and taught to read and write, and are also given instruction in some of the simpler trades in their own homes. Afterwards they receive free grants of raw materials with which to work, up to the value of £10 per annum. The Sydney Institution also grants financial assistance to the blind in their own homes, gives the blind reader books in braille and in Moon type, and maintains a library of the world's great books. During 1929, nine thousand volumes were loaned to readers from this library.

The cost of philanthropic work carried out by the Sydney Institution during the past eight years is as follows:

1. Medical fees, sick pay pension to old workers, grants of raw materials, clothes and money, hostels, Workmen's Compensation Act, picnics and recreation, home teaching, music, library and expert teachers £25,561
2. Allowances granted from general funds to supplement the earnings of blind men and women.... 26,173

Making a total for charitable work of..... £51,734

In regard to the payments made to the blind for work done, the fact must not be lost sight of when isolated cases are selected for criticism, that it is impossible for any blind person ever to attain a 100 per cent efficiency. Some of them are economically 85 per cent below normal. Many seeing workmen never reach efficiency. For partially-blind workers provision is made in Wage Board Awards, and the blind worker also can be assessed to work for less than the standard rate of wages.

The amount spent on philanthropic work surely emphasizes the fact that the Institution not only has to undertake the expense of training the blind to work, but it also has to provide financial aid while they are being taught, and continuous employment for them afterwards. It also emphasizes the fact that this Institution, and all similar institutions must not be looked upon as commercial ventures, but rather as philanthropic institutions and must always be carried on as such.

This Institution, like most others, is feeling the stress of the times, and, for the first time in its more than fifty years of history, is finding great difficulty in disposing of all the output of its workers—so much so that it has been necessary to put many of them on short time. The members of the Committee of Management who represent the most prominent and influential business

men in the country, and are all well known as liberal supporters of most of our charities, are working hard and using their influence in the community to improve things. They are ably assisted by a Women's Auxiliary, which has done wonderful work in raising funds during the past year. Thus we see men and women joining hands in the effort to solve the great problems of human misery occasioned by the world depression which is so badly affecting everyone, rich and poor alike.

SCHOOLS AND ORGANIZATIONS FOR AIDING THE BLIND IN BELGIUM

GÉRARD BORRÉ

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Nearly a hundred years ago the first school for blind children in Belgium was established. It was in 1835, to be exact, that the first institute for deaf-mutes and for blind boys was founded in Brussels by the Brothers of Mercy. Shortly afterwards some nuns founded a similar institute in Bruges, this time for girls as well as boys. Subsequently other schools were established, and since 1904 we have had eight institutes for the education of blind children, namely:

The Provincial Institute for Deaf-Mutes and for Blind Boys (*L'Institut Provincial de Sourds-Muets et d'Aveugles*), Berchem-Ste-Agathe, Brussels—the official institute for the province of Brabant.

The Royal Institute for Deaf-Mutes and for Blind Boys (*L'Institut Royal des Sourds-Muets et des Aveugles*) Avenue George-Henri, Woluwe-St-Lambert, Brussels—under the direction of the Brothers of Mercy.

The Royal Institute for Deaf-Mute and Blind Girls (*L'Institut Royal pour filles Sourdes-Muettes et Aveugles*), Rue Rempart des Moines, Brussels—under the direction of nuns.

The Provincial Institute for the Blind (*L'Institut Provincial pour Aveugles*)—for both boys and girls—Ghlin-lez-Mons. This is the official institute for the province of Hainault.

Institute for Deaf-Mutes and the Blind (*Kononklijk Doofstommen en Blinden Gesticht*)—for boys and girls—2 Snaggaertsstraat, Bruges. This is a Flemish institute under the direction of a religious order.

The Royal Institute for the Blind (*L'Institut Royal des Aveugles*)—for boys and girls—80 Rue Onulphe, Liège. An institute directed by the Philanthropic Society of Liège.

Institute for the Instruction of Blind Boys (*L'Institut pour l'Enseignement des Garçons Aveugles*), Maeseyck—under the direction of a religious order.

Institute for Blind Girls (*L'Institut pour Filles Aveugles*), Maeseyck—under the direction of nuns.

All these schools for blind children are boarding-schools. The State contributes for each pupil's board a sum which varies according to the cost of living in the district where the school is situated. At present, the cost to the State is about Fr.4000 to Fr.4500 per child.

The Belgian law of compulsory education does not affect the deaf-mutes and the blind. Neither do our schools for the blind come under the administration of the Minister of Sciences and Arts, but rather under that of the Minister of Justice, Department of Charity. Instruction of the blind hardly goes beyond the program of the primary school. No legal provision exists to assist those blind pupils who desire to extend their studies further, though blind pupils are allowed to benefit from scholarships in the same way as seeing pupils. These scholarships are made possible through an official fund, called the "Fund for the Gifted." Blind pupils may remain in the institution until they attain the age of twenty-one, but often a supplementary period is granted to permit a pupil to complete his professional education.

Music, piano-tuning, caning and repair of chairs, basket-making and brush-making are the only professions and trades taught regularly. Massage has been taught in two or three instances, but, owing to the great difficulty experienced by masseurs in obtaining employment, instruction in this profession has almost been abandoned. Two years ago, there was installed in the Bruges Institute a telephone and telegraph center for the instruction of blind telephone-operators, but here, too, finding employment for the blind in this kind of work has not met with success.

The professions in which the blind succeed best in Belgium are: Piano-tuning, music, and business. There are about fifty blind organists. The position of organist in the churches is generally a far from lucrative one, but it gives the blind organist an opportunity to make contacts with persons who procure him work as piano-tuner or as music-teacher.

As for the manual worker, he finds that the exercise of his craft does not bring in sufficient funds for his needs unless he is able to run a business in connection with his work.

It is chiefly to aid this class of worker that blind persons have grouped themselves together and societies for help have been constituted.

The Federation of the Belgian Blind (*La Fédération des Aveugles Belges*), founded in 1886, members of which are exclusively blind persons, was the first society of the blind to be formed in Belgium. The Federation, with headquarters at 24, Grand'Place,

Brussels, is a society for mutual help. Its members pay an annual subscription of 50, 100, or 150 francs. In case of illness or disablement, a member receives an indemnity covering his incapacity for work. This indemnity may be for 10, 20 or 30 francs according to the amount of the member's subscription. His expenses for doctors and medicines are also partially reimbursed. Members of the Federation are admitted to the State's fund for Old Age Relief, which allows them a pension in their old age.

The National Union of Blind Workers (*L'Union Nationale des Aveugles Travailleurs*), which at the outset was composed solely of blind persons, was founded in 1903. Its members proposed to erect a workshop and to work there together at such trades as the caning and mending of chairs, brush-making, basket-making, and chopping wood for fires. In 1917, the economic difficulties due to the War caused a stoppage of work in the workshops of the Blind Workers, so a committee of patrons was organized, composed of charitably inclined persons desirous of coming to the aid of the blind. This society is now called "The Braille League and House of the Blind" (*La Ligue Braille et Maison des Aveugles*), and its headquarters are at 57, Rue d'Angleterre, Brussels. Its activities center chiefly in its workshops where blind workers exercise their craft, and in its library from which books are sent gratuitously to the blind throughout Belgium. The Braille League also grants loans of money to blind persons for professional purposes. These loans are made without cost to the borrower and do not draw interest. The society also maintains an employment service.

The Society for the Protection of the Blind (*La Société Protectrice des Aveugles*), founded in 1908, is established at Antwerp, 18 Rue d'Escaut, where there is a workshop which gives regular employment to thirty blind persons.

All other societies for the assistance of the blind have been formed since the War.

The organization, "La Lumière," 43 Boulevard Frère-Orban, Liège, has a large workshop, where the blind are employed in the caning and mending of chairs, in brush-making, basket-making and in knitting by machine. This organization also publishes a monthly magazine *L'Ami* which is sent free to all blind Belgians who read French.

The braille library in Brussels is a public library which also sends its books to all Belgian blind persons.

The National Organization of the Blind (*L'Oeuvre Nationale des Aveugles*), 90 Avenue Dailly, Brussels, is essentially a Cath-

olic society under the direction of the Franciscan order of monks. There an employment service and a workshop are established, but the number of blind persons who work there is very small.

"Light in Darkness" (*Licht en Liefde*), 2 Snaggaertsstraat, Bruges, is a Catholic and Flemish association. Included among its diverse activities are:

1. A printing press which publishes:
 - (a) a monthly magazine, *Roomsch Licht*,
 - (b) a scientific bulletin,
 - (c) a musical periodical *Muziekbode*,
 - (d) a collection of Flemish songs, *Zingt meê*.
2. A library containing only books in Flemish.
3. A society for mutual aid, membership in which is limited exclusively to blind persons.
4. A service of loans for professional purposes.
5. A propaganda service to aid in the prevention of blindness.

Association for the Social and Economic Amelioration of Blind Workers (*Vereeniging voor Zedelijke en Stoffelijke Opbeuring der Werkende Blinden*), 1 Winkelstraat, Ghent, is also a Flemish association. It was founded in 1928 and its aim is to aid blind inhabitants in the locality of Ghent in the various difficulties they may meet in life. This society already numbers more than a hundred members.

Aid for the Blind (*L'Aide aux Aveugles*), Rue des Bouchers-saint-Brice, Tournai, is a recently formed society but nevertheless it has already opened a workshop where several blind persons are employed.

In addition to the above-mentioned associations, there are also some "societies of patronage." Each of the institutes has founded such a society for the purpose of assisting ex-pupils.

The salaries paid to the blind in the workshops of the Braille League, of "La Lumière," and of the Society for the Protection of the Blind, are established in a manner very similar to that which obtains in the workshops of the United States of America; that is, blind workers are paid by the piece, but in addition to their salary (always most insufficient) each society gives its workers a subsidy which varies according to the society's resources.

Since 1929, the State has paid a subsidy to all infirm persons, counted among whom are the blind. To obtain this subsidy one must have at least 30 per cent invalidity, be at least fourteen years old, and be needy. To qualify as "needy," one must not earn more than Fr. 20 per day if unmarried, and Fr. 17 plus Fr. 6 for each dependent, if married. Thus, a blind married man with two chil-

dren receives the subsidy if he earns not more than Fr. 17 plus three times Fr. 6, that is a total of Fr. 35 per day. The yearly grant for 100 per cent invalidity amounts to Fr. 2,250. A completely blind person is entitled to the total amount of the subsidy.

All associations for the handicapped are demanding an increase in the subsidy and it is to be hoped that a revision of the law will shortly give them satisfaction.

Since 1925, an advisory committee for the amelioration of the lot of the blind has been at work in the department of the Minister of Justice. Among the members of this committee are the principal representatives of schools and societies and also officials of the Department of Charity. It includes three sections: 1. Medical and statistical section; 2. Pedagogical section; 3. Section for post-graduate assistance.

The permanent advisory committee acts as a link to unite all the organizations for the blind in Belgium. This committee has formed itself into an association without any financial aim in view, and the funds which it gathers are employed solely for the general interest.

THE CARE OF THE BLIND IN BULGARIA

VASSIL STEPHANOV

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The number of blind persons in Bulgaria is 4,477. According to statistics for the year 1926 there were 8.17 blind persons for every 10,000 inhabitants. Statistics for 1920 gave the number as 7.88 for every 10,000 inhabitants. Thus, during this five-year period there was an increase of 0.29 blind persons for every 10,000 inhabitants.

Until the year 1905, no steps were taken in Bulgaria to alleviate the lot of the unfortunate blind. But in that year, the book *The Hygiene of the Eye* by the professor, Dr. Pachev, had just been published. In this book, for the first time, the question as to how the blind might be helped was openly raised. It insisted on the establishment in Bulgaria of institutions and workshops similar to those existing in well-organized states.

At that time the Minister of Public Instruction was Dr. Chichmanov, a former professor and a man of high culture and philanthropic interests. He believed that the instruction and education of the handicapped child demanded the same care as that given to the instruction and education of the normal child. In September, 1905, he ordered the establishment of the first institution for blind children in Bulgaria. This institution aimed at giving to blind children such education and instruction as was possible in view of their handicap, and also to give them practical preparation for life.

Children from the age of seven to fourteen are admitted to the Institution for the Blind for instruction in required subjects. The same subjects are taught as in the complete course of the primary school. (In Bulgaria, instruction in the primary school proper extends over a period of four years, and in the intermediate school, three years.) The school course is for nine years. During the first seven years, the instruction given is of a general character, for the remainder of the course it is vocational—music and trades. The Institution of the Blind endeavors to be not an *asylum* but a real *school*, where the pupil may develop to the utmost his physical and intellectual powers. Those persons who have successfully finished the school course are good musicians or good craftsmen, capable of earning their own livelihood.

The organization of the institution for the blind is modeled after that of the Imperial Institute in Vienna, and in addition to the subjects just mentioned, German, Esperanto, and stenography are taught.

Special instruction is given in the study of music and of certain trades. It is generally recognized that the blind show an inclination towards music. Singing, theory of music, piano, violin, violincello, flute, etc., are taught. For each instrument there is a special instructor, and here it is worthy of mention that a blind teacher, Staynov, a pupil of our own institution, finds a place among the instructors.

In the workshops, the boys learn netting, and how to make chairs, hammocks, slippers, baskets and brushes; the girls work on various domestic articles, such as lace, bead ornaments, etc. This year we have opened for the first time a piano-tuning workshop for the blind—a workshop which is destined to play a leading rôle in the professional and cultural emancipation of the blind in our country, in addition to its great economic importance.

During the current year the institution for the blind numbers 79 pupils—51 boys and 28 girls, distributed among nine classes. There are 12 teachers and instructors, and 8 assistants, 4 of whom are blind.

Thus far, we have spoken only of the care given to the young blind. Aid for the adult blind is almost non-existent in Bulgaria.

During 1930, thanks to the Society of Blind Bulgarians (*Société des Aveugles bulgares*), and to the assistance given by a committee of women, there was opened, in the Society's own quarters, a home for blind girls, where at the present time ten girls are living. Particularly praiseworthy have been the efforts of this committee of women in seeking financial aid for the upkeep of the home. Knowing the present exigencies existing in our country, you will readily understand the difficulties they have had to surmount.

The leader and social interpreter for the activities of the blind in Bulgaria is the Society for the Protection of the Blind in Bulgaria (*Société de Protection des Aveugles en Bulgarie*). This society was founded in 1922 and is under the patronage of Her Highness Princess Eudoxia. From its foundation up to the present time, the society has had as president the indefatigable Professor Pachev, eye specialist. There is an auxiliary body attached to the society—a central executive committee which meets whenever necessary and which is presided over by His Eminence, Stéphan, Archbishop of Sofia.

The aims of the Society are:

1. To establish a home and a workshop (trade school) for the adult blind where practical knowledge may be given which will enable the pupils later to support themselves.
2. To seek employment for the blind among the professional acquaintances of the members.
3. To establish a home for blind persons who are not capable of working.

For the realization of its aims the Society expends a million and a half *levs*, and this year the construction of the above-mentioned home and workshop was begun. To enable it to carry out its plans, the Society counts on financial assistance from the public and the government. This year, for the first time, "Blind Persons' Day" was celebrated in several towns and villages—a fête sponsored by the Society. The results of this "Day," however, were not very encouraging because of the economic depression at present existing in Bulgaria.

A number of blind Bulgarians have formed a society called the "Society of Blind Bulgarians," which has as its aim the protection of the material and cultural interests of all blind Bulgarians. In former times, this society had an orchestra which toured Bulgaria, and proved a helpful means of propaganda for the activities of the blind. But hard times came and the orchestra was disbanded. Just at present, the society is directing its efforts toward collecting money for the relief of the unfortunate condition of its members.

Blind veterans of the war, who number 130, have a private society called "Darkness" (*Obscurité*) which aims to give protection and maintenance to those who lost their sight in the carrying out of their patriotic duty. The Society of Blind Bulgarians, and the society, "Darkness," pursue their private interests, each in its own field, while the general care of the blind is left to the Society for the Protection of the Blind in Bulgaria.

In 1928 there was organized a Reading Society for the Blind. It aspired to create a library in braille which would be available to all blind persons in Bulgaria. Cultural progress is the principal aim of this society. It is planning to edit a magazine both in braille and in ink-print. Already, a magazine—*Fate* (*Le Sort*)—is being published in ink-print.

Such is the modest attempt which the government and the people of Bulgaria are making to ameliorate the unfortunate condition of the blind.

WORK FOR THE BLIND IN CHILE

ABRAHAM GRIMBERG VILLAROEL

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The existing institutions for the blind in Chile are as follows:

1. School for the Blind and Deaf Mutes—Blind Section (*Escuela de Ciegos y de Sordo-Mudos—Sección Ciegos*). At the present time some fifty blind children from the ages of six to eighteen years are being educated in this school. We have six courses of general education in which the student receives a preparation more or less equivalent to that which is given in the regular grammar schools. This preparation enables the blind child to enter the first, and in some cases the second year of high school.

Textbooks are made in the school, and for this purpose we use a stereotyping machine and some of the more indispensable printing machinery.

Ordinary subjects are taught without any great difficulty, our special aim being to teach the blind along those lines which will help them most in their secondary or special studies.

The school realizes the importance of giving the blind a well-rounded physical education. Each course includes a minimum of three hours weekly of gymnastics under the direction of an expert who is also in charge of the afternoon recreational periods.

Vocational courses are generally conducted in the afternoon, and these are attended by all blind students. The students are sent to work in some of the workshops. Subjects of the special courses include: Basket-making, weaving, tuning and repair of pianos, typewriting, theory of massage, and playing the violin, piano, cello and wind instruments. About the middle of the year, an expert will take charge of a course in practical massage. At present, the piano-tuning shop is one that shows the best results. Music classes meet regularly and within a few months we expect the school to have its own orchestra.

The instructors of the school hold degrees and have sufficient preparation to carry on the work in an efficient manner. They are greatly interested in their work and do more than is actually required of them. Among the instructors are two blind men. One is an assistant in the Music Department, and has achieved success as a student of the National Conservatory of Music; the

other has charge of the library, and is also a student at the Pedagogical Institute where he is taking a course to fit him to become a professor of Spanish.

In Chile there is no legislation regarding the admission of blind students to the higher educational institutions. Up to this time, however, we have had no great difficulty in securing for our blind students the privilege of higher education. The school publishes and distributes a free pamphlet explaining the conditions of the blind, and it is hoped that this propaganda will help to break down the prejudice which exists in regard to the physical and intellectual capacity of blind persons.

2. The Santa Lucia Society for the Blind (*Sociedad de Ciegos "Santa Lucia"*). This Society was founded in 1923 in order to help the blind of Chile. It began its work by registering over five hundred blind people, as described in its bulletin. Courses in basket-making and in music were started, and visits to the Institute of the Blind were organized. In December, 1924, the Society was legalized as an institution by Decree No. 2747.

It concentrates its activities on five sections: (a) Music; (b) Basket-making; (c) Weaving; (d) Care of the "non-capable" blind; (e) Net-making. The work of the section for the "non-capable" blind consists in making monthly payments to those blind people who are either too old or physically unfit for work, the money for this purpose being raised by charging fees to visitors. The net-making section is in a warehouse or store where the work of the blind is sold. During the years 1925, 1926, and the first half of 1927, the sum of \$10,757.90 was collected by this section and used for the maintenance of the Society.

The Society holds frequent social gatherings for the blind. These are usually of a religious nature. At these meetings the blind are given cigars, food, and sometimes clothing. The Society has also established a home where the homeless blind can live.

All the Society's instructors are blind. Piano and violin lessons are given free by members of the Society. We have also a blind teacher of violin. The activity which has most attracted the attention of the public to this Society is its orchestra, which is the work of one of the ladies of the institution.

The above remarks regarding the Santa Lucia Society are taken from the book *Educación y Asistencia de Ciegos* by Professor Hipolita Gatica, published in 1929. We may add that the financial situation has improved notably inasmuch as, beginning last year, the Government granted the privilege of making public collections yearly for the maintenance of the organization. It may

be said, too, that today this Society is the wealthiest organization for the blind in Chile, almost all its patrons being ladies of social and financial position. This will prove to you that the Society is strong and really works in the interests of the blind.

3. The "Casa de Luz," in Concepción was organized by Señora Leonor Marcayano de Villa Novoa. The purpose of the institute is to help, protect, and educate the blind, also to give them a profession which will make them capable of gaining their own livelihood. A piece of land on which to erect a home and a school has been acquired from the President of the Republic, but in the meantime educational work in the city's asylum has been begun, where music, singing, elocution, and weaving are taught to the blind. These activities commenced in January, 1928.

Some of the blind pupils have been sent to the school at Santiago, and it is expected that these pupils will serve as teachers for their comrades on their return to their home towns.

This institution was legally authorized by Decree No. 2424 of the Ministry of Justice, and is making rapid progress. It has increased its services for the blind and has a good working program. Its patrons count upon the enthusiasm and help of the President of the Republic.

4. The Francisco Herboso Society for the Mutual Protection of the Blind (*Sociedad de Proteccion Mutua de Ciegos "Francisco Herboso"*). The following data are also taken from Mr. Gatica's book:

"On July 21, 1920, some former pupils of the School for the Blind united, under the direction of Señor Domingo Montero, to formulate the rules for the founding of a society for the mutual protection of its associates and for the betterment of conditions for the blind. At this time the blind were lamentably ignored by society and Government authorities. Blind persons, on finishing their four years at the school for the blind, were left to shift for themselves.

"This institution now has a membership of forty-five, of whom twenty are active members. It has a small library. Article 3 of its statutes draws up plans for a savings-bank service, literary and musical instruction, workshops, trades suitable to the blind, and recreational and cultural centers, in addition to the services mentioned above.

"Unfortunately, because of lack of sufficient funds, the organization has not as yet the proper means to promote its activities and to build shops in which the blind can work."

WORK FOR THE BLIND IN COLOMBIA

JUAN ANTONIO PARDO OSPINA

Director, Instituto Colombiano para Ciegos, Bogotá, Colombia

FRANCISCO LUIS HERNANDEZ

Director, Instituto para Ciegos, Medellin, Colombia

Between the years 1924 and 1926 there were established in the Republic of Colombia two institutes for the education of the blind, one in Bogota and the other in Medellin. The first of these, the Colombian Institute for the Blind (*Instituto Colombiano para Ciegos*), Bogota, being national in character, works directly under the national government and is managed by a board of directors composed of prominent members of the political, banking and pedagogical world. It was first organized as a private institution and later, in the year 1926, was taken over by the government.

The second school for the blind is a local one. Like the above-mentioned school, it is under the direct supervision of a board of directors composed of distinguished personages of the city of Medellin (Department of Antioquia) and of the administration of public instruction of the Department of Antioquia. The institute in Bogota was founded by Don Juan Pardo Ospina and the one in Medellin was founded by Don Francisco Luis Hernandez.

In accordance with the program of work for the blind in other countries, Colombia's two institutes plan to give to the blind:

1. Physical education
2. Literary education
3. Industrial education
4. Musical education
5. Vocational education

The physical education of our pupils is much the same as that in any school for seeing pupils. By means of Swedish gymnastics, apparatus, excursions and regular hygiene, including in the first place the daily bath and careful medical examinations, we have been able to make our group of pupils healthy and physically sound.

The literary instruction in the Colombian Institute follows the program approved by the Government for primary and secondary instruction, but employing the methods and equipment especially recommended for the instruction of the blind.

In regard to the industrial education of blind persons, the main problem is that their slow speed of work makes competition impossible or at least very difficult. We have come to the conclusion that to make a success of the industrial work of the blind, it will be necessary to give them machines well adapted to their work. Until this step is taken, the workshops for the blind will be productive of nothing more than collections of samples. They will never fulfil their purpose, which is to enable blind workers to earn their living by the fruit of their labors.

These remarks apply especially to a problem in our own country and in our sister nations. Colombia, which is just initiating an era of industrial development, offers to the blind a very wide field for action, but unfortunately there is lack of machinery, of technical co-operation, and of what the English term "relief."

Among industries which are adaptable for production by the blind we may mention especially the following, already established in our workshops:

1. Making of a great variety of things from agave fibre, which the country produces in large quantities.
2. Book-binding, a branch capable of great development.
3. Making of baskets and other things of willow twigs, which are also found in the country.
4. Making of different kinds of woven goods, especially with straw, wool, silk, etc.
5. Brush-making, which might be established on a large scale.
6. Making of straw fabric for furniture.

In our pupils who are employed in the workshops, we have observed a manual dexterity worthy of being taken into account when speaking of the industrializing of the work of the blind. We have already arranged exhibitions of articles made in our workshops and these have aroused great admiration. We have also opened a small salesroom.

Each of the institutes of Medellin and Bogota has its conservatory of music with orchestra, band and so-called *murgas* (band for national music). The performances of these bands have always been met with applause and admiration from the public.

The vocational instruction of the blind, when based upon sound academic lines, has in our opinion great opportunities. In Colombia there would be much willingness to use the professional services of the blind, especially as chiropractors, professional organists, piano-tuners, journalists, lawyers, teachers, professors and

in general all such professions which are open to the blind. Up to the present, however no actual experiments have been made in these fields as our institutions have only been established recently. There are, of course, a certain number of blind merchants, chiropractors without scientific knowledge, farmers, etc., but these are exceptional cases. Before long there will be established in our two schools a department for poultry raising, from which good results are expected.

Of course we have had in Colombia some very notable blind persons such as Dr. Manuel Maria Rodriguez, Senator of the Republic; the talented musician, José Maria Gomez; and journalists and teachers like Julian Paez M.

LEGISLATION

The most important legislative measures enacted in Colombia may be listed as follows: Organization of the national institute and concessions for promoting the opening of further schools; creation of managing bodies for the institutions for the blind; privileges on the railways and other official roads; postal and telegraphic privileges and customs exceptions; sending abroad of Colombian citizens for study so that they may become experts in the education of the blind; creation of schools for blind girls; settlement and purchase of sporting grounds for the schools for the blind; creation of free homes for the blind; appropriation of funds for the creation and development of the schools for the blind; establishment of special entertainment taxes—funds devoted exclusively to the improvement of institutions for the blind; concessions of extra salaries to teachers in schools for the blind; establishment of poultry-raising and agricultural farms and cession of land for this purpose; introduction of compulsory education for blind persons under age; furnishing of rooms and of teaching material for schools for the blind; outfitting special laboratories for scientific experiments.

One of the greatest difficulties which we encountered in the organization of our schools was, perhaps, the lack of books issued in our own language on the subject of special teaching methods used for instructing the blind. By dint of perseverance and investigation we were able to outline some educational programs, completing them later from knowledge gathered from textbooks in other languages, and from practice—which is the teacher *par excellence*. Availing ourselves of one of the above-mentioned legislative measures, we sent abroad the secretary of the Colombian Institute for the Blind, Don Francisco Alcides Luque, who attended the course of academic lectures of Perkins Institution

and of Harvard University, with remarkable results. On Mr. Luque's return with the sound preparation acquired from the United States, we were able to develop our educational program on a larger scale and to invest in our organization the experience and knowledge which our collaborator had gained from these very important North American institutions.

Having thus gathered a technical knowledge of the education of the blind, we tried to collect a group of teachers capable of insuring the success of our plans and we have succeeded in forming a group worthy of all our trust and esteem.

PREVENTION AND CAUSES OF BLINDNESS

The causes of blindness of forty blind persons who were examined by the medical service at the Colombian Institute, are as follows:

	At birth	After birth	Total
Purulent ophthalmia	10	4	14
Specific diseases	4	6	10
Traumatisms	0	6	6
Congenital cataracts	3	0	3
Congenital malformations	3	0	3
Meningitis	0	2	2
Children's glaucoma	0	2	2
	—	—	—
	20	20	40

Of these forty blind persons, twenty have been blind from birth and twenty from a later date. When we consider this table, our attention is especially called to the frequency of purulent ophthalmia and of specific diseases. If the rules for the prevention of the purulent ophthalmia were always observed at the birth of children, this cause of blindness could be easily eradicated. The cases of ophthalmia after birth also ought to be considerably reduced, because they are generally due to lack of proper medical treatment at the right time. The campaign against the specific diseases is also likely to reduce considerably the percentage of blindness due to this cause. These twenty-four cases of blindness due to ophthalmia and to specific diseases represent a very high percentage which ought to be reduced almost to zero. No doubt it will be so in the future owing to the attention which the authorities, physicians and even laymen are now giving to social hygiene. Such a result can only be accomplished by means of preventive hygiene and continual fight against the diseases mentioned.

STATISTICS

It goes without saying that the task of making out complete statistics of the blind is a difficult one. When, in 1928, a general census was taken in Colombia, the directors of the schools for the blind requested that a special census of the blind be taken at the same time. This was not done as completely as we wished, for the order to include a special statement of the cases of blindness was executed only in a few towns. However, data from the registers which we have been keeping enable us to estimate the number of blind people as follows: The total population of Colombia in 1928 was eight million. It is supposed that there are eight thousand blind people among them. The proportion thus is one blind person to each thousand of the general population.

SCHOOLS FOR BLIND GIRLS

After having established in Colombia the two institutes for blind boys, we saw the necessity of opening two schools for the education of blind girls. These schools were created as dependents of the former institutes. The organization of these annexes of our schools is in every respect similar to that of the schools for blind boys, taking into account, of course, the special problems of the education of women such as preparation for domestic and social duties, etc.

PATRONAGE

The carrying-out of our program is more or less dependent on the patronage and collaboration of civil and ecclesiastical authorities and of the public in general. This is why we have devoted much effort in Colombia to propaganda and to advertising our work for the blind. Our organs of propaganda are the magazine *Irradicion* in Bogota, and in Medellin an interesting publication which is widely distributed.

Aiming to educate the public with respect to the blind, we organized in 1930 a physio-pedagogical demonstration tour through the most important towns of the Republic, and concluding with a visit to the School for the Blind and for Deaf-Mutes in Medellin. Splendid results were obtained, for the tour not only aroused a mutual and generous co-operation in the work for the blind but enabled us to show society in general that blind pupils could be educated just as the seeing ones. There have also been other tours of less importance which have demonstrated by means of literary and musical performances what an enthusiastic campaign can do for the education of the blind and their rehabilitation.

THE BLIND IN EGYPT

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INTRODUCTION

Since ancient times the male blind in Egypt have had opportunities for education in the Azhar University at Cairo and at similar institutions in other cities. Some of the graduates have succeeded in attaining a high degree of philosophic culture and have occupied positions of high rank. It is noteworthy that the present Dean of the Faculty of Letters in the Egyptian University at Cairo is a blind man who, after being graduated from the Azhar University, was sent to France with a scholarship and obtained his degree of *Docteur ès Lettres* from Paris. He was afterwards appointed Professor in the Faculty and later elected Dean for his extraordinary capacities.

MODERN SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND

In 1896 a community of friends, including the British Colony at Cairo, started a modern school for the blind at Zeitoun, Cairo. This school survived the ups and downs of fate from time to time until, with the help of the Egyptian Government, it was finally stabilized with a permanent budget. In course of time other institutions were founded. The following is a list of these institutions with their addresses:

1. School for the Blind at Zeitoun, Cairo, which receives an annual donation of £E 700¹ from the Egyptian Government.

2. Countess Meith School for the Blind, Alexandria, which receives £E 250¹ yearly from the Egyptian Government.

3. National School for the Blind at Attarin, Alexandria, which receives £E 150¹ yearly from the Egyptian Government.

4. School for the Poor Blind at Zeitoun, which receives £E 120¹ yearly from the Egyptian Government. The British Colony in Cairo gives help to meet the expenses of eight pupils at this school. Two Egyptian ladies pay the expenses of two other pupils.

5. The Department for the Blind at the Teachers' Training College at Boulac, Cairo. Three years ago the Ministry of Education started this department in order to train girl teachers in methods of education of the blind. A small number of blind children, boys and girls, are attached to the department as a nucleus

¹ Egyptian pounds.

for a future school. After graduating, these girl teachers will be appointed to future schools for the blind which we hope will be organized on a larger scale. It is necessary, however, to teach parents to send their blind children to these schools. Moving picture propaganda is the best method for this purpose. At the World Conference for the Welfare of the Blind held in the United States, Dr. Allen, Director of Perkins Institution, was kind enough to promise to send to the Egyptian delegate the film which was shown of the life in his institution. Perkins Institution has also promised a scholarship of one year for an Egyptian girl teacher, a kindness which the Egyptian authorities at Cairo greatly appreciate and soon the girl teacher will be chosen.

WORKSHOPS

There is as yet no real factory that gives a practical output of industrial articles made by blind people.. The present small workshops produce articles such as brushes, baskets, chairs, suit-cases made of straw, shawls, bead-work and carpets which, however, find no real market, and sales are still dependent on the benevolence of the consumer.

These workshops are:

1. The Coptic Clerical College Workshop at Mahmasha, Cairo.
2. The Blind School Workshop at Zeitoun, Cairo.
3. The Blind Workshop of Countess Meith at Alexandria.
4. Workshop for the Blind attached to the English School at Boulak.
5. The Workshop under the Department of Blind at the Teachers' Training College at Boulak under the Ministry of Education.

VOCATIONS

As already mentioned there are no real factories for the adult blind. The most common vocation for the blind in Egypt is learning the Koran and quoting it on suitable occasions—in mosques, at marriages, at funerals, on tombs, etc. It is sung in a special way and some of the particularly gifted blind people sometimes make fortunes from this occupation.

THE TEACHING OF BRAILLE

Braille has been adapted to the Arabic letters and is being taught to the blind pupils by a blind teacher. Literature in braille is, however, very scant, but we hope that in course of time progress will take place and we will have a sufficient number of educated blind people to justify the existence of a library.

NUMBER OF BLIND AND PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS

According to the last Government census of 1927 there were 155,000 blind people in Egypt of whom 105,000 were males. When this is compared with the total population of the country it amounts to about 1 per cent, which is one of the highest percentages quoted in any land. The most common cause of blindness in this country is not, as is usually conceived, trachoma, which is not responsible for more than 3 to 5 per cent of total blindness in Egypt. Acute ophthalmias with complications are the most common cause, being responsible for 79 per cent of the blindness in Egypt, according to the last statistics compiled by the Ophthalmic Section of the Department of Public Health. The incidence of glaucoma in Egypt is distinctly higher than elsewhere and is responsible for a good deal of blindness in advanced age. In 1904, the Department of Public Health established the Ophthalmic Section which has grown quickly and now is capable of giving an opportunity for prompt relief to patients all over the country. Many people now realize the danger of delay in the treatment of acute ophthalmia. The present methods of treatment are almost sure to stop these complications. It is hoped that, in the next generation, owing to the efforts of the Ophthalmic Hospitals and the progressive attempts towards education of the masses both in school and through health propaganda, the number of blind in Egypt will be considerably diminished.

WORK FOR THE BLIND IN HOLLAND

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Amsterdam, Holland*

Fortunately there are not many blind people in Holland. In the Census of 1920 there were listed 1,949 blind men and 1,873 blind women, a proportion of 5.7 men and 5.8 women to each ten thousand of the general population. Since the preceding Census of 1909 the general population had increased, and consequently also the number of blind people, but the percentage of blind people was lowered.

In the year 1808 Holland introduced measures for the education of the blind as well as for their economic security, and on December 12 of that year the Institute for the Instruction of the Blind *Instituut tot Onderwijs van Blinden* was opened with three students.

In the course of years, the number of students at this school continually increased, so that it was often necessary to change quarters. In 1883 the present building was erected, which again has grown too small; in 1932, therefore, a completely new institute will be opened in the *Gemeinde Huizen*, near Amsterdam. Here a combination of school, workshop and home for the students as well as for the adult blind will be located in wooded surroundings. This institute has always been supported by private contributions.

In the course of years other schools, associations, workshops, etc., were founded.

All the schools for the blind are boarding schools, giving vocational as well as academic training. The blind worker is not quite able to earn his living as long as the productive activity of the blind in general is below that of the seeing worker. Private initiative, therefore, with private means, brought about the opening of workshops where the blind, men as well as women, can work for a fixed wage. In recent years, workshops have been set up by the city governments in Amsterdam and The Hague, because the private shops and associations did not adequately meet the requirements of modern welfare work for the blind.

Efforts are being made to withdraw the care of the blind partly or in full from private organizations, and make it partly or in full a government matter. There is also a strong party working for the introduction of compulsory education of blind children.

SCHOOLS AND ASSOCIATIONS

In Amsterdam we have the Institute for the Instruction of the Blind, the director of which is Dr. A. H. J. Belzer. In September 1924, this school took over the Prince Alexander Institution (*Prins Alexander Stichting*) in Huis ter Heide; these two institutes, therefore, can be considered as one organization. The Prince Alexander Institution gives instruction and maintenance to children between three and thirteen years of age, while the Institute takes care of children of thirteen to twenty-one years; the pupils in the Prince Alexander Institution are transferred to the Institute in their thirteenth year. Boys and girls of all denominations are admitted, and all of them are given opportunity to perform their religious duties.

The curriculum consists of the usual elementary school subjects and also of gymnastics, braille writing, Esperanto, French, German, English, commercial correspondence and typing, music (solfeggio, singing, piano, organ, violin), piano-tuning and repair. Besides this, the boys are taught how to make mats, baskets, brushes and slippers, while the girls are instructed in various kinds of needlework, as well as in basket-work, slipper-making, etc. A large braille printing shop is connected with the Institute.

In Grave a Catholic institute for boys, called St. Henricus Institution (*St. Henricus Stichting*), was opened in 1859, and in 1882 the institution *De Wijnbergh* for blind girls was founded. In these two establishments adult blind people are also living.

In Zeist, a Reformed Church institute called *Bartimeus* was founded in 1920 for the purpose of educating boys and girls from six to nineteen years of age.

There are no high schools, colleges and universities for the blind, but with the help of private tutors, individual blind persons have succeeded in passing the pedagogical examination in mathematics and in one language, and a few blind students have obtained an academic degree.

Workshops, where the blind person can work for a fixed wage, are found in Rotterdam, Amsterdam, The Hague, Utrecht, Middleburg, Leiden, Groningen and Arnhem. Besides these workshops, which are not connected with boarding houses, we have homes for the blind combined with workshops where those

who, for some reason or other, stand apart from the public and social life, can find shelter and occupation.

Among institutions of this sort may be mentioned the Institution for the Adult Blind (*Gesticht voor volwassen blinden*) in Amsterdam, where men and women over twenty-one years of age are received. People who lose their sight later in life can here also learn a trade. The National Association for the Blind, with headquarters in The Hague, has opened the Institution for Homeless Blind People (*Tehuis voor Alleenstaende Blinde*) in Wolfhezen, and the association, Christian Help for the Blind, has founded a similar home in Ermelo, called *Sonneheerdt*.

Of other associations working for the blind mention may be made of the Association for Improvement of the Condition of the Blind in Holland and her Colonies (*Vereeniging tot Verbetering van het Lot der Blinden in Nederland en Koloniën*), with central offices in Amsterdam and branches in various cities. This association also supports a magazine for the blind worker, the *Centraal Magazijn voor den blinden Handwerksman*. The address of the association is Vossiusstraat 56, Amsterdam. The address of the Aid Society, *Eva's Hulpbetoon* is also Vossiusstraat 56, Amsterdam; that of *Kolff's Blindenfonds*, Prinsengracht 75, The Hague, and that of the *Blindenstichting*, Prinsessegracht 21, The Hague.

ASSOCIATIONS OF THE BLIND

Union of the Dutch Blind, with various branches. Address: Resedastraat 51, The Hague.

Christian Union of the Dutch Blind, with branches. Address: de Genestetstraat 16, Amsterdam.

St. Odilia Catholic Union of Dutch Blind, with branches. Address: Stortenbekerstraat 61, The Hague.

Geldern Association of the Blind, Arnhem. This association has a workshop in Arnhem.

Association of the Friesian Blind, Leeuwarden.

LIBRARIES FOR THE BLIND

Dutch Library for the Blind, Veenkade 48, The Hague.

Christian Library for the Blind, 2e Constantijn Huigenstraat 77, Amsterdam.

Catholic Library for the Blind, Le Sage-ten Broek, Grave.

Departments for braille books are established in connection with the public libraries in Amsterdam, Utrecht, Arnhem, Groningen. In addition, all schools for the blind have their own libraries. Eye clinics are, of course, to be found all over the country.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES

In Holland all schools for the blind are central schools, admitting students from all over the country. According to the Public School Law of 1920, the education of the blind is ranked with the education of the special classes (mentally and physically defective) and given in charge of the Minister of Education and the Inspector of Special Schools.

These main rules are drawn up: The curriculum must be approved by the inspector, and must embrace all the subjects and the attendance hours found in regular public schools. Teachers from the regular public schools who have had university training, and persons who have been educated for the ministry are accepted as instructors.

The age of admission for the students is six years; children older than seventeen can only be accepted with the approval of the inspector. For each twelve pupils the government provides a teacher, and pays 25 gulden for each student. The standard of the teachers in the schools for the blind is higher than that of the teachers in the regular public schools.

Compulsory education for blind children is not made legal, neither is there a legal provision for their vocational training and maintenance.

The task of providing employment for the blind is not a government matter. The work for the blind is entirely in private hands, except in cities like Amsterdam, The Hague, and Rotterdam, where the city government has partly taken over the care of the blind citizens.

THE BLIND IN INDIA

P. N. V. RAU

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The viewpoint regarding the blind which has obtained in India for many years, and which still obtains in most quarters, is that blind persons are brought into this world in numbers for two reasons: First, since an offense must not be permitted to go unpunished, and since blindness is adjudged the penalty for a certain crime, this penalty must not be unduly interfered with; secondly, the presence of the blind and their handicaps is believed to be the right kind of warning against the repetition of crimes which might bring with them a penalty such as blindness, deafness, etc.

The traditions of this ancient land show that in the past a blind man was given his due, and was tolerated without any kind of disparagement being offered him, but what he was not (and is not) allowed to do, was to inherit and manage property. Gradually, as civilization more and more got the upper hand and desire to live in accordance with old traditions became less and less keen, worldly ideas spread and caught hold of people to such an extent that they became less and less tolerant and the blind man came to be considered a burden to his family and to the community.

Naturally, the next pertinent question raised was: Why should a blind man remain idle and have an easy life? why could he not be given some training and become a self-helping citizen? This certainly arrested the attention of a group of philanthropic people, but they were and are in a minority. While they were thinking of a solution they had an eye-opener in the establishment by the Church Missionary Society of a school to teach Christian doctrine to Christian blind children at Amritsar in North India. This was in 1887. As this was a new departure about which the majority, including the parents of most of the blind children, had their own misgivings and drew wrong conclusions, no schools were established by the people of India.

As time went on, things began to improve and some people felt the need of urgent action even on a small scale. Strenuous efforts were made toward the education of the blind. Ten years after the opening of the school at Amritsar, a non-denominational school was established there by Mr. L. B. Shah. This example was soon followed by the cities of Bombay and Mysore. The school at Mysore was established by Mr. M. Srinivasa Rao, an

officer of the Education Department under the Mysore Durbar, for the purpose of educating both blind and deaf children.

In the course of time, interest and agitation for the education of the blind grew, but no organized efforts were discernible. There are at present only sixteen schools in India for a blind population estimated at a million and a half. Since far more progress than this should have been made in nearly half a century, it seems that there is still something radically wrong which is hindering the few workers of the blind from advancing.

A bone of contention is whether the education of the blind should be a charge on the State, or on private philanthropy. The Imperial Government of India, whose members are the leaders of thought and action, stated in response to an appeal from the Indian Association of Workers for the Blind, that "while not precluding the institution of Government schools where this is thought advisable, it is considered that schools for defectives are a form of effort peculiarly suitable for charitable agencies of a private character and that the support of Government should ordinarily take the form of assistance to private and boarding schools." This was in 1917. Since then there has been a change in the form of government. Education has been made a local question, and each provisional government has to look after this matter for itself. The Imperial Government, therefore, now states that the matter is more the concern of the provincial governments than of the Government of India, though one of the provincial governments stated, in regard to the World Conference, that the selection of Indian delegates to the Congress should be made by the Government of India. Of course, no single province in India has schools enough to warrant the appointment of a special officer to deal with the problem adequately.

Whatever might be the state of the administration, the problem of education of the blind has not been receiving as much attention as it should. It is urgent and important that the question of responsibility—whether it should be "private philanthropy first," or "Government first," or "Government alone"—be settled. When this is settled, it will not be difficult to make a satisfactory arrangement between the Imperial and the provincial governments. In this connection the point should be stressed that education of the blind is not a charity, nor should it be so at any time. If the laudable object of the Indian governments of spreading literacy amongst the people at any cost is to be truly and effectively accomplished, the governments should immediately make an announcement accepting the duty and responsibility of educating the blind

at State cost inasmuch as blind persons are as good subjects of the Empire as any other. If early education and training were given by the State, there would still be occasion enough for private philanthropy to do social work.

Although I wish to emphasize these and other points during discussion time, I should like to give here briefly the outline of work which should be attempted in India for the improvement of the condition of the blind. Census figures, as the authorities often admit, are inaccurate in that fewer cases than the actual number are recorded. But even these figures show that there is no immediate possibility of blindness being eliminated from the country. Dr. Harry Best has stated that there could never be total elimination, but the figures shown for several years for the United States indicate a considerable possibility of bringing down the number gradually. Along with the education and care of blind persons, prevention work should be vigorously carried on. I would, therefore, suggest that the problem might be divided into three main parts: Prevention, Education or Training, and After-Care.

Of primary importance is the matter of educating public opinion, so that erroneous ideas may be removed, confidence created, and universal, practical sympathy and co-operation be obtained. The humble beginnings made by the Indian Association of Workers for the Blind in the matter of bringing to the fore the wide possibilities open to the blind who are capable of benefiting by education and training, sorely stand in need of State support. The same can be said for the two Associations for Prevention of Blindness—the Blind Relief Association at Bombay of which Mr. M. N. Chhatrapati is the Secretary, and the All-India Blind Relief Association of which Mr. C. G. Henderson is the President. When the State comes forward there will surely be reasonable contributions for social service by the general public.

I would, therefore, lay the responsibility at the door of the Imperial Government of India, considering the changing conditions in India of today and tomorrow. I sincerely hope that a better time will soon come for the blind, when their claims as human beings to education and sympathy will be carefully investigated and their due rights restored to them.

AGENCIES FOR THE BLIND IN INDIA

1. The North Indian School for Christian Blind, Rajpur (near DehraDun)
2. The Calcutta Blind School, Behala, Calcutta
3. The School for the Blind, Palamcotta, Tinnavelly, Madras

4. The American Mission School for the Blind, Dadar Road,
Bombay
5. The Central Institute for the Blind and Deaf, Mysore, India
6. The Victoria Memorial School for the Blind, Tardeo, Bombay
7. The United Lutheran Church Mission School for the Blind,
Rentachintala, Madras
8. The S. P. G. School for the Blind, Ranchi, B. N. Railway
9. The Government School for the Blind, Lahore
10. The School for the Blind, Baroda
11. The School for the Blind, Mehsana, Baroda
12. The Blind Institute, Amritsar, The Punjab
13. The School for the Deaf and the Blind, Mount Lavina, Co-
lombo
14. The School for the Blind, Kemmendine, Burma
15. The School for the Blind, Allahabad
16. The Victory School for the Blind, Poonamalle, Madras

WORK FOR THE BLIND IN MEXICO

RAMÓN BETETA

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Catastros Sociales, Mexico City, Mexico*

As has been the case in almost every other country, work for the blind in Mexico started a long time ago as charity work. As early as 1866 the question of doing something for blind people was already under consideration in Mexico City, but it was not until 1870 that the first school was founded. It started as a private institution supported and directed by Señor Ignacio Trigueros. In 1877 the Federal Government of Mexico took charge of the school which was thus nationalized at that date.

From the beginning, blind people of all ages were admitted to the school without investigation, and with the sole purpose of helping the sightless regardless of age, mental ability, or any other factor. Thus the school was really an asylum where the blind people received food and shelter, and very little was expected from them.

Naturally the rudiments of education were taught and great emphasis was placed on the teaching of music. Also instruction was given in some manual trades, such as the weaving of baskets and cane bottoms for chairs, but, in truth, very few people left the school really prepared to make a living.

The National School for the Blind, (*Escuela Nacional de Ciegos*) as it is today, belongs to the Public Welfare Department of the City of Mexico (*Beneficencia Pública en el Distrito Federal*), a semi-autonomous organization supported almost entirely by the National Government.

At the present time a new conception of the purpose and rôle of the school has changed its character and organization. It has been divided into two distinct institutions—the school for the blind, properly speaking, and a home for sightless people. The school has been placed under the charge of a young woman who, besides her training as a teacher for normal children, has spent one year in training at Perkins Institution in Boston and is, consequently, well prepared for the technical direction of the school. Thanks to the co-operation of the Federal Department of Education, this school now has a building of its own and special teachers. The home for the blind remains as an asylum for people who, in addition to being blind, are poor and more in need of help than

education. This is specially true of adults although many of the children who attend the school must of necessity also have a place in the home.

A campaign is being carried on at present to convince well-to-do people of the need of sending their blind children to our school since it is no longer a charitable institution. This is perhaps the greatest task we have before us now. We desire, of course, to have all the blind children of Mexico in our school.

Although the Census of 1930 gave us, as provisional report, only 874 blind people for the Federal District of Mexico, out of over a million population, we consider this figure conservative and we are trying to learn the exact number of blind children in the Capital of Mexico. The children who attend public schools are collecting this data for us. But even supposing that the city of Mexico has 874 sightless individuals we must confess that we are not as yet able to take care of all of them. In our school and asylum combined we have only 146 people. It is hopeful, however, to see that we do take care of a high percentage of the children, for, out of the 874 blind people reported by the census, 207 are under twenty-four years of age, and in our school we have 106 of them.

As to the work in the school, we aim to give education covering up to junior high school. Besides, special classes are being taught, such as piano-tuning, basket-weaving, massage, and music in all its various forms. But although we are teaching practically the same subjects which have been taught in the school from the beginning, we have different ideas as to the method and purpose of the teaching. We are endeavoring to prepare children who are blind to live an independent life, to earn their own living, and to be able to share the society of sighted people. Such principles are entirely evident and will seem the only correct ones to persons who have had experience in work for the blind, but they have not always been followed in Mexico. In fact, they have been adopted only within the past year, in substitution for the long-accepted idea with us that the blind should be kept within institutions for all the years of their lives.

The adults living in the asylum are given a chance to learn any of the trades mentioned above and also to learn to play any musical instrument they may choose, but they are not accepted in the classes as regular students.

We realize, of course, that the main problem in preparing the blind to live with the sighted rests in teaching not only the blind themselves, but the rest of the population as well. So we are

carrying on a propaganda campaign to educate the public in regard to the attitude they should have towards their sightless fellowmen.

Only four other institutions doing some work for the blind exist in the remainder of the country and all of them have been established within the last year at the suggestion of our school in Mexico City. They are asylums more than schools and are located in the cities of Monterrey, (State of Nuevo León); Tampico, (State of Tamaulipas); San Luis Potosí, (San Luis Potosí); and Mérida, (State of Yucatán).

The work for the prevention of blindness is carried out by the Department of Public Health which is directing its efforts to fight the three prevalent causes of blindness in Mexico, namely gonorrhea, syphilis and smallpox. Of the people we have in our institutions in the city of Mexico, 44 per cent lost their eyesight as a result of ophthalmia, 25 per cent as a result of hereditary syphilis, and 18.3 per cent as a result of smallpox. This will give an idea of how much is yet to be done in preventing blindness in Mexico, since at least those of the first and third classes could have been spared. The method used by the Department of Health in combating these diseases is mainly through propaganda, education, and the establishment of numerous free dispensaries where people are treated for their venereal diseases. Also we have compulsory vaccination against smallpox.

The Department of Public Welfare has also eight dispensaries in which all diseases, including the two venereal ailments, are treated practically without cost to the people. This is an indirect but rather effective way of preventing blindness in Mexico.

The addresses of the institutions mentioned above are as follows:

Escuela Nacional de Ciegos, Miscalco No. 6, Mexico, D. F. Mexico.

Escuela de Ciegos, c/o Director de Educación Pública, Monterrey, Nuevo León, Mexico.

Escuela de Ciegos, c/o Director de Educación, San Luis Potosí, San Luis Potosí, Mexico.

Escuela de Ciegos, c/o Director de Educación Pública, Mérida, Yucatán, México.

Escuela de Ciegos, c/o Director de Educación Pública, Tampico, Tamaulipas.

ASOCIACION IGNACIO TRIGUEROS

ALEJANDRO MEZA

*Secretary-General, Asociación Ignacio Trigueros,
Mexico City, Mexico*

The Ignacio Trigueros Association was founded in 1922, but it was not legalized and incorporated until March, 1928. Since that date it has functioned under the Law regarding Private Welfare Work.

PROPAGANDA

For several years, the Association has published an inkprint magazine called *Desde Las Sombras* which is the organ of the Association. This publication is brought out twice a month, and is entirely devoted to the cause of the blind so far as its editorial and doctrinal part is concerned, although it also contains some material of literary and general interest. The essential object of this periodical is to promote a real interest in the education and betterment of the sightless on the part of the Government and the public, and at the same time to diffuse all kinds of knowledge relating to the work for the blind by printing notices about new methods, appliances, devices, etc., used and experimented with in the training of the blind and which contribute to their success.

EMBOSSING WORK

The Association possesses a braille printing plant which is regularly operated to produce the necessary textbooks for the elementary teaching of the blind, and these books are freely distributed among the blind throughout the whole country and are even sent to some South American nations, either to their institutions or to individuals. The Association is most desirous of intensifying the co-operation already initiated with other similar organizations in Latin America, and to exchange in this manner experiences, ideas and publications.

UNITED EFFORTS

Fortunately, it seems that we have finally reached a satisfactory understanding with the authorities upon whom the National School for the Blind depends, so as to start a full and intensive plan of co-operation. It is planned, first, to provide the School with the textbooks indispensable for its work, and, secondly, to collaborate with it in a technical and practical way to study and promote the solution of the problem in all its aspects. It is to be hoped that very satisfactory results will be derived from this united and combined action.

BLIND WELFARE WORK IN NEW ZEALAND

CLUTHA N. MACKENZIE

*Director of the Jubilee Institute for the Blind,
Auckland, New Zealand*

Prior to 1890 there was no provision for the training and care of the blind within New Zealand. The population was small and the country still in the early pioneering stage. The Government sent such blind children as there were to Melbourne, Australia, for primary education—a stormy journey of a week's duration. In 1890, a blind man from Australia, John Tighe, inspired Bishop Cowie, John Abbott, and other citizens of Auckland with the idea of establishing a training center in New Zealand, resulting shortly in the founding, under the management of John Tighe, of the Jubilee Institute for the Blind, which still remains the only institution in the Dominion and the headquarters of all blind welfare work. Though handicapped by lack of funds, poor buildings and poor equipment, it did excellent work along the traditional lines of blind work in those days. In 1909, a fine modern building was opened, but for some years, due to financial and war difficulties, no great progress was made. Since then, however, there has been a steady expansion on modern lines.

Up till 1922 its functions had been limited to providing primary education, workshops, and employment for those who could not make their own way in the sighted world, and free library facilities. In that year, however, a fund was established, known as the Sir Arthur Pearson Memorial Fund—its capital now standing at £65,000—to endow after-care or field work. In 1923, with the concurrence of the Institute, the Government set up a Commission of Inquiry into the Welfare of the Blind, the findings of which have formed the subsequent basis of the Government's and the Institute's policy. In 1924 the Government introduced a state pension for the blind. In the same year a building appeal was launched in the city of Auckland, £17,000 being contributed by the public and £15,000 by the Government by way of subsidy. With this and with other substantial sums received in the form of generous bequests, there has been carried out during the past six years a progressive program covering the acquisition of adjoining land, the erection of modern workshops, residential quar-

ters for the men, similar quarters for the women, offices and retail shop, the modernizing of older buildings, and the steady introduction of a higher standard in equipment, furnishings and beauty of surroundings. Over the same period, also, there has been an overhauling and rationalizing of methods, the application of ordinary industrial and business principles in workshops and offices, and the development of a self-reliant spirit among the blind. We are in fact endeavoring to keep our work as close as possible to the best modern standard. We hope to learn from this Conference further ways in which we can benefit our people.

So much for a general review of our work. I shall describe under various headings some features of it, in particular those which I think may be of special interest to this Conference.

NUMBERS AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE BLIND COMMUNITY

On March 5 of this year there were registered on our files the full details of 720 current cases of blindness in the Dominion. No official statistics are available, but our own system is far-reaching, and we think that our registration is to all practical purposes complete. This figure includes 32 who have a useful amount of vision, while 688 may be classified as totally or almost totally blind. Of these cases, 139 are undergoing training or are in permanent employment at the Institute, while 581 are distributed throughout the Dominion.

The total population of the country is 1,500,000 and our ratio of blindness is therefore 480 per 1,000,000. New Zealand is primarily rural with a well-distributed population and with no dominating central town. It is consequently essential that we should have a substantial field organization and that the Institute should be largely residential.

CONSTITUTION OF INSTITUTE

The Institute is incorporated as an Institution under the Hospital and Charitable Aid Act and is, therefore, a public body. In New Zealand, public hospitals and poor relief institutions are financed from local rates¹ and Government subsidy, and controlled by boards comprising elected representatives of the ratepayers and Government nominees. Appointments of executive officers, expenditure on new buildings, and other matters of main policy are subject to the approval of the Health Department. In the case of the Institute, private contributors replace the ratepayers as electors, and in recent years, as the result of representations by the Institute, the Education Department has replaced the

¹Taxes.

Health Department as the supervisory Government Department. Of the Board of nine Trustees, five are elected for two-year periods by the subscribers and four are nominated for three-year periods by the Governor-General.

The Institute is financed from private contributions, subsidized by the Government, and by revenue from investments representing accumulated surpluses. A pound-for-pound subsidy used to be granted annually on all sums received by way of contribution, gift or bequest, but owing to the fact that there were substantial annual surpluses which were transferred to capital, the Government considered this no longer necessary, and the present arrangement provides that the subsidy shall be granted only up to the amount of the working deficiency or to the full amount of pound-for-pound, whichever is the lesser sum. As far as the Institute is concerned, this arrangement, if not sound, is at least satisfactory, and in the present state of its finances means in practice that the Government guarantees to meet the annual loss—quite a happy position for an Institute to be in.

The public has always responded generously to every appeal made to it. Moneys are received by direct collection and there has been no necessity to resort to lotteries, card parties, etc. This system, state-subsidized private philanthropy, works satisfactorily.

A few of our workers have asked for representation on the Board by a specially elected nominee of their own, but this has been declined by the Board on the ground that it will introduce a factional spirit into our body politic and that there is no necessity for it.

SCHOOL

There are 30 pupils in the school, 17 boys and 13 girls. Children are admitted at the age of five or older, parents paying £26 per annum to cover tuition, board and lodging, clothing, and medical attention. Where this sum cannot be paid, the state pays the Institute £25 per annum and collects from the parents what they can afford. The full primary course of the ordinary primary schools is given, and the children gain their proficiency certificates under the same examination. Some pupils receive secondary education and several have gone on to universities to attain B. A., M. A., and LL. B. degrees, ultimately taking up the church, the law, or the teaching profession.

The greatest handicap the school has to face is the number of partially-seeing, mentally-backward children sent by the Education Department, who are not fitted to be pupils in a legitimate blind school.

MAIN POLICY TO START PUPILS IN INDEPENDENT LIFE

The main policy of the Institute has been to enable all who possibly can to take up independent occupations in the outside world and to provide permanent workshop employment only for those who have not the capacity to meet the difficulties of outside life. Piano-tuning has been the occupation mostly followed, while others have gone into business, church, law, massage, farming, etc. In recent years the Pearson Fund has been able to provide a substantial measure of financial help to those undertaking outside occupations.

WORKSHOPS

Here at the present time 80 men and 17 women are employed in the manufacture of basketware, cane furniture, coir fibre mats, fruit boxes, ships' fenders, and socks. Owing to the fact that our policy is to start the more capable in outside occupations, the standard of fitness and capacity in our workers is below that of the workers in the British institutions I have visited, and many of our workers would in Britain be classed as unemployable. The system of payment is piece work. This was made general several years ago, and immediately resulted in a rapid increase in output. To this is added the state pension of 17s. 6d. per week and bonus of 25 per cent, and if this is still insufficient to provide for the worker's comfortable living, a further payment is added by the Institute as a special allowance. As many are irresponsible and feckless, the Institute does not favor a fixed high standard for all, and prefers to make additional allowances where there is genuine family responsibility.

The only special trade is that of fruit-box manufacture, chip containers for strawberries, grapes, peaches, and other small fruits. It is not a paying department, but provides a simple trade requiring no skill whatever, enabling us to give occupation to men who would otherwise have to be classified as unemployable.

STATE PENSION

In 1924 by an amendment to the Old Age Pension Act, the Government introduced a pension for bona fide blind persons of twenty years of age or over, provided they did not already draw the Old Age Pension and subject to certain residential qualifications, property restrictions, etc. For the year ending March 31, 1930, the State paid out £14,737 to 311 blind pensioners.

The standard amount of this pension is 17s. 6d. per week, but the fact that will most interest this Conference is that it provides a bonus for the special encouragement of the blind worker. Most civil pensions throughout the world are reduced in cases where

the pensioner receives earnings, and it was suggested in New Zealand that the introduction of a pension would result in the blind ceasing to put forth their best efforts towards becoming as self-supporting as possible. The Government was prevailed upon, therefore, to counter-balance any such tendency by granting a bonus for the encouragement of work. The Act provides that there shall be paid in addition to the 17s. 6d. a sum equal to 25 per cent of the average weekly earnings of the pensioner, provided that his receipts from all sources do not exceed £3:12:6 per week. This provision is, therefore, of no benefit to those receiving in the neighborhood of this maximum or over, and it certainly might be more generous in that respect, but so far as it goes it has proved of the greatest benefit to the blind, and they have shown no tendency towards eking out an existence on the pension rather than undertaking work. The bonus gives its maximum benefit to the worker whose earnings average £2:4:0 per week, his pension then being 17s. 6d. plus 11s. bonus, that is, £3:12:6 in all. The bonus has proved a tremendous stimulus to the less able worker, and the pension as a whole has been an untold blessing, particularly to that large body of semi-invalid women always to be found in a blind community.

OUTSIDE ORGANIZATION

With the establishment of the Pearson Memorial Fund in 1922, a complete organization was set up to maintain direct touch between the Board and the blind community throughout the Dominion. A current register is kept with essential details of each case and full personal files. Effective advisory committees operate in all centers of population, news sheets are regularly circulated, periodical gatherings held in each center and frequent visits paid to the blind in their homes. The outside organization is almost entirely voluntary, but is nevertheless efficient. Through these committees, new cases are investigated, those embarking on some undertaking are taken in hand and given a start, matters of housing, equipment, business difficulties, legal affairs, etc., etc., are dealt with; in fact, there is no end to the variety of matters handled with the help of these committees. In such catastrophes as the earthquakes of 1929 and 1931, these committees are invaluable for looking into and solving the difficult circumstances in which our people find themselves. Another useful function they discharge is in the conduct of numerous sales of workshop goods at local agricultural shows.

The Pearson Fund yields an income of nearly £4,000 to be expended upon this outside work. Without it much of our train-

ing work would be thrown away, for many could not get a start through lack of capital or would fail in times of financial stress through the lack of a helping hand. Many cases of blind men with heavy family responsibilities can be solved which would otherwise be beyond our powers to help. It seems to us that if an institute is to be able to reap the full reward of its labors and to satisfactorily finalize the cases under its charge, it must have a special source of revenue of this description.

MUSIC

There has been a considerable development of this side of our life during the past four years. Pianoforte and pipe organ had been regularly taught for a number of years, but we have now specially developed instrumental music and possess a full military band, a jazz dance band, a junior boys' band, and a girls' orchestra. The first two take a number of professional engagements which yield useful pocket money to the members and assist towards the cost of training, etc. Through money raised by the band on concert tours of the Dominion, it has more than met the full cost of this musical development, and the capacity it has demonstrated has made a lasting impression upon the public, stimulating the flow of subscriptions and the purchasing of goods.

CHARGE FOR MAINTENANCE

As has been stated, the Institute is largely residential. It is an assembly of handsome buildings set in four or five acres of pleasant grounds. If cases of adult blind are heard of, who, it would seem, would benefit by training and employment, it is our practice to invite them to the Institute as our guests for a month, traveling expenses paid. This gives us an opportunity to look thoroughly into their cases and to decide the best for their future. For those remaining permanently the charge at the outset is 12s. 6d. per week, leaving 5s. from the pension as pocket money. As earnings and bonus advance, so also does the charge for board increase on a sliding scale. When a person's receipts are 30s. per week the charge for board is 15s. The maximum is reached when receipts amount to 45s., when the charge for board is 25s.

HOME FOR UNEMPLOYABLE BLIND

There is in New Zealand the usual large section of unemployable blind. Many of these are living comfortably with relatives, but others are in uncongenial surroundings. The trustees have in mind the erection of a home where these can be accommodated in comfort and happiness, but final decision has not yet been made.

CONCLUSION

In other directions our work is conducted on the usual lines. In certain ways we could accomplish more had we a greater number of potentially capable blind people, but in a small country with a high standard of public health there is fortunately only a limited blind community and we can only function to the extent of the **necessity**.

A satisfactory feature in New Zealand is that all welfare work is under one central body, avoiding unnecessary rivalries and duplication of expenditure and giving continuity of training, occupation and care from childhood on through life.

We look forward to continued progress. We have always received from the kindred institutions throughout the world, particularly the National Institute for the Blind, London, helpful co-operation, and we hope that this Conference may create friendships which will long be of value in our work.

THE CARE OF THE BLIND IN SOUTH AFRICA

ARTHUR W. BLAXALL

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Cape Town, South Africa*

In some respects young countries with small populations are in a fortunate position. As social activities develop they can learn from the experience of more settled lands. Amongst the many countries represented at the International Conference, South Africa is possibly the smallest so far as the size of population is concerned, although far from the smallest territorially. In the Union of South Africa there are barely seven million people, of whom less than one and a half million are of European extraction. The education of the blind has an honorable history in this far away Southern land. Fifty years ago the Dutch Reformed Church opened a school at Worcester, about one hundred miles north of Cape Town. This school has ever since cared for the blind and for the deaf in two distinct buildings. Until 1928 there was no other school for the blind in South Africa, but in that year a Mission School for colored and Bantu blind children was opened at Faure, just outside Cape Town, and is known as the Athlone School for the Blind. These two schools both serve the whole of the Union (the Provinces of the Cape, Natal, Orange Free State, and the Transvaal) and also receive pupils from Rhodesia and South West Africa. There are 140 children at Worcester, and 30 at the Athlone School. In this department the name of J. Besselaar stands out as the pioneer educator of the blind in South Africa.

Ten years ago a lady started a circulating braille library at Grahamstown, Cape Province, which today has nearly ten thousand books, and numbers more than three hundred readers. This lady, Miss J. Wood, became deeply concerned at the fact that many of her readers were in great need of help to sell their goods (the majority worked in their own shops in scattered towns and villages). The blinded soldiers received every help from St. Dunstan's but no organization helped the civilian blind except one society in Durban. So, Miss Wood strove to interest people in the general welfare of the blind with the result that local agencies and small societies began to function in half a dozen of the larger cities.

In 1928 a conference of voluntary workers met in Bloemfontein, O. F. S., and decided to form a National Council. This

was actually consummated in March, 1929, at a meeting held in Cape Town. The two schools and all local agencies (except Durban) became affiliated and the Government appointed official representatives from the Department of the Interior (which included Education and Public Health) and the Department of Labor. A small subsidy was guaranteed by the Union Government which now recognizes the National Council as the only body with whom it will negotiate on matters affecting the blind in general, educational matters being excepted as both schools are directly connected with the Union Education Department by whom they are subsidized. The Chairman of this Council is R. W. Bowen, Esq., M. P., who was trained at St. Dunstan's after losing his sight in the World War.

During the brief time in which this Council has been in existence much investigation has been undertaken, the beginning of a National Register formed, the Government approached on various matters, and committees appointed for special research. An annual "Our Blind Day" is held in May; last year about 70 per cent of the municipal authorities in the country co-operated. This "Day" is primarily for the spread of information and to collect funds.

At present there are no special pension facilities for the blind, nor any other legislative relief measures. When the International Conference Report is discussed in South Africa there will almost certainly be a very considerable advance in all departments of work for the blind. The preventive work and sight-saving will also receive the attention they demand when it is realized how great are the advances that science and humanitarian effort have made in America and Europe during the last few years.

Work for the blind in South Africa is naturally handicapped by the same difficulties which complicate all social activity. Rural problems, difficulties of communication over vast areas, and race relationships, all make a hard task harder, but the vision of what has been achieved will urge us on to greater endeavor, until every blind South African, of every race, shall have to the full, every privilege and happiness that God intends His children to share in this life.

THE BLIND IN SPAIN

MIGUEL MÉRIDA NICOLICH, M. D.

*Ex-Director, Hospital Oftálmico de Santo Tomás;
Director, Instituto Municipal para Sordomudos
y para Ciegos, Málaga, Spain*

In Spain the history of education and help to the blind has yet to be written, but we believe, from some old facts we have been able to collect, that it is not as devoid of interest as has been assumed.

HISTORY

Since the middle ages the blind in Spain have been exempt from the payment of all kinds of taxes—of property, industrial, and also income taxes. This benefit was granted by the Kings of Aragon and extended to the blind of the regions conquered from the Arabs. In 1795-1804 this concession was repealed owing to the abuses to which it gave rise.

After the reconquest of Malaga (1487) the Catholic Kings founded a brotherhood for the blind with the object of instructing the Arabs in the Christian faith, thus gaining permission to visit their homes. This brotherhood, whose advisory board consisted of fourteen blind men, enjoyed great prestige and riches in olden times.

During the eighteenth century the blind in the large cities were banded together for begging and also followed their ancient custom of story telling, a pursuit which yielded them such abundant gains that it, in my opinion, has been the principal cause of society's backwardness in aiding the blind. It often happens, as today in Madrid, that this situation presents a great obstacle to solving the problem by the modern methods of work and education.

The education of the blind had been outlined in the first half of the 19th century in religious institutions. In 1857 the Mellado Law of Public Instruction ordered the establishment of a school for the blind in every university district, and this marks the beginning of a new era, although, due to political disturbances, the plan was never completely carried out.

At the present time, the number of blind people is about 38,000 and there are thirty-two institutions for them located as

follows: 7 in Madrid, 6 in Barcelona, 3 in Valencia, 2 each in Malaga, Seville and Saragoza, and 1 each in Bilbao, Santander, Santiago de Campostela, Vigo, Salamanca, Granada, Cordoba, Burgos, Alicante, Castellan de la plana, besides a few smaller associations for the blind.

EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Lacking legislation to unify the instruction and to help financially, and without a directing center to co-ordinate their efforts, institutes, schools for the blind and associations for the blind work independently with limited economic resources. The blind children receive primary instruction in the institutions and schools but for their secondary instruction and higher or university education they must depend either on their own efforts or attend the same courses as the seeing, as there is no center of help organized for them. The Women's Lyceum Club (*Lyceum Club Femenino*), San Marcos 33, Madrid, has started a library for blind students of philosophy, pedagogy, history and languages. This library is being formed by volunteers whose efforts and kind help are gratefully acknowledged by the blind of Spain. The names of Señora V. de Fernandez Alemany, and Señorita Maria Hurdisan are specially mentioned in this altruistic work.

Vocational training and employment is developing gradually and there are workshops for tuning and repairing pianos in Vigo, for chair-caning and broom-making in Barcelona, for brush-making in Madrid, and for making chairs of cane and wicker in Malaga. Some of these workshops pay a fixed daily wage, while others, such as that in Malaga, supplement slow production with an additional wage.

A great number of blind persons earn their living as musicians, organists and teachers of music, but many more as roving musicians playing the guitar or bandore; others sell newspapers or lottery tickets.

PUBLICATIONS

There are three magazines in interpoint: the braille periodical, *Braille Hispano-americano*, published by the Catalan Institute for the Blind of Barcelona (*Instituto Catalan para Ciegos de Barcelona*), which also publishes books and music; the magazine *Ayudate* published by the National College for the Blind and for Deaf-Mutes (*Colegio Nacional de Ciegos y Sordomudos*), Madrid, which also publishes books, and *El Correo Braille Hispano-amer-*

icano published by the American Braille Press. The last mentioned is considered to be the best of the three magazines, having reached in the first half year of its publication, a total of eight hundred Spanish subscribers. It is shortly to be published in Grade Two unified braille. There is also an ink-print magazine *La Luz* (Editor: Adrian F. Nadalmay, Lagasca 12, Madrid) which is full of splendid information and is the official paper of the National Federation for the Blind in Spain.

MODERN PROGRESS

The principal factors hindering the government in organizing modern activities to help the blind are: first, the lack of co-operation among the associations for the blind and the narrow-mindedness which has characterized them; secondly, the absence of any war-blinded persons.

More recently, an effort to solve the problem of mendicancy through newspaper campaigns and lectures by intelligent blind people, led the Government to attack this social problem. The total lack of knowledge, however, of the problems of the blind and the protests which the blind made against a dictatorial regime which proposed to place them in seclusion, caused the first plans to fail. As a result, however, the Department of the Interior on January 21, 1931, after studying the matter, founded the National Guardianship of Protection for the Blind (*El Patronato Nacional de Protección de Ciegos*), with initial funds of six million of pesetas. The activities of this National Guardianship center in the prevention of blindness, professional technique, social welfare, pensions, and legislation.

The constitution of the National Federation for the Blind in Spain (Valdoncellas 30, Barcelona) was drawn up in 1930 and its statutes were approved during the early part of 1931. We believe that this Federation, formed by blind people of education and intelligence, forms the most reliable means for definitely solving our own problems.

The leaders of the epoch of despotism, at variance with the people, did not know, and did not wish to give attention to, social problems. Today, fortunately, Spanish democracy is beginning to be self-governing. We have a profound faith that the parliament elected for the first time by the people, will enact wise and prompt legislation and that with the fine institutions which already exist, and with the creation of others to meet the national needs, the blind people of Spain will speedily and definitely join in the growing international movement for culture and progress.

PRINCIPAL INSTITUTIONS FOR THE BLIND

National:

Colegio Nacional de Sordomudos y Ciegos (National College for Deaf-Mutes and the Blind), Paso de la Castellana 69, Madrid—under the Ministry of Public Instruction.

Colegio para Ciegos de Sta. Catalina de los Donados (College for the Blind of St. Catalina of the Lay-brothers), Carabanchel Bajo, Madrid—under the Ministry of the Interior.

Municipal:

Escuela Municipal para Ciegos y Sordomudos (Municipal School for Deaf-Mutes and the Blind), Magdalena 1, Madrid.

Escuela Municipal para Ciegos y Sordomudos (Municipal School for Deaf-Mutes and the Blind), Palma 5, Madrid.

Escuela Municipal para Ciegos (Municipal School for the Blind), Barcelona—Director, D. José Ezquerro, Valdoncella 30, 2°.

Escuela Municipal para Ciegos (Municipal School for the Blind), Cervantes 8, Vigo.

Instituto Municipal para Ciegos y Sordomudos (Municipal Institute for the Blind and for Deaf-Mutes), Dr. Letamendi 5, Malaga.

Provincial:

Colegio de Sordomudos y Ciegos de Vizcaya (College for Deaf-Mutes and the Blind of Biscay), Deusto, Bilbao.

Colegio Regional de Ciegos y Sordomudos, Hospicio Municipal (Regional College for the Blind and for Deaf-Mutes, Municipal House of Charity), Santiago de Compostela.

Colegio para Ciegos y Sordomudos de la Casa de Caridad (College for the Blind and for Deaf-Mutes of the Charity Home), Calle Fernandina 14, Barcelona.

Colegio para Ciegos del Hospicio Provincial (College for the Blind, Provincial Charitable Institution), Seville.

Colegio para Ciegos del Hospicio Provincial (Provincial Charitable Institution's College for the Blind), Salamanca.

Colegio para Ciegos del Hospicio Provincial (Provincial Charitable Institution's College for the Blind), Cordoba.

Privately Supported Institutions:

Asilo del Pacifico para Ciegos (Peaceful Asylum for the Blind), Madrid.

Colegio para Sordomudos y Ciegos de la Imaculada Concepción (College for Deaf-Mutes and for the Blind, Our Lady of the Immaculate Conception), Alcalá 175 moderno, Madrid.

Colegio para Sordomudos y Ciegos de la Imaculada Concepción (College for Deaf-Mutes and for the Blind, Our Lady of the Immaculate Conception), Templea 9, Saragossa.

Colegio para Sordomudos y Ciegos de la Imaculada Concepción (College for Deaf-Mutes and for the Blind, Our Lady of the Immaculate Conception), P. Mendez Vigo 10, Barcelona.

Colegio para Sordomudos y Ciegos de la Imaculada Concepción (College for Deaf-Mutes and for the Blind, Our Lady of the Immaculate Conception), Pl. Bocha 14 y Recaredo 2, Valencia.

Instituto Catalan para Ciegos (Catalanian Institute for the Blind), Ortigosa 4, Barcelona.

Asilo Sta. Lucia para Ciegos (St. Lucia's Asylum for Blind Women), San Gervasio, Barcelona.

Asilo de Sumsi para Ciegos y Sordomudos (Sumsi Asylum for the Blind and for Deaf-Mutes), Dr. Ruzafa, Valencia.

Instituto para Ciegos (Institute for the Blind), Alicante.

Centro Instructivo y Protector de Ciegos (Center for the Instruction and Protection of the Blind), Reyes 10, Madrid.

OTHER INSTITUTIONS OR ASSOCIATIONS FOR THE BLIND

Patronato de Cultura y Trabajo de los Ciegos (Society for Culture and Work for the Blind), Valdoncella 30, Barcelona.

Patronato de Cataluña para el Mejoramiento social del Ciego (Catalonian Society for the Social Improvement of the Blind), Joaquina Costa 37, 1°, Barcelona.

Protección Mutua, Sociedad de Ciegos (Mutual Protection Society for the Blind), San Gil 3, Barcelona.

La Union Fraternal, Montepio de Ciegos (Fraternal Union of Blind Men), Luna 12, Barcelona.

Escuela Municipal de Ciegos (Municipal School for the Blind), San Miguel 115, Palma de Mallorca.

Escuela Provincial de Ciegos (Provincial School for the Blind), Gobernador 4, Castellón de la Plana.

El Porvenir Sociedad de Ciegos (The Porvenir Society for the Blind), Isabel Ferrer 37, Castellón de la Plana.

El Porvenir Sociedad de Ciegos (The Porvenir Society for the Blind), Campaneros 20, Valencia.

La Piedad Sociedad de Ciegos (Mercy Society for the Blind), San Mateo 100, Alcoy.

Escuela Municipal de Ciegos (Municipal School for the Blind), San Nicolas 129, Alcoy.

Centro Instructivo de Ciegos (Center for Instruction of the Blind), Miguel de Ara, 5 and 7, Saragossa.

Escuela de Ciegos del Hospicio Provincial (The Provincial Charitable Institution's School for the Blind), Saragossa.

Escuela de Ciegos (School for the Blind), Zarandía 9, Huesca.

Esperanza y Fé, Sociedad de Ciegos (Hope and Faith Society for the Blind), Piamonte 2, Madrid.

Colegio de Ciegos del Hospicio Provincial (Provincial Charitable Institution's College for the Blind), Madrid 15, Burgos.

Sociedad Cultural y Protectora de los Ciegos de Vizcaya (Cultural and Protection Society for the Blind of Biscay), Santa Maria 4, Bilbao.

Sociedad de Ciegos é Invalidos (Society for the Blind and Infirm), Portugalete, Bilbao.

La Union Sociedad de Ciegos (Union Society for the Blind), Cevedo 3, Santander.

La Nueva Luz, Sociedad de Ciegos (The New Light, Society of Blind Persons), Alvarez Garay 23, Gijon.

Centro Instructivo de Ciegos (Center for Instruction of the Blind), Ancha Sto. Domingo 2, Granada.

Centro Instructivo y Protector de Ciegos (Center for Instruction and Protection of the Blind), Plaza Riego 24, Malaga.

Escuela para Ciegos del Hospicio Provincial (Provincial Charitable Institution's School for the Blind), Badajoz.

Escuela de Ciegos (School for the Blind), Campo de la Leña 8, Coruña.

THE BLIND IN SWITZERLAND

MARGARET SCHAFFER

*Secretary, Bernische Blindenfürsorgeverein,
Berne, Switzerland*

Switzerland is a small country, only a third of the size of New York State, with a population of four million inhabitants. According to the last census, 1922, the number of blind people in the country is 2,260, which gives a proportion of about five blind persons to each ten thousand of the general population.

The Republic of Switzerland consists of twenty-two cantons, which are, to a large extent, self-governed. This fact, as well as the fact that there exist two different religions and three languages (German, French and Italian), makes the organization of the work for the blind very complex. An efficient centralization of the work for the blind, therefore, is absolutely necessary. The legislation of Switzerland does not contain any special provision concerning the blind; they are entirely dependent on cantonal or municipal regulations. The predominant part of work for the blind is organized through private initiative and with private means.

Let us first consider the education of the blind. There are five schools for blind children in Switzerland: a French one in Lausanne, a Swiss Catholic school at Fribourg (where the French, German and Italian languages are used), two German schools—one at Spiez, Berne, and one at Zurich, and a school for blind feeble-minded children at Chailly near Lausanne. It would seem that this number of schools should be sufficient for about 150 blind children. Unfortunately, education of the blind is not compulsory and there is no legal provision for free education of the blind as there is for normal children, so it is sometimes difficult to persuade the parents of a blind child to let him have regular school training.

All the schools for the blind are residential schools, maintained by private means. Only the school in Zurich, founded in 1809, is supported by the state—in this case, the canton of Zurich. As a rule the children enter the schools at the age of about six to seven years and leave when sixteen to eighteen years old. The Institution in Spiez has a kindergarten where blind children are admitted from the age of three. In all these schools the pupils are given a general education (intellectual, physical and musical) and both girls and boys are trained in housework.

Technical subjects prepare the pupils for their future vocational training. The course of study in the schools for the blind approaches as closely as possible to that in our Swiss primary schools. As there are only a few pupils in every class, it is possible to individualize the instruction and adapt it to the mental capacity of the scholar. Now and then it happens that a specially able blind student leaves the school for the blind in order to enter an advanced school with seeing students. Lately sight-saving classes have been inaugurated at Zurich and Basle.

After school age, the pupils at the Institute at Zurich leave the institute. All the other Swiss schools for the blind have workshops with training classes attached to them. Here the blind receive their vocational training and very often remain as workers after their training is finished. The girls are instructed in hand-knitting, crochet work, pulp-caning and brush-making. The boys become brush-makers or basket-makers. During their vocational training, boys and girls visit a continuation class where instruction is given in typewriting, commercial subjects and domestic science (cooking and needle-work). We have no school for blind masseurs in Switzerland but the blind student can, like any sighted person, enter the regular school of massage at the University of Zurich. Here he will receive his certificate after two years of study. The piano-tuners can learn their trade in one of our piano factories. Our blind teachers and musicians (organists especially) receive their professional training at normal and music schools for seeing people.

Nine workshops, some of which, as mentioned above, are attached to the schools for the blind, employ about three hundred workers in all. Five of these workshops are for both men and women, two are for women only and two for men only. All have seeing directors. Nearly all of these workshops are connected with homes where the workers find lodging and care, and where they pay for their board at less-than-cost rates, for the workshops and their homes are supported by philanthropic societies.

Let us not forget to mention two homes for the aged blind, one in St. Gall and one in Kilchberg, Zurich.

There are, too, in Switzerland, independent blind people who earn their living as hawkers, basket-makers, machine-knitters and boot-makers. Some academically-trained blind people are instructors in colleges or universities.

Switzerland has eleven societies and nine foundations for the welfare of the blind. Some of these maintain workshops with homes, others support schools for blind children, and still others

give out pensions and scholarships. Most of these societies have only seeing members, but some of them have blind members also. In the year 1903, all these societies combined to form the Central Swiss Union for the Welfare of the Blind, with headquarters at St. Gall. The aims of this union are as follows: To keep accurate statistics; to make researches on the social and economic position of the blind; to influence the legislation on behalf of the blind; to give information and advice on all questions pertaining to the blind.

The blind of Switzerland in 1911 formed the "Swiss Federation of the Blind" consisting entirely of blind members. The headquarters of the Federation are in Zurich and there are branches located in St. Gall, Berne, Basle, Luzerne, Thurgau, Spiez and in the French cantons. Once a year there is a meeting of the representatives from these branches. The principal aims of the Federation are: To study all the educational, social and economic questions dealing with the blind; to promote the welfare of the blind by stimulating state action and by encouraging general philanthropic work for the blind; to overcome the prejudice in the public mind against the employment of the blind; to lend money for purposes of education and also for starting the blind person in his own business; and to provide employment for the blind, especially in industrial concerns. Its official organ is the *Schweizerische Blindenbote* (Swiss Messenger of the Blind), published in German in braille and in ink-print. The French edition of this magazine, *Le Messager Suisse des Aveugles* is published only in ink-print. Every year the Federation also publishes an almanac, the German edition of which is called *Blindenfreund* (Friend of the Blind), and the French edition, *L'Ami des Aveugles*. The profit from the sale of this calendar is used towards meeting the expenses of the insurance system of the Federation, which is very popular among the blind.

Two libraries (a German one at Zurich and a French one at Geneva) distribute their braille books to all Swiss blind people. The library at Zurich is gratis, the one at Geneva lends its books at a very low charge and up to a certain weight the books can be sent all over Switzerland at special postage rates.

In 1903 there was established in Zurich a museum for the blind where all kinds of appliances for the blind and articles made by the blind are shown.

The only Swiss printing house for braille literature is at Lausanne. It publishes mostly braille books in French and runs two monthly periodicals in braille: *Le Petit Progrès* (Progress),

devoted to the interests of the blind and *La Glaneuse* (The Gleaner), a literary magazine.

Lausanne is the place where the few appliances for the blind made in Switzerland are manufactured. Among these can be mentioned a braille writer, the "Constançon."

In this paper I have enumerated the organizations and associations which exist for the blind in Switzerland—surely a representative number for such a small country! But what we still need is increased centralization of the work for the blind and stricter specialization in these numerous institutions. Our fervent hope is, that the time may not be too far off when the State will recognize its obligation to provide academic and vocational training for the blind, so that the indigent blind person may become independent, able to earn his living, and to prove himself a useful member of society.

The addresses of Swiss schools and institutions for the blind are as follows:

SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND

Kantonale Blinden & Taubstummenanstalt (Cantonal Institution for the Blind and for Deaf-Mutes), Zürich.

Bernische Privatblindenanstalt (The Berne Private Institution for the Blind), Spiez, Bern.

Asile des Aveugles (Asylum for the Blind), Lausanne.

Schweizerische Erziehungsanstalt für blinde Kinder katholischer Konfession (Swiss Educational Institution for the Blind Children of the Catholic Faith), Freiburg.

Institution suisse pour aveugles faibles d'esprit (Swiss Institution for the Feeble-Minded Blind), Chailly, Lausanne.

WORKSHOPS AND HOMES

Ateliers de l'Asile des Aveugles (Workshops of the Asylum for the Blind), Lausanne.

Ateliers de l'institution suisse pour aveugles faibles d'esprit, (Workshops of the Swiss Institution for the Feeble-Minded Blind), Chailly.

Blindenheim Basel (The Basle Home for the Blind), Kohlenbergstrasse, Basel—Home and Workshops.

Blindenheim Bern (The Berne Home for the Blind), Neufeldstrasse 97, Bern—a Home only.

Vereinigte Blindenwerkstätten Bern und Spiez (Associated Workshops for the Blind of Berne and Spiez), Neufeldstrasse 31, Bern, with a branch at the Institution of the Blind, Spiez, Bern.

- Luzernisches Blindenheim* (The Lucerne Home for the Blind),
Horw bei Luzern—Home and Workshop.
- Frauenblinden Dankesberg* (Workshop for Blind Women),
Bergheimstrasse, Zürich—only Workshops.
- Blindenheim für Männer* (Home for Blind Men), St. Jakob-
strasse, Zürich—only Workshops.
- Ostschweizerisches Blindenheim Heiligkreuz* (The Holy Cross
Home for the Blind of East Switzerland), St. Gallen—Home
and Workshop.
- Blindenaltersheim Heiligkreuz* (The Holy Cross Home for Aged
Blind), St. Gallen.
- Emilienheim für alte Blinde* (Emilien Home for Aged Blind),
Kilchberg, Zürich.
- Bibliothèque Braille Romande* (The Romande Braille Library),
1 rue Etienne Dumont, Geneva.
- Schweizerische Leihbibliothek für Blinde* (Swiss Lending Library
for the Blind), Kreuzgasse, Zürich.
- Schweizerisches Blindenmuseum* (Swiss Museum for the Blind),
Kreuzgasse, Zürich.

THE BLIND IN U. S. S. R.¹

VLADIMIR ALEXANDROVITCH VIKTOROFF

Chairman, All-Russian Society for the Blind, Moscow, Russia

In regard to the number of blind people, czarist Russia occupied the first place among European and American countries. According to the census of the blind, taken in 1886, the total number amounted to 189,872. The general census of 1897 lists as many as 247,900 blind persons, an average of 20 blind per 10,000 of the general population. These figures were, however, far from complete; the actual percentage was much higher than that shown by official data.

Further, general surveys made by doctors in all the districts showed a far greater percentage of blind people than that which had been established for each area under the general census. For instance, in the Cossack village of Cheliabinsk, Orenburg province, the actual incidence of blindness was 55 per 10,000 as against the general census figure of 29; in the Novotorsk district, Tver province, 31 as against 18; in the Bronnits district, Moscow province, 35 as against 15.

The large percentage of blindness in Russia was chiefly due to the technical and economic backwardness of the country, and to the extremely low economic and cultural standard of the workmen and peasants. Another reason was the poor organization of medical relief. Various scientific authorities, including Professor Golovin, affirm that the sight of two-thirds of the blind people in Russia might have been saved if they had been given timely medical assistance.

At the present time, owing to the increased economic and cultural welfare of the masses of the workmen and peasants, and to the extensive relief work which the Soviet government is carrying on, the percentage of blindness has not only failed to increase, but is actually much lower than under the czarist régime. According to the census of 1926 the number of the blind in the U. S. S. R.¹ was 335,000 or 15.8 blind persons per 10,000 of population.

The status of the blind from a social and legal standpoint is determined by the social and legal status of the class to which they belong. Most of the blind, as we know, belong to the working class and to the poorest peasantry. The social and legal status of

¹ Union of Socialist Soviet Republics.

the blind in Russia before the October revolution was a very difficult one. Whereas the workmen and peasants had a formal right to work and to receive elementary education, the blind had no such right. The classes which dominated in Russia and which had millions of unemployed at their disposal, were interested solely in obtaining maximum profits and refused to make use of the labor of the blind. The mass of the blind did not even have a right to assistance from the state. Only blind soldiers and sailors received pensions, and these were very small, insufficient for even a minimum standard of living.

The private Society for Assistance to the Blind, which was founded in 1881, did not really alter the situation. It only served to shield the responsibility of the state in relation to the masses of the blind and to conceal their poverty-stricken condition and their lack of rights.

During the 36 years of its existence the Society founded the following institutions: 23 schools for 992 blind people, 2 trade schools for 55 people, 19 boarding houses and asylums for 352 people, 1 children's asylum for 25 blind children. It is quite comprehensible that these insignificant results did not improve the position of the blind.

The October revolution, which freed the working class and laboring masses from exploitation on the part of the bourgeois and the land owners, absolutely eliminated philanthropy by proclaiming for the first time that the blind should share equal rights with those who see. As a result, in the Soviet Union the blind have absolutely the same rights as the sighted.

In order to obtain an actual participation of the blind in socialist construction work, the Soviet government has given them various privileges. Destitute victims of congenital or traumatic blindness have, in general, the same rights as disabled veterans or workmen to enter asylums for the disabled or to receive pensions as disabled veterans of the third class. Blind students in secondary schools and universities receive an additional sum of twenty rubles for paying a reader, over and above their basic scholarship.

The industrial enterprises of the blind are completely free from the "turnover" tax, and as to social insurance payments, they are placed on an equal basis with state departments. With regard to the lease of house room the organizations of the blind have a right to a 50 per cent discount.

In the Soviet Union the blind can work in the Communist party, the League of Young Communists, the pioneer organiza-

tions, trade unions and social organizations on an equal footing with the physically normal, and they enjoy equal rights in regard to being elected to the Soviets where they now have over a hundred deputies.

In order to make it possible for the blind to use their initiative and to participate in socialist construction work, the government founded, in 1925, the All-Russian Society of the Blind, which acts as an autonomous organization with social and legal rights. The fundamental and direct program of this Society is as follows:

1. The Society keeps an account of the number of blind in towns and villages, through the organizations which already exist or by forming new ones.

2. The Society takes it upon itself to organize the work of the blind by drawing them into all the branches of national industry which are suitable for handicrafts and factory work as well as agricultural work.

3. The Society also undertakes the professional training of the blind, by founding special industrial schools and workshops, and also by getting the blind trained under the general system used in handicrafts, factory and agricultural industries.

4. One of the Society's chief tasks is that of mass cultural work among the blind.

5. The Society gives legal assistance to its members, acting as their representative in this respect before all state administrative and judicial organizations.

The Society not only carries on its own work with regard to aiding the blind, but also assists other state and social organizations in their work in the same direction. While carrying on its work among the blind of the R. S. F. S. R.¹ and its autonomous republics, the society also assists the work which is carried on among the blind in the other republics of the Union.

In order to make an exchange of working experience and promote the international solidarity of blind workers, the society establishes relations with the masses of blind workers abroad.

6. Like every other social organization, the society takes a part in all general state programs and devotes a great deal of attention to prophylactic measures.

Twenty thousand blind persons have joined the Society and are taking part in the establishment of socialism. Their watchword is, "The blind are on an equal footing with those who see." Over 6,000 blind people are engaged in handicrafts, factory and

¹ Russian Socialist Federal Soviet Republic.

agricultural work. Over 300 blind people are working in the factories and plants of Leningrad and Moscow.

Many special working associations (artels) of the factory type have been organized. There is a plant in Moscow for the manufacture of electric fans, employing 190 blind workmen.

In 1931 the number of territorial and cantonal workshops for training the blind will be brought up to 20, and that of regional workshops to 56. In those workshops 2700 persons will be trained.

It is proposed to train 850 blind people under the general co-operative and state systems, and to place 7000 in various jobs.

Whereas formerly the blind did only handicraft work, such as weaving baskets and so forth, they now work in over 50 branches of industry, including 40 different kinds of work in the metallurgical and electric industries, 15 in the textile industry, 18 in wood-turning, 36 in the chemical industry, 5 in mining, 25 in the leather and shoemaking industries, 15 in the manufacture of food products, 10 in sewing, 15 in paper-manufacturing, 20 in rope-making and fibre work, 25 in agriculture, and 50 in other branches of industry (manufacture of brushes, felt boots, mattresses, toys, upholstery, etc.)

The wages of the blind are equal to those of physically normal people. The efficiency of the blind worker is, in the main, no lower than that of those who have eyesight. This is proved by many reports of industrial specialists and also by cases where the blind have received premiums in social competition and "shock-brigade" work. For instance, the chairman of the factory committee of the Mossoelectric Works reports:

"We have five blind men working in the preparatory section, engaged in assembling contact knobs. They are getting second category wages plus extra earnings, their average monthly earnings amounting to 80 rubles.

"They have shown themselves to be exemplary 'shock-brigade' workers. One of them got a premium on the 'shock-brigade' workers' day; he takes an active part in social competition and social work. One of them is a member of the shop 'cell' of the Young Communists' League, another is a member of the shop committee."

The chairman of the factory committee of the Cauchuk Works in Moscow writes:

"We have seven blind men working at our plant. In the technical section they get second category wages plus 50 per cent for extra work.

"The average earnings of each are 120 rubles. They are exemplary workers. They have raised the normal figure of production, formed a commune, take an active part in socialist competition, and do good social work. One of them, Comrade Potapoff, has received the highest premium for good work—a piece of cloth for a suit. He is a member of the communist 'cell'."

The Institute of Scientific Research is now engaged in organizing the placing and training of the blind on a scientific basis. The Peoples' Commissariat of Social Assistance has assigned 1,800,000 rubles for scientific work in the Institute.

Much has also been attained with regard to the education of the blind. Thousands of blind people are learning to read and write and the cultural standard is being raised in schools for the illiterate and semi-illiterate and in various social and political study circles. In 1931 it is proposed to educate the blind by radio. Two hundred blind persons are being taught in universities and secondary schools, where they follow various courses of study: physics and mathematics, pedagogy, soviet construction work, etc. Those who have finished school or university teach successfully not only among the blind but also among the seeing people. For instance, Kozmin, a professor of mathematics, teaches in the Institute of Technology attached to the Petrovsk electric power station; engineer Pototsky is at the head of the technical work in connection with oil prospecting; Pondriaguine is an assistant at the Moscow university and does important work in topology. Various blind persons are doing successful work in teaching, jurisprudence and so forth.

Two thousand children are being taught in special schools, where they get a general education and special vocational training. Since the experiments with teaching blind children in general schools have given good results, the People's Commissariat of education has issued instructions for teaching blind children in public schools, together with normal children. Besides thirty special schools for blind children in the R. S. F. S. R., we have many special cultural institutions for them throughout the Union.

In large cities such as Moscow, Leningrad, Rostoff, Samara and others, there are clubs for the blind. Almost all the branch offices of the Society, the working associations and workshops have "red corners" and libraries.

The blind have their own special periodicals. The Central Society publishes a fortnightly journal, *The Life of the Blind*, which is printed in braille and issued in an edition of 650 copies,

as well as a yearly paper, *On A Par With Those Who See*, printed in ordinary type, with an issue of 200,000 copies. In 1931 a new magazine is to be published, printed in ordinary type, with a monthly issue of 3,000 copies. The Moscow regional section of the Society publishes a monthly journal called *The Blind Proletarian* printed in braille, with a monthly issue of 110 copies. Various local branches of the Society publish over a hundred "wall newspapers" in braille. Besides these, questions relating to the blind are given a great deal of attention in the periodicals of the Commissariat of Social Welfare and the Commissariat of Education as well as in the general press, especially at the time of the congress and plenary session of the Central Society and the "three-day campaigns" for the blind.

Various important steps are being taken to extend and re-equip the braille printing shops. A special workshop for making school and technical text-books, toys, etc., for the blind has been organized in Nijni-Novgorod.

The new writing apparatus which is being manufactured for the blind is extremely interesting. There are also three newly-invented printing presses which should greatly improve the printing of literature for the blind.

The above data are quite sufficient to show the enormous difference, both in principle and practice, between the past and present position of the blind.

The fourth All-Russian Congress of the Society of the Blind, which took place in July of last year, resolved to bring the number of its members up to 70,000 by the end of the Five Year Plan, and the number of blind people trained and placed up to 50,000. The Congress also resolved that all the illiterate blind people should be sent through school and that the number of blind pupils in public and high schools should be brought up to 1000 by the end of the Five Year period.

At the fifth Congress of the "Profintern" (Trade Union International) which took place in Moscow in August, 1930, the representative of the All-Russian Society of the Blind stated that within the next three or four years, all blind people of the U. S. S. R. would be taking part in the industrial and cultural life of the country.

THE BLIND IN YUGOSLAVIA

VELYKO RAMADANOVITCH

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The population of Yugoslavia according to the last census was 11,725,074. The number of blind people in the country was 12,242 (7,244 men and 4,998 women), or 11.38 per 10,000 inhabitants. Of these 1,740 (1,004 men and 736 women) were blind from birth. In the other cases, blindness was caused by various diseases.

There are three schools for the blind in Yugoslavia, one in Zemun, one in Zagreb, and one in Kotchevje. Until December 31, 1928, all three were State institutes; but from January 1, 1929, the schools in Zagreb and Kotchevje were taken over by the local authorities. Before the war no school for the blind existed in Serbia. The school in Zagreb belonged to Austria at that time.

The school in Zemun was founded during the War (December 13, 1917). Curiously enough, it opened up its activities in Africa. The beginning was made by the Permanent Blind Relief War Fund (now American Braille Press) in Paris. Its representative, Mrs. Margaret McFie (now Mrs. Dimitrijevitich), and Veljko Ramadanovitch collected all the Serbian soldiers who were blinded or deafened in the War, and started their rehabilitation in a barrack which was provided by the French Government. After Serbia had been liberated, all its war-blinded soldiers were transferred to Zemun, where the first school for the blind in Yugoslavia was set in operation. From December 13, 1917, to April 1, 1920, the expenses of the school were covered by the Permanent Blind Relief War Fund, but at the last mentioned date the school was taken over by the Department of the Interior, and new buildings were specially constructed for its needs.

At the school in Zemun there is a separate department for boys and girls with low vision, and also a department for blind feeble-minded children. A number of partially sighted Yugoslavian children go to the public schools with the seeing children.

The teachers of the blind are selected by competition. The applicant for participation in this competition must have passed his teachers' examination, and also have had two years' experience as a teacher in the elementary schools. Teachers who know an-

other language besides their own native tongue are preferred. The selection is done after a probationary period of six months at the school for the blind, and the person is chosen who, in the opinion of the principal, also possesses the special characteristics required for his position. When this teacher has worked at the school for the blind for two years, he is appointed permanently and will then get a salary 10 per cent higher than the teachers in the public schools are receiving. Besides this increase, the teachers of the blind enjoy free rooms, heat, and light at the school.

Blind teachers are used for the instruction in music, in the kindergarten, in the preliminary school, for the manual training, and in the first two years of the elementary school. The age limits for admittance vary noticeably at the three schools: in Zagreb it is seven to fourteen; in Kotchevje seven to twenty; and in Zemun four to thirty-five years. The training period for children is ten years; for youths, three years; and for adults, two years.

The school in Zemun is the most satisfactory of the three schools. It has the following departments: kindergarten for children from four to six years; preliminary school for children from seven to eight years; elementary school with four grades for children from eight to twelve years; manual training school with two grades; high school with four grades; music school. The Department of Music at Zemun is provided with ten pianos, one harmonium, and a complete collection of instruments for orchestral music.

In the school year 1928-1929, the number of students at the Yugoslavian schools for the blind were as follows: in Zemun, 120 (38 girls and 82 boys); in Zagreb, 13 (7 girls and 6 boys); in Kotchevje, 54 (22 girls and 32 boys). The number of teachers and assistants were: in Zemun, 29 (16 seeing and 13 blind); in Zagreb, 4 (3 seeing and 1 blind); in Kotchevje, 7 (5 seeing and 2 blind).

The curriculum in the elementary grades of the Yugoslavian schools for the blind is the same as in the schools for seeing children; but in the kindergarten and in the preliminary school, the Montessori method is followed. The best results are reached with pupils who receive all their education in the school for the blind, that is, those that start in the kindergarten at the age of four to five years, and thereafter go through the preliminary school, the elementary school and the high school. The teaching appliances, which mostly come from France or Germany in sufficient variety, facilitate the instruction of mathematics, anatomy, physics, geography, etc. At all three schools the pupils study Esperanto. In Zemun the students have their own Esperanto club, *Nova Lumo*

(New Light). The members of this club read all the Esperanto magazines that appear in braille, and also correspond with blind students in other countries. At the high school in Zemun, German and French are obligatory.

A fact which benefits the Yugoslavian blind is that the peasants all over the country always wear *opanke*, a type of shoe which the blind can make just as well as the seeing. The greater number of blind people hail from the country and return there after their education is finished. There they preferably work as opanka-makers, and they are in favor with the farmers. During the last ten years 98 opanka-makers have gone out from the school in Zemun (56 war-blinded and 42 civilians).

All the students also learn brush-making, and pearl and filigree work. Only those who live in the parts of the country where reed is grown are trained as basket-makers, so that by the help of their parents or relatives they can obtain cheap or free working material. The most lucrative occupations for the blind in Yugoslavia, as in most other countries, are music and piano-tuning. The musicians are often employed by the moving-picture theatres, etc., and as a rule they earn enough to maintain themselves and their families in comfort.

The blind soldiers in Yugoslavia are well taken care of. They have a state pension and besides, carry on whatever trade they have learned. Thirty-five war-blinded soldiers live in a colony in the country. This colony is called "Veternik," named for an important position on the Southern front. These thirty-five men are all married and have many children. Each one of them has his own little house and about ninety acres of ground. They get along very well with the income from their little farms and their pensions. There is a special school for the children of the colony. The blind soldiers also have a braille library with a reading room and their own orchestra.

In Zemun there are ten war-blinded Russians who lost their sight during General Wrangel's unfortunate attack on Soviet Russia. After the defeat they sought and found refuge in Yugoslavia. They have their own house in Zemun and support themselves by making various articles which the public willingly buys.

The Central Library for the Blind in Yugoslavia is at the school in Zemun. It sends books free of charge to all parts of the country. Besides national literature the library has a good collection of books in foreign languages, among others all the books in English, French and Italian published by the American Braille Press, and all the braille music put out by this organization.

Since 1919 over a thousand volumes have been produced by the printing press at Zemun: textbooks, music, fairy tales and fiction. There are many seeing persons who voluntarily transcribe books for the library. Lately an attempt has been made to get high school students and the Red Cross interested in this activity.

Under the name of *Braillova Riznica* (Braille Treasure Room), the Yugoslavian blind now have their own magazine. It was formerly published by the American Braille Press in Paris, but is now published by the Institute in Zemun. This magazine is sent free to all Yugoslavian blind. They have also a magazine in ink-print, of which Veljko Ramadanovitch is the editor. This periodical is chiefly intended for teachers of the blind and the deaf.

Thanks to a decree issued by the King and the Government, there is now compulsory school attendance for all blind and for all deaf children. All schools hereafter will be supported by the government and instruction is free. Parents that can afford it, are asked to pay 100 to 300 dinars a month for the board of blind or deaf students at residential schools. The various provinces now have on their budgets 27,000,000 dinars to be used for schools for the deaf and for the blind.

Last year the Department of the Interior decided that blind masseurs should have precedence in appointments for state hospitals and bathing establishments. At the present time there are only three blind masseurs in Yugoslavia, and these are employed; but the state needs 220. The training of such a large number is more than can be achieved in ten years. Blind people who have passed the teachers' examination with satisfactory results will be employed by the state in the future with the same privileges that the seeing teachers are receiving.

SCHOOLS AND ASSOCIATIONS FOR THE BLIND

King Alexander I Institute for the Blind, Zemun—maintained by the State—comprises: Kindergarten, elementary and high schools; trade school; music school; workshops for adults.

Institute for the Blind, Zagreb—maintained by the Banska Uprava—comprises: Primary school; trade school; workshop for adults (brush-making).

Institute for the Blind, Kotchevje—maintained by the Banska Uprava—comprises: Primary school; trade school; workshop for adults (brush-making and basket-making).

The St. George Invalid Fund, Belgrade.

Kralj Dečanski Society, Belgrade, founded for the education of blind children and of deaf-mutes.

Society for the Protection of Blind Girls, Dom Mira, Slepih Devojaka, Indjija Srem, which aims to provide a home for girl-pupils leaving the institute if they have no parents or relatives. About twenty-five girls are housed at present.

Institute for Blind Girls, Monastery of Sv. Petka Sićevačka, Nish, the aim of which is similar to that of the Dom Mira Home. It houses about ten girls at present.

Society of Blind Russian Soldiers, Zemun, which consists of ten war-blinded Russians who are engaged in brush-making and basket-making.

Union of Independent and Educated Blind Persons, Zagreb, which has a membership of thirty-five. Fourteen of these—eight men and six women—live in the Union's Home.

Society Sv. Vid for the Assistance of the Blind, Zagreb, which hopes shortly to reopen its two houses (closed since the War)—one for blind boys and the other for blind girls.

Society for the Assistance of the Blind, Ljubljana, which aims to find work for the blind, to give medical aid, and to help financially those blind persons who are incapable of earning a living.

Agrarian Union of Blind Soldiers, "Veternik," Novi Sad—a farm colony of thirty-five war-blinded men.

SECTION 2

OTHER SUPPLEMENTARY PAPERS

THE VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND PLACEMENT OF THE BLIND

CHARLES HERODEK

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The vocational training and occupational placement of the blind has always been a very vital question and a very difficult problem for those who have devoted themselves to its serious consideration.

From the point of view of education and vocational training, the blind, in general, may be divided into two large groups. In one group we may put those who, because of handicaps other than blindness, should be placed in custodial homes or other institutions. This group is very easily disposed of since its earning capacity is so limited that it cannot entirely support itself. As a matter of fact the productivity of this group is only slightly above that of people placed in homes for the aged and of those physically incapable of work. In the other group are those who are able to support themselves.

In my opinion, every person who has the desire and some ability for work should be given the opportunity for employment, even though his product cannot be marketed or produced in sufficient quantity to insure his maintenance. Even if his capacity for work is greatly curtailed by blindness he should be given the privilege of working in a shop as a humanistic means of making his lot more endurable. For no one can feel the emptiness and futility of life more than a man, who, accustomed to labor, is deprived of the spiritual satisfaction which comes from honest and regular toil. On the other hand, I believe that those blind people who because of some physical defect or mental abnormality do not have the desire and ability for work, should not be forced to make an effort to contribute to their livelihood. I would suggest that the desire for work should be aroused in them by the psychology of example, that is to say, by surrounding them with people who *are* willing to do their bit but who, at the same time, are troubled with the same mental and physical difficulties.

Sad to say, there are but few occupations into which the blind may enter and through which they may find what they seek—self-respect and economic independence. The more difficult the economic conditions under which a nation operates, and the more

restricted the economic competition is between one nation and another, the harder it is for the blind to find remunerative and profitable employment.

Experience has shown that the normal, capable blind person does not like the routine and organized activities and occupations of a home for the blind, and that he enters one only when unavoidable circumstances compel him to do so.

And he is right. The sightless person because of his blindness already feels that he is different from his sighted fellows. To put him in a working-home for the blind is to emphasize that feeling of difference and, therefore, this should be avoided at all costs. In order to meet his moral and spiritual needs, however, we must provide for him by means of an organization which will permit him to live and work outside of a special home and institution as a self-respecting citizen.

If we wish to discover how such an organization may be brought about, certain practical experiences in the past come to our aid. Before proceeding to the examination of these practical experiences, however, let us enumerate the categories into which the pupils of our schools for the blind may be divided.

1. In the first group are those who engage in the professions, i. e., clergymen, professors, teachers, office employees, etc.

2. In the second group we may classify those who earn their living by means of music, i. e., professors of music, music teachers, church singers, entertainers, dance musicians, and members of other orchestras.

3. In the third group we place those who support themselves by manual labor, i. e., basket-makers, rope-twisters, brush-makers, chair-caners, weavers, tuners, factory workers, etc. This third group makes up the mass of blind workers and is the group in which organizations for the blind are most interested and for whom they can do most in a practical way.

When we consider the fact that this third group is by far the largest in every country, we must approach their problem with deep understanding, broad technical knowledge and with a deep feeling of sympathy.

Fortunately there have always been outstanding men in work for the blind who have dealt with the problem of their education and placement wisely and with vision. The name of Karl Wulf, the well-known German expert, will always be associated with the remarkable idea of forming mutual associations of blind manual workers and of creating colonies or settlements where their work could be done. Under this excellent scheme the blind were en-

abled to enter into industrial competition with their sighted fellows. In the 'eighties it took great courage and decision to express the contention that the blind could compete with the seeing; Wulf, however, not only expressed this contention, but proved conclusively that his idea was not a mere flight of imagination, but that it could be made a reality. To attain his end he organized large industrial workshops and introduced business methods into their management. As a result, the industrial workshops for the blind under his direction functioned in the same way as well-organized factories for the sighted. This practical conception included also the idea of homes for the blind. In this connection he developed his ideas from a practical, and yet understanding and sympathetic point of view. Along with the industrial buildings, he built homes with a room for each blind inmate, where the blind worker was permitted to spend his free time as he liked, thus approaching, in his leisure moments at least, the unsupervised manner of living of his more fortunate sighted brothers. Wulf's example was quickly followed by experts everywhere, and as a result institutions of this sort have been built all over the world.

In contrast with the system described above, we find that in some countries the combined workshop and home has been practically done away with and that the blind live in their own homes, provide for their own personal and family needs, and work in a workshop set up for them in a suitable locality.

Others have tried to solve the problem by building, near the workshops, homes which the blind worker can rent at quite reasonable rates and where his physical comforts can be more closely looked after.

Finally we find blind workers using the same methods in establishing themselves in a trade or occupation as those used by seeing persons. The blind worker puts a sign-board over his front door, announcing that he is engaged in a certain occupation, that he is fully qualified to pursue that occupation, that his work is absolutely acceptable and that the public may place full confidence in his ability to work and willingness to serve. This method is especially common in large cities, where the blind settle in great numbers because they can find a more ready market for their goods and services among the sighted population.

All European countries, as well as the United States of America, are at the present time experiencing a serious financial and economic depression; the number of unemployed is rapidly increasing everywhere *urbi et orbi*. Under normal economic conditions, the blind who are capable of self-support seldom apply

for assistance of any kind to the organizations and institutions responsible for the manufacture and sale of their goods. But today, under the severe economic strain which we are all experiencing, the blind turn to these institutions and organizations for financial aid, or for enough work to do to enable them to earn a mere subsistence. The cries of distress of these unfortunates should touch our hearts even more than the lamentations of the men who are out of work but who possess all their faculties.

Taking into consideration the fact that the interests of manual workers are protected by laws in various countries, for example, Germany and England, and that according to these laws the unemployed must be supported by the community, it is only fair that these provisions should also be extended to the blind craftsman. Since various states do not as yet provide in the same way for their blind citizens who are able to work if they have a chance, it is necessary that through sympathetic, broadminded and philanthropic men, private charitable organizations (*Karitative*), should be created, the purpose of which shall be to aid or provide all blind persons with work, regardless of whether they belong to the professional, musical or manual group. As a matter of fact, the situation of the blind musician and professional man is becoming, day by day, more and more difficult, since the army of sighted men and women engaged in the professions is rapidly multiplying.. In the United States a secondary school education is available to every child, blind or sighted, who is capable of taking advantage of it. France, too, in 1930, extended the same privilege to all her children by making a secondary education compulsory. In the last two or three decades the number of pupils, blind as well as sighted, entering and graduating from secondary schools, has greatly increased everywhere. This is one reason why the blind, who hitherto have been able to support themselves in these fields of endeavor, are now rather shamefacedly turning to our institutions in no small numbers, saying that they can no longer wholly support themselves and asking for some constructive solution to their problem. I believe that this condition holds true of the blind all over the world. Reflection on this state of affairs leads me to believe that it is our duty to form a charitable organization of an international character which, while ministering to the needs of the blind of each nation, shall have as its aim the welfare of the blind all over the world.

The six thousand blind of my country are at present in very trying circumstances. I can only express the hope that their hard lot may serve as an example to the blind of other countries. The

Hungarian Institution for the Blind was founded in 1825 by Archduke Joseph, the Chancellor of Hungary, who had the welfare of the blind deeply at heart. This institution, therefore, has for over a hundred years educated the young blind of Hungary and saved thousands of them from the prospect of a desolate and useless existence by preparing them to be ready to accept the responsibilities as well as the privileges of citizenship. The Hungarian people have always been deeply interested in the advancement of the cause of the blind, and even Michael Anagnos, the eminent director of the world-famous Perkins Institution, took cognizance of this fact during his two visits to our institution in 1889 and 1900 and referred to it in conferences with other professional groups in the United States.

Even the present trying economic conditions cannot alter this attitude and we stand ready to render to the blind material and moral support and aid with what little means we have at our disposal. At the same time we feel that the well-organized activities for the blind in Hungary are threatened by a very grave danger.

Because of the hard times and the scarcity of money, the buying power of the working class, who compose the most considerable part of the consumers of goods manufactured by the blind, has been greatly reduced. Furthermore, all these goods, especially brushes, can be made in factories at a much lower cost and in a much more attractive form, thus making competition on the part of the blind practically impossible.

Then, too, larger enterprises, which under normal conditions are natural consumers of goods made by the blind, are today operating with reduced working forces and consequently having fewer requirements. In view of all these facts it can be easily understood why, in Hungary, the organization for the adult blind which has offices all over the country, has such a difficult time in providing employment for its several hundred dependents.

There are in every country exceptional men who, even though they lose their sight in the midst of a successful career, do not despair but continue with their profession, or branch out into some new but useful and profitable employment. These men would succeed even better if they had an organization, such as we are discussing, to give them the right kind of help at the right time. To illustrate: We had in Hungary, in the not distant past, a painter, who, after he lost his sight at the height of his very successful career, turned his attention to embroidery, and because of his knowledge of colors and use of Hungarian motifs, continued to be as successful in his new profession as he had been in the old.

Furthermore, blind women took up this work with a great deal of enthusiasm and made embroidered curtains, handbags, table cloths, etc. These articles were not only beautiful and pleasing to the eye but interesting to the general public because they were made by blind women under the direction of a blind artist. Our girls in the institution, too, enjoy their needlework and embroidery very much. In fact so proficient have they become, that in 1900 they won the grand prize in this type of entry in the World Exhibition in Paris.

In Hungary, as well as in every other country, the musical abilities of the blind are greatly appreciated. When our institution chorus gives a concert, the music-loving public is only too glad to attend and even the critics have nothing but favorable comments to make.

Hungarian leaders in work for the blind, as well as other noble men and women interested in other branches of social service, would warmly welcome and foster with all they had, the creation of an international organization with local agencies, which would help so much in amelioration of the condition of the blind. In 1907, when the Hamburg Conference on Education and Work for the Blind requested that the various European states should make use of their next census to compile statistics relative to blindness and the blind, Hungary was indeed one of the first, through its governmental Bureau of Statistics, to respond to this practical suggestion. The work of collecting the data was finished in 1912 and the figures published in 1916 in the midst of the Great War. This spirit of self-sacrifice gives us a practical demonstration of Hungary's interest in, and desire for the promotion of, the welfare of its blind.

To sum up briefly, I wish to re-emphasize the following points:

First, let us stand firmly for the creation by each state of a nation-wide charitable organization, the duty of which shall be to aid the blind, who, scattered through society, are trying to earn their living as independent, honorable and self-respecting citizens. Second, let these organizations do everything in their power to aid the blind in establishing themselves in occupations which would take them on the road to independence and self-respect. And lastly, let us work for the creation of an international central office which shall promote the establishment of new agencies wherever and whenever necessary and let it give financial and moral support to the development and organization of work for the blind wherever a blind man, woman or child is to be found.

MASSAGE, ACUPUNCTURE AND MOXIBUSTION AS OCCUPATIONS FOR THE BLIND

HENRY YOSHIHIRO TAMORI

San Francisco, California

I consider it a high honor and a rare privilege to be called upon to speak before this international gathering—the World Conference on Work for the Blind—as one of the delegates from my far-off native country, Japan. In availing myself of this opportunity, however, I wish to restrict myself to the time allotted to me for discussing the subject, “Massage, Acupuncture and Moxibustion as Occupations for the Blind.”

These three methods of treatment are said to have come to Japan from China some thirteen hundred years ago. It is quite interesting to note that in Japan's very first constitution, which was framed about 700 A. D., there is a provision as to the remedial treatment of members of the royal family, establishing therefor the degrees of Doctor of Massage, Master of Massage, Student of Massage, etc., and also similar degrees for persons giving treatment by acupuncture. One can easily judge how important these occupations were in ancient Japan by noting their great repute during the earlier periods of our country's history. Of course, these professions were followed also by persons having normal vision, but from the beginning of the Tokugawa Period, which, roughly, comprises the years extending from 1620 to 1870, the use of these methods of treatment as professions gradually passed into the hands of blind men exclusively.

In recent years, however, persons possessed of normal vision, realizing the profitable nature of these occupations, have again commenced to encroach on the domain so long tacitly accorded to blind men alone. Because of this tendency, blind men of small means are now loudly demanding the exclusive right to this occupation, though the better educated blind practitioners do not consider this tendency to be a matter of serious moment. In fact, there are many blind men who, by employing a certain number of persons possessing normal vision as masseurs and acupuncturists, are nowadays conducting offices yielding quite satisfactory incomes. Some of the blind practitioners in large cities employ from ten to twenty seeing persons for handling the patronage. A blind professional man of this type earns a good living—one, in fact,

which compares favorably in every respect with that earned by men having normal vision.

Massage as it is practiced in Japan is called *anma*, which is nearly the same as massage in this country. The word *anma* is derived from two Japanese words signifying "diagnosis" and "rubbing." That is to say, you may interpret *anma* as meaning the good rubbing which is given after the pronouncement of a diagnosis.

Next, I wish to say a few words about acupuncture. The instrument which we use in acupuncture in Japan is a kind of needle that resembles somewhat an ordinary sewing needle in this country and is usually made of gold or silver. In practical application, this needle is thrust into certain parts of the human body in order to regulate the functioning of the nerves and to promote the circulation of the blood by the direct mechanical stimulus of the needle. Until the beginning of the modern era in Japan, this treatment by acupuncture figured very conspicuously as an essential branch of medical science. As soon as Western methods of advanced medicine were introduced, however, the apparently crude process of acupuncture was largely abandoned and physicians paid very little attention to it. As a consequence, this mode of treatment has been limited only to a few practitioners and the students of the College for the Blind.

In spite of this, Dr. Fujii of Osaka, after years of study, made a remarkable announcement recently, in which he stated that acupuncture causes a change in the blood's circulation. This, he asserted, is very efficacious in curing many refractory ailments.

Finally, I wish to offer some general comments on moxibustion. This is still another method of treating various kinds of sickness which has been popularly practiced in Japan for many years. The procedure is quite unique and interesting. First, we obtain some fine fibres of a plant called *moxa* and of this, a small portion, say about the size of a pea, is placed on that part of the body where pain or irritation exists. Then fire is applied and left burning until the moxa fibres are converted into ashes. This, of course, creates a sore on the skin of the human body, but the stimulation by heat and pain causes a good circulation of the blood which helps to cure disease.

Little attention has been paid by the general public to moxibustion as a curative method during recent years, especially since the advent and widespread adaptation of the treatments prescribed by modern medical science. However, as a result of the thorough study made in 1913 by Dr. Harada and Dr. Kashida of the Im-

perial University, and of subsequent research work by such authorities as Dr. Tokieda, Dr. Hara and Dr. Ohta, moxibustion has been proved to possess signal efficacy in curing many kinds of sicknesses.

According to the statements made by the above-mentioned scientists, moxibustion brings about certain chemical as well as physical changes in the tissues or albuminous substance. It also secures immunity for people from many diseases. After experimenting for years on animals, Dr. Hara made a statement in which he emphasized the fact that moxibustion has remarkable curative power in alleviating tuberculosis. Inasmuch as massage and acupuncture are treatments which can be administered simply by means of feeling and touch, without requiring sight, they are particularly well suited as occupations for the blind. Moxibustion can be practiced also by the blind with little difficulty if an assistant is employed.

These three methods of treatment, old and crude though they may seem to some, have undeniable merits which have stood the test of some thirteen hundred years and today they are attracting much attention from medical authorities who, eagerly and with renewed interest, are studying them as therapeutic agencies. I feel quite sure that these methods of drugless treatment will in the near future make lengthy strides towards securing the scientific recognition due to their importance.

I sincerely hope that these occupations, as yet rather novel in America, as well as in other countries, may be introduced soon quite generally throughout all Western countries so that my fellow blind men may acquire a much wider field of professional activity, thus materially promoting their continued happiness and prosperity.



PART III

APPENDICES

FINAL RESOLUTIONS ON CREATION OF WORLD COUNCIL ON WORK FOR THE BLIND

Pursuant to an Act passed by the Congress of the United States on February 19, 1930, authorizing President Hoover to call a World Conference on Work for the Blind, the President, in March, 1930, caused to be addressed to each nation a communication stating that the World Conference on Work for the Blind would be held in the City of New York in the spring of 1931 for the purposes among others:

- (1) Of affording an opportunity for workers for the blind from various countries to discuss problems of common interest;
- (2) Of evolving plans for the interchange among nations of information regarding matters of peculiar interest to the blind, such as new special appliances, approved methods of teaching, and profitable lines of employment;
- (3) Of evolving a plan for international co-operation in the study of problems relating to the blind and in the manufacture of equipment designed for their special use, etc.,

and also expressing the hope that every country in the world would participate in this conference and that each would send a delegation of experts thoroughly conversant with the technical aspects of work for the blind in their country.

In response thereto, the Conference on Work for the Blind has assembled in the City of New York (April 13 to April 30, 1931), composed of delegates of Governments, associations of workers for the blind, leaders of special experience and experts in this great field of humanity, numbering in all over 115, who have in daily sessions exchanged views, held conferences and made visitations to other blind institutions in the United States; and in final discussion have reached the following conclusions in furtherance of their common aims.

Aside from the benefits to flow from their individual organizations and which they pledge themselves to continue with unabated interest and activity and in a co-operative spirit with the World Council next herein established, it is hereby

RESOLVED

1. That this Congress hereby establishes a World Council on Work for the Blind, with headquarters in the City of Paris,

France, as a separate and independent entity apart from any other organization ;

2. That the terms of office of the Members of the Council shall be three years from the date of incorporation of the Council ;

3. That each nation, officially or unofficially represented at this Congress, to wit: Argentina, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Egypt, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Guatemala, Hungary, India, Italy, Japan, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Peru, Poland, Roumania, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United States, Uruguay, and Yugoslavia, shall be entitled to eight representatives on the World Council ; and that like representation shall be accorded in respect of each nation who may hereafter join the World Council ;

4. That the meeting of the Council shall be held once in three years at the head office of the Council in the City of Paris at a time to be fixed in the regulations of the Council ;

a. The World Council shall be vested with the general direction of its affairs and especially the rationalization of existing technical apparatus and appliances used by the blind and of the machinery used in connection with producing braille books and literature for the blind, and the co-ordination of research in the technical equipment used in work for the blind ;

b. The securing of uniformity in braille notation for all purposes, and uniformity of braille method in music ;

c. The collection and dissemination of information respecting new experiments, ideas, legislation and the like in all countries ;

d. The establishment of a clearing house for embossed music, literature, apparatus and appliances ;

e. Negotiations and arrangements on behalf of the blind world in general on such international questions as free postage, removal of customs barriers to the importation of special appliances and books used by the blind, and materials used in the manufacture of such books and appliances, as well as matters of transportation ;

f. The promotion of new work for the blind in all countries where their present condition is inadequate ;

g. And generally such other purposes as may be calculated to aid the blind in any manner soever.

5. That the officers of the World Council shall be a President, a Vice-President, Secretary and Treasurer, the latter to be

a first class banking corporation with offices in Paris convenient of access to the officers of the World Council.

The duties of the Secretary and Treasurer shall be of the customary nature.

The terms of office of President and Vice-President shall be for three years from the incorporation of the World Council and they, as well as members of the Council, shall severally have power to appoint (during said period) their successors or representatives, in writing filed with the Secretary, and shall be qualified to vote and act in person or by proxy.

For the first term of three years from the incorporation of the World Council, the President and Vice-President, respectively, of the Council and Executive Committee, respectively, shall be Mr. William Nelson Cromwell and Mr. M. C. Migel, and they are hereby designated and elected to said offices, respectively.

6. To encourage, initiate and make possible this noble cause, Mr. Cromwell and Mr. Migel will contribute annually for the first period of three years the sums they have already intimated, provided that this plan be established in such a manner and form as to give them confidence and assurance that it will result in the accomplishment of the objects and purposes herein generally set forth.

That the Members of the World Council shall, in a spirit of mutual helpfulness, contribute such amount annually to the budget of the Council as they may severally find practicable so to do; and they severally fully realize the supreme duty to the cause of the blind of the world that such contribution should be as substantial as practicable.

7. That there shall be, and hereby is, constituted by the World Council an Executive Committee of Eleven Members, one of which shall be a representative of The Unions of the Blind, and the first Members thereof are hereby constituted as follows:

Dr. Siegfried Altmann, Director, Israelitische Blinden-Institut, Vienna, Austria;

Mr. W. McG. Eagar, Secretary-General, National Institute for the Blind, London, England;

Monsieur Paul Guinot, Secretary-General, Fédération Nationale des Aveugles Civils, Paris;

Herr Alrik Lundberg, De Blindas Förening, Stockholm, Sweden;

Dr. Miguel Mérida Nicolich, Director, Instituto Municipal para Ciegos y Sordos-Mudos, Malaga;

Commendatore Dottore Aurelio Nicolodi, Director,
Unione Italiana dei Ciechi, Florence, Italy;

Fräulein Margaret Schaffer, Secretary, Bernischer Blind-
enfürsorgeverein, Berne, Switzerland;

Dr. Carl Strehl, Syndikus, Blindenstudienanstalt, Mar-
burg-Lahn, Germany;

Mr. Tadasu Yoshimoto, Wool Merchant, Japan and Eng-
land.

8. That the terms of office of the members of said Execu-
tive Committee shall be three years from the date of incorpora-
tion of the World Council and vacancies which may arise in their
number during their term of office shall be filled by a vote of
three-fourths in number of the Members of the World Council
acting as aforesaid in person or by proxy in like manner as is
provided by sub-division 5 hereof.

9. That the President and Vice-President of the Council
shall, ex-officio, occupy the same offices and relations to the Execu-
tive Committee and be Members thereof.

10. That the Executive Committee shall establish a Bureau
in said headquarters for the conduct of the routine work and shall
appoint a Manager of the Bureau for the conduct of the current
business, but this Manager shall be at all times subject to the ap-
proval of the President and Vice-President of the World Council.
The Executive Committee also shall appoint a Sub-Committee of
not less than three of their number in addition to the President and
Vice-President (or the nominee, respectively, of the last-named
officers) and also other committees consisting of Members of the
Executive Committee or of person or persons not Members of
the Executive Committee with a Member of the Executive Com-
mittee, however, who shall be Chairman thereof.

11. The Members of the World Council, the President and
Vice-President of the Council and of the Executive Committee
shall serve without compensation, except that the expenses of the
Executive Committee in attendance at meetings called and held
shall be reimbursed; provided that such expenses shall not include
any incurred for journeys outside a zone of 1,000 miles from
Paris.

12. That the President and Vice-President are hereby con-
stituted a Special Committee with plenary power to cause the
World Council and the general plan herein provided for to be
duly and legally incorporated with by-laws or regulations, under
such laws as they may consider most appropriate and as closely

in harmony with the foregoing as they may consider best to accomplish the purposes of these resolutions.

It is to be ever kept in mind that this World Council is not a Home for the Blind where individual care and treatment is to be afforded, but that it far exceeds that work—noble as it is. This is to be an executive organ or instrumentality dealing with far greater questions and duties than those relating to individual cases. We design to create and conduct a world-wide executive instrumentality for the blind, aiding minor forces of helpfulness for the blind and endeavoring to alleviate their needs, elevate their standards of life and its duties by bringing the whole world into a spirit of helpfulness and rejuvenation for the blind. In consequence, we must conduct the World Council affairs with high executive ability and on broad and not merely personal lines.

Our duty is world-wide—not merely local. It is humanity in the broadest sense—but it must be in the most unselfish sense that we deal with this great human problem—with a horizon unlimited by territory, race or creed; with the best Executive faculties; and with careful regard to economy of funds contributed primarily for the benefit of the blind.

The International Council, at a meeting on April 30, 1931, adopted the resolution contained in Mr. Cromwell's memorandum, and added thereto the following resolution:

"That the Executive Committee shall be empowered to settle with Mr. Cromwell any minor points or details in which the above resolution does not wholly coincide with the resolutions adopted at the meeting of the Council afterwards."

Both of these resolutions were adopted unanimously.

We, the Executive Committee of the World Council for the Blind, acting under the attached resolution of the World Council held this day (and of which attached is a copy) have met in prolonged conference with Mr. Cromwell at his residence, 12 West 49th Street, in the City of New York, and as a result have unani-

mously agreed upon the attached document creating the World Council of the Blind, and the Executive Committee thereof and the other matters therein set forth.

With unity and hearty good will we pledge ourselves thereto.
New York, April 30, 1931.

W. McG. EAGAR

Secretary-General,
National Institute for the Blind,
London

PAUL GUINOT

AURELIO NICOLODI

(Gr. Off. Aurelio Nicolodi
Nicholas J. Milella)

CARL STREHL

WM. NELSON CROMWELL

M. C. MIGEL, U. S. A.

DR. MÉRIDA NICOLICH

R. B. IRWIN

GEO. L. RAVERAT

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF WORLD COUNCIL

WILLIAM NELSON CROMWELL, U. S. A., *President*

M. C. MIGEL, U. S. A., *Vice-President*

SIEGFRIED ALTMANN, Austria

W. McG. EAGAR, England

PAUL GUINOT, France

ALRIK LUNDBERG, Sweden

DR. MIGUEL MÉRIDA NICOLICH, Spain

COMM. DOTT. AURELIO NICOLODI, Italy

MISS MARGARET SCHAFFER, Switzerland

DR. CARL STREHL, Germany

TADASU YOSHIMOTO, Japan

FAREWELL MESSAGE TO DELEGATES AND GUESTS¹

M. C. MIGEL

*Honorary Chairman, Organizing Committee, World Conference
on Work for the Blind; President, American Foundation
for the Blind, Inc., New York*

My dear friends, delegates from foreign shores:

You have been with us here in America but a short time, altogether too short. It seems but yesterday since we welcomed you, and yet time is merciless, and, with a tinge of sadness, we are here at the crossroads.

Before your arrival, we who were planning for your visit decided that we would exert every effort in our power in endeavoring to make your stay a happy, joyous and above all, a profitable one—profitable, not in a material sense but for that great cause which you have come so far to represent.

If we have succeeded in doing so, if we have succeeded even in a slight degree in carrying out what was in our minds and hearts to accomplish for you, we shall be happy, indeed. We may have been slightly selfish in this thought, for we long ago have learned that we can only expect good will from those to whom we extend the same feeling; that good will and kindness can be greatly fostered by personal contact; and that many problems become problems no more, misunderstandings disappear, when in their place we have sympathy and tolerance and co-operation.

A well-known writer once remarked, "One can't hate a fellow that one knows," and we feel that although your visit to us has been a brief one, yet even in that time we have learned to know you, to esteem you and to value your friendship.

Although we are men and women of different races and nations, we feel that your visit to us and the better knowledge we have of each other have helped to cement the bonds of international amity and friendship. We hope you will carry back with you from us a message of good will to your people, an

¹ Dinner Meeting, April 29, 1931, at which delegates to the Conference were guests of Mr. M. C. Migel and Mr. William Nelson Cromwell.

assurance of our heartfelt and sympathetic interest in any and all of their problems, and an earnest desire to co-operate with each and every one of you as far as in our power lies. We also wish to thank you for the valuable and important information that you have conveyed to us as to your own methods, and which, when put into operation, will be of tremendous value to us.

I am most happy to announce to you that in commemoration of this World Conference, which I believe is truly epoch-making because of the presence of so many great leaders in the work for the blind from every corner of the world, that the establishment of an International Bureau or League on Work for the Blind, with headquarters in Paris, is practically assured. Our great and good friend, Mr. Cromwell, has been largely responsible for the practical realization of what up to now has been but a dream to most of us. This Bureau or League should be our world laboratory, to which we may bring our accumulated experience, to pass on wheresoever it is needed.

So, you see, that if we have gained nothing else, you have at least by your presence here at this great Conference brought into being an instrument that we hope and pray will be far-reaching in its beneficence.

It is my hope, dear friends, that when you have once again returned to the warmth and glow of your own firesides, perchance your thoughts may occasionally stray to this, your visit amongst us, that you may think of us kindly, and that when you do think of us, you may visualize the heart and the spirit of us. We on our side shall cherish the thought of you all most dearly. Sincere, earnest seekers after truth, we shall ever treasure the memory of your visit.

We bid you a safe and happy return. May God speed you all!

PROGRAM

MONDAY, APRIL 13

8 P.M. Formal Welcome to Delegates and Guests

(International House, New York)

Chairman: MR. M. C. MIGEL¹

Invocation—

DR. ALBERT PARKER FITCH

Addresses of Welcome—

MR. HARRY EDMONDS

MR. M. C. MIGEL

A Journey in Folk Music—

Chorus of the New York Institute for the Education
of the Blind

Addresses of Welcome—

DR. JOHN H. FINLEY

HELEN KELLER, L.H.D.; MRS. ANNE SULLIVAN MACY

THE HONORABLE THOMAS P. GORE, LL.D.

MR. WILLIAM NELSON CROMWELL²

Concerto in D Minor for Two Violins and Piano, *Bach*

MR. ABRASHA HAITOWITSCH

MR. EDWIN GRASSE

MRS. LOUISE E. IMMELN at the Piano

Responses to Addresses of Welcome—

CAPTAIN IAN FRASER

HERR ALRIK LUNDBERG

CAPTAIN AURELIO NICOLODI

The Star Spangled Banner

TUESDAY, APRIL 14

9 A.M.—1 P.M. Education³

Chairman: MR. EDWARD M. VAN CLEVE

Rapporteur: MISS M. M. R. GARAWAY

Psychological Problems of the Pre-School Blind Child—

HERR SIEGFRIED ALTMANN

The General Education and Special Training of the
Young Blind for a Career—

MONSIEUR DONATIEN LELIÈVRE

General Education and Vocational Training—

HERR PAUL GRASEMANN

Higher Education of the Blind and Their Chances in
the Professions—

DR. CARL STREHL

The Training of Teachers of the Blind—

PROFESSOR AUGUSTO ROMAGNOLI

The Special Psychology of the Blind—

HERR HALFDAN KARTERUD

¹ Full name, titles and official connections of speakers will be found on pp. 548-552.

² Meetings held at Hotel Pennsylvania, New York, unless otherwise stated.

³ Mr. Cromwell was unable to be present at this meeting.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14 (*Continued*)

AFTERNOON. Visit to the New York Institute for the Education of the Blind

8—10 P.M. **Round Tables:**

- a. Ways and Means in Planning School Activities
Organizer: DR. O. H. BURRITT
- b. Purposes in Education: For Life and For a Living
Organizer: MR. J. T. HOOPER
- c. Tactual Education
Organizer: MR. HAROLD T. CLARK

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15

9 A.M.—1 P.M. **Employment**

- Chairman:* MR. S. MERVYN SINCLAIR
Rapporteurs: MR. U. AKIBA and MR. S. C. SWIFT
- Blind Home Workers in Sweden—
HERR ERNST RETSLER
- Blind Workshop Occupations—
MR. S. W. STARLING
- Workshop Management—
MR. GEORGE DANBY
- Music as a Profession for the Blind in France—
PROFESSOR PIERRE VILLEY
- Guide Dogs for the Blind—
MRS. DOROTHY HARRISON EUSTIS
- Work for the Blind in Italy—
CAPTAIN AURELIO NICOLODI

AFTERNOON: Visits to Agencies for the Blind in Brooklyn

8—10 P.M. **Round Tables:**

- a. Workshops
Organizer: MR. PETER J. SALMON
- b. Outside Occupations
Organizer: MR. H. R. LATIMER
- c. Home Teaching
Organizer: MISS KATE M. FOLEY
- d. Printing and Appliances
Organizer: MR. G. F. MEYER

THURSDAY, APRIL 16

9 A.M.—1 P.M. **A. Technical Aids and Provisions
B. The Far East**

- Chairman and Rapporteur:* MR. A. C. ELLIS
- A. Museums for the Blind—
DR. EDWARD E. ALLEN
- Libraries for the Blind—
MISS LUCILLE A. GOLDTHWAITE
- Technical Aids and Appliances in the Education of the Blind Child—
DR. VLADIMIR DOLANSKI

THURSDAY, APRIL 16 (*Continued*)

Printing for the Blind—

MR. FRANK C. BRYAN

Co-operation in Printing for the Blind in Latin-America—

SEÑOR ALEJANDRO MEZA

B. Work for the Blind in Japan—

MR. UMAJI AKIBA

The Blind in Asiatic Countries—

MR. GEORGE B. FRYER

AFTERNOON: Visits to Agencies for the Blind in New York

8—10 P.M. **Round Tables:**

a. Libraries and Museums

Organizer: MRS. EMMA N. DELFINO

b. Music

Organizer: MR. L. W. RODENBERG

c. International Organization

Organizer: MR. ROBERT B. IRWIN

d. Education of the Public Regarding the Blind

Organizer: DR. R. S. FRENCH

FRIDAY, APRIL 17

9 A.M.—1 P.M. **Social Services***Chairman:* MR. CALVIN S. GLOVER*Rapporteur:* MR. W. MCG. EAGAR

Causes and Prevention of Blindness—

DR. MIGUEL MÉRIDA NICOLICH

Prevention of Blindness and Sight-Saving—

MRS. WINIFRED HATHAWAY

Home Visiting and Home Teaching—

MISS J. A. MERIVALE

The State and the Blind—

CAPTAIN IAN FRASER

The Rôle of the State in Assisting the Blind—

MONSIEUR PAUL GUINOT

Pensions—A Division of Work for the Blind—

DR. L. GAEBLER-KNIBBE

3—6 P.M. **Round Tables:**

a. Prevention and Sight Saving

Organizer: MR. LEWIS H. CARRIS

b. Pensions

Organizers: MRS. MARY DRANGA CAMPBELL and
MR. HENRY HEDGER

c. Social Welfare

Organizers: MR. H. M. IMMELN and
MR. MURRAY B. ALLEN

d. The Deaf-Blind

Organizer: MISS LYDIA Y. HAYES7 P.M. **Banquet**

SATURDAY, APRIL 18

9 A.M.—6 P.M. **Sightseeing Tour**

8.30 P.M. **Helen Keller Reception**
(Cosmopolitan Club, New York)

APRIL 19—APRIL 29

**Ten-day Tour—Visiting Philadelphia, Washington, D. C.,
Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Niagara Falls and Boston,**

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 29

2—5 P.M. **Reports and General Discussions**

7 P.M. **Farewell Dinner**

Given by MR. M. C. MIGEL and MR. WILLIAM NELSON CROMWELL
at Hotel Roosevelt, New York.

THURSDAY, APRIL 30

9 A.M. **Reports and General Discussions**

1 P.M. **Adjournment**

DELEGATES TO THE WORLD CONFERENCE

Argentina	SEÑOR J. ULISES CODINO, Director, Instituto Nacional de Ciegos, Buenos Aires.
Australia	MR. H. HEDGER, Manager, Sydney Industrial Blind Institution, Sydney. MR. HERBERT W. THOMPSON, Honorary Librarian, Sydney Industrial Blind Institute, Sydney.
Austria	HERR SIEGFRIED ALTMANN, Director, Israelitische Blinden-Institut, Vienna. FRÄULEIN OLGA HOFFNUNG, Teacher, Providentia Mädchen-Blindenheim, Vienna.
Belgium	PROFESSOR GÉRARD BORRÉ, Institut National de Sourds-Muets et Aveugles, Brussels. MONSIEUR R. GRÉNADE, Commercial Attaché of the Belgian Embassy, New York.
Bulgaria	MONSIEUR VASSIL STEPHANOV, Director, Institut National des Aveugles, Sofia.
Canada	CAPTAIN E. A. BAKER, General Secretary, Canadian National Institute for the Blind, Toronto. MR. JOSEPH F. CLUNK, National Supervisor of Industrial Employment, Canadian National Institute for the Blind, Toronto. MR. S. C. SWIFT, Librarian, Canadian National Institute for the Blind, Toronto.
Chile	SEÑOR JUAN ESCOBAR, Professor, Sociedad Santa Lucia Protectora de Ciegos, Santiago. SEÑOR PEDRO FAJARDO, Professor, Sociedad Santa Lucia Protectora de Ciegos, Santiago. SEÑOR LUIS E. FELIU-HURTADO, Consul General, New York.
China	MR. GEORGE B. FRYER, Superintendent, Institution for the Chinese Blind, Shanghai.
Colombia	SEÑOR JUAN ANTONIO PARDO OSPINA, Director, Instituto Colombiano para Ciegos, Bogotá.
Cuba	SEÑOR AUGUSTO MERCHÁN, Consul General, New York.
Czecho-Slovakia	DR. JAROSLAV NOVÁK, Consul General, New York. MR. KAREL STACH, Vice-Consul, New York. DR. ALEKSEJ ZÁHOR, Director, Czechoslovakian Center for the Welfare of the Blind, Prague.
Denmark	HERR ERNST JÖRGENSEN, Chairman and Business Manager, Dansk Blindesamfund, Copenhagen.
Egypt	DR. MAHMOUD AZMY EL KATTAN, Professor of Ophthalmology, Kasr el Aini Medical School, Cairo. DR. C. R. WATSON, President, American University at Cairo, Philadelphia.
France	MONSIEUR PAUL GUINOT, Secretary-General, Fédération Nationale des Aveugles Civils, Paris. MONSIEUR D. LELIÈVRE, Director, Institution Régionale des Sourds-Muets et Jeunes Aveugles, Bordeaux. MONSIEUR G. L. RAVERAT, Secretary-General, American Braille Press, New York and Paris. PROFESSOR PIERRE VILLEY, Secretary-General, Association Valentin Haüy, Paris.

- Germany** DR. LOTHAR GAEBLER-KNIBBE, Chairman, Reichsdeutscher Blindenverband, Berlin.
 HERR PAUL GRASEMANN, Director, Provinzial-Blindenanstalt, Soest, Westphalia.
 DR. W. STEINBERG, Professor, Technische Hochschule, Breslau.
 DR. CARL STREHL, Director, Blindenstudienanstalt, Marburg-Lahn.
- Great Britain** MR. GEORGE DANBY, General Manager, Royal Glasgow Asylum for the Blind, Glasgow.
 MR. W. MCG. EAGAR, Secretary-General, National Institute for the Blind, London.
 LIEUT.-COL. R. FORBES, Inspector, Scottish Education Department, Edinburgh.
 CAPTAIN IAN FRASER, Chairman, St. Dunstan's Executive Council, London.
 MISS M. M. R. GARAWAY, Honorary Secretary, College of Teachers of the Blind, Bristol.
 MR. F. R. LOVETT, Principal in charge of the Department for the Blind, Ministry of Health, London.
 MISS J. A. MERIVALE, Member of the Executive Committee, Union of Counties Associations for the Blind, Oxford.
 MR. G. F. MOWATT, Secretary-Treasurer, Worcester College for the Blind, Worcester.
 MR. S. W. STARLING, Superintendent and Secretary, Birmingham Royal Institution for the Blind, Birmingham.
 DR. J. E. UNDERWOOD, Medical Officer, Board of Education, London.
 DR. ERNEST WHITFIELD, Member of the Executive Council, National Institute for the Blind, London.
- Greece** MRS. IRENE LASCARIDI, Managing Director, Greek Institution for the Blind, Athens.
- Guatemala** SEÑOR GONZALO ALLEGRIA, Secretary, Consulate-General of Guatemala, New York.
- Holland** DR. A. H. J. BELZER, Instituut Tot Onderwijs van Blinden, Amsterdam.
- Hungary** DR. CHARLES HERODEK, Director, Blindenanstalt, Budapest.
- India** MR. C. G. HENDERSON, President Emeritus, All-India Blind Relief Association, London.
 MR. P. N. V. RAU, Honorary Secretary, Indian Association of Workers for the Blind, Bangalore City, Mysore.
 MR. A. K. SHAH, Principal, Calcutta Blind School, Calcutta.
- Irish Free State** MR. PATRICK J. DALY, Vice-Consul, New York.
- Italy** DR. CAV. GINO CHIARAMONTE, Counselor, Ministry of National Education, Rome.
 CAPTAIN AURELIO NICOLodi, President, Unione Italiana dei Ciechi, Florence.
 COMMENDATORE ORESTE POGGIOLINI, President, Federation Nazionale delle Istituzioni pro Cieche, Florence.
 PROFESSOR AUGUSTO ROMAGNOLI, Director, R. Scuola di Metodo per gli Educatori dei Ciechi, Rome.
- Japan** MR. UMAJI AKIBA, Director, School for the Blind, Tokyo.
 MR. NORIKAZU HASHIMURA, President, Nagoya City School for Blind and Dumb, Nagoya City.
 DR. KINGO KIMURA, Director, Taihoku Provincial School for Blind and Dumb, Taihoku.
 MR. RUTARO KIMURA, Editor, *Eastern Braille Magazine*, Tokyo.

- REV. TETSUTARO KUMAGAE, Pastor, Japan Methodist Church, Ube City.
- MR. KYOTARO NAKAMURA, Editor, *Braille Manichi*, Tokyo.
- MR. HENRY YOSHIHIRO TAMORI, Masseur, San Francisco.
- Mexico** SEÑOR RAMÓN BETETA, Director, Educational and Survey Department, United Charities and Welfare, Mexico City.
- SEÑOR ALEJANDRO MEZA, Secretary-General, Asociacion "Ignacio Trigueros," Mexico City.
- New Zealand** MR. CLUTHA N. MACKENZIE, Director, Jubilee Institute for the Blind, Auckland.
- Norway** HERR HALFDAN KARTERUD, Professor, Dalens Blindeskole, Nidaros.
- Peru** DR. JOSÉ RIVERA, Physician, Lima.
- Poland** DR. V. DOLANSKI, Doctor of Psychology, Warsaw.
- MAJOR EDWIN WAGNER, Chairman, Association of Blind Soldiers of the Polish Army, Warsaw.
- HERR MICHAL WAWRYZNOWSKI, Inspector of Special Schools, Ministry of Education, Warsaw.
- Roumania** DR. CONSTANTIN PAUL, Director, Azilului de Orbi "Regina Elisabeth," Bucharest.
- South Africa** REV. ARTHUR W. BLAXALL, member of the National Council for the Blind of South Africa, Cape Town.
- Spain** DR. MIGUEL MÉRIDA NICOLICH, Director, Instituto Municipal para Sordomudos y para Ciegos, Málaga.
- Sweden** HERR ALRIK LUNDBERG, President, De Blindas Förening, Stockholm.
- HERR ERNST RETSLER, Director of Industries, De Blindas Förening, Stockholm.
- Switzerland** MRS. DOROTHY HARRISON EUSTIS, "L'Oeil qui Voit," Mont Pélerin, Vevey.
- FRÄULEIN MARGARET SCHAFFER, Secretary, Bernische Blindenfürsorgeverein, Berne.
- Turkey** MR. LUTHER R. FOWLE, Constantinople.
- United States** DR. EDWARD E. ALLEN, Director, Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind, Massachusetts.
- MR. J. F. BLEDSOE, Superintendent, Maryland School for the Blind, Maryland.
- MR. ROBERT I. BRAMHALL, Director, Division of the Blind, Massachusetts.
- DR. OLIN H. BURRITT, Principal, Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, Pennsylvania.
- MR. A. J. CALDWELL, Superintendent, Louisiana School for the Blind, Louisiana.
- MRS. MARY DRANGA CAMPBELL, Executive Director, Missouri Commission for the Blind, Missouri.
- MR. LEWIS H. CARRIS, Managing Director, National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, New York.
- MR. B. P. CHAPPLE, President, American Association of Instructors of the Blind; Superintendent, State School for the Blind, North Dakota.
- MR. HAROLD T. CLARK, Chairman, Committee on the Physically Handicapped, Cleveland Conference for Educational Co-operation, Ohio.
- MISS HELEN J. COFFIN, Supervisor, Classes for the Blind, Cleveland Public Schools, Ohio.
- MR. WILLIAM NELSON CROMWELL, Founder and President, American Braille Press, New York.

United States
(Continued)

- MRS. EMMA N. DELFINO, Librarian, Department for the Blind, Free Library of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- MR. A. C. ELLIS, Superintendent, American Printing House for the Blind, Kentucky.
- DR. JOHN H. FINLEY, President, New York Association for the Blind, New York.
- MISS KATE M. FOLEY, Home Teacher, California State Library, California.
- DR. R. S. FRENCH, Principal, California School for the Blind, California.
- MR. CALVIN S. GLOVER, President, American Association of Workers for the Blind; Executive Secretary, Cincinnati Association for the Welfare of the Blind, Ohio.
- MISS LUCILLE GOLDTHWAITE, Librarian, Department for the Blind, New York Public Library, New York.
- MR. S. M. GREEN, Superintendent, School for the Blind, Missouri.
- MR. WILLIAM A. HADLEY, Principal, Hadley Correspondence School for the Blind, Illinois.
- MISS GRACE S. HARPER, Executive Secretary, New York State Commission for the Blind, New York.
- MISS LYDIA Y. HAYES, Chief Executive Officer, New Jersey Commission for the Blind, New Jersey.
- MR. WALTER G. HOLMES, Editor, *Matilda Ziegler Magazine for the Blind*, New York.
- MR. J. T. HOOPER, Superintendent, Wisconsin School for the Blind, Wisconsin.
- MR. H. M. IMMELN, Director of Social Service, New York Association for the Blind, New York.
- MR. ROBERT B. IRWIN, Executive Director, American Foundation for the Blind, New York.
- MR. B. S. JOICE, Superintendent, Western Pennsylvania School for the Blind, Pennsylvania.
- MR. H. R. LATIMER, Executive Secretary, Pennsylvania Association for the Blind, Pennsylvania.
- MR. THOMAS S. MCALONEY, Superintendent, Colorado School for Deaf and Blind, Colorado.
- MR. GEORGE F. MEYER, Supervisor, Sight-Saving and Braille Classes, Minneapolis Public Schools, Minnesota.
- MR. M. C. MIGEL, President, American Foundation for the Blind, New York.
- MRS. EVA B. PALMER, Executive Secretary, Cleveland Society for the Blind, Ohio.
- MR. G. L. RAVERAT, Secretary-General, American Braille Press, New York and Paris.
- MR. L. W. RODENBERG, Braille Printing Department, Illinois School for the Blind, Illinois.
- MR. STETSON K. RYAN, Executive Secretary, Board of Education of the Blind, Connecticut.
- MR. PETER J. SALMON, Business Manager, Industrial Home for the Blind, New York.
- MR. S. MERVYN SINCLAIR, Executive Director, State Council for the Blind, Pennsylvania.
- MR. EDWARD M. VAN CLEVE, Principal, New York Institute for the Education of the Blind, New York.
- MR. I. S. WAMPLER, Superintendent, Tennessee School for the Blind, Tennessee.

Yugoslavia

- MONSIEUR VELYKO RAMADANOVITCH, Director, L'Institut d'Aveugles Roi Alexandre I-er, Zemun.
- MONSIEUR RADOYE YANKOVITCH, Consul General, New York.

GUESTS OF THE WORLD CONFERENCE

Australia	MRS. HERBERT W. THOMPSON, Sydney.
Belgium	Mlle. GABRIELLE BORRÉ, Brussels.
Canada	MRS. E. A. BAKER, Toronto. MR. RICHARD MYERS, Assistant General Secretary, Canadian National Institute for the Blind, Toronto. MRS. SHERMAN C. SWIFT, Toronto.
Denmark	MRS. ERNST JÖRGENSEN, Copenhagen.
France	MME. PAUL GUINOT, Paris. MME. G. L. RAVERAT, Paris. M. DANIEL VILLEY, Caen.
Germany	FRÄULEIN GERTRUD LEITHOFF, Berlin. HERR HERMANN MÜLLER, Editor, <i>Der Blindenfreund</i> , Barby-am-Elbe. HERR HERMANN SCHWERDT, Inspector, Landes-Wohlfahrts- und Jugendamt, Berlin.
Great Britain	MR. G. C. BROWN, Principal, Worcester College for the Blind, Worcester. MRS. GEORGE DANBY, Glasgow. MRS. IAN FRASER, London. MISS MARY HAMAR GREENWOOD, London. REV. E. H. GRIFFITHS, Principal, Royal School for the Blind, Leatherhead. MR. AND MRS. W. R. HALLIDAY, Mission to the Outdoor Blind, Glasgow. DR. G. F. MCCLEARY, Ministry of Health, London. MR. S. F. MARKHAM, M.P., Museums Association, London. MISS B. MATTHEY, London. MRS. S. W. STARLING, Birmingham.
Irish Free State	MR. PETER P. BRADY, Honorary Treasurer, Irish Association for the Blind, Dublin. MR. J. P. NEARY, Secretary, Irish Association for the Blind, Dublin.
Italy	DOTT. ELENA ROMAGNOLI COLETTA, Directress, Ospizio Margherita di Savoia per i Ciechi, Rome. SIGNORINA MARCELLA DE NEGRI, Florence. SIGNORINA LINA POGGIOLINI, Florence. SIGNOR ALESSANDRO ROMNAULDI, Florence.
Japan	MR. A. MABUCHI, Director, Mabuchi School for the Deaf, Yokosuka.
Mexico	SEÑORA BETETA, Mexico City. SEÑOR ESTEBAN LARRANAGA, Asociacion Ignacio Trigueros, Mexico City.
New Zealand	MR. H. MORTON, Auckland.
Norway	HERR K. ROVDE, Nidaros.
Philippine Islands	MISS INEZ VILLA, Philippine Islands.
Poland	MME. DOLANSKI, Warsaw.
Spain	SEÑORA VERA B. DE MÉRIDA, Málaga.
Sweden	HERR S. LUNDBERG, Stockholm.

Guests of Honor { LADY FRANCIS CAMPBELL
 HELEN KELLER, L. H. D.
 MRS. ANNE SULLIVAN MACY

COMMITTEES OF THE WORLD CONFERENCE

ORGANIZING COMMITTEE

M. C. MIGEL, American Foundation for the Blind, New York, *Honorary Chairman*
ROBERT B. IRWIN, American Foundation for the Blind, New York, *Chairman*
DR. EDWARD E. ALLEN, Perkins Institution, Massachusetts
DR. OLIN H. BURRITT, Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, Pennsylvania
MRS. MARY DRANGA CAMPBELL, Missouri Commission for the Blind, Missouri
B. P. CHAPPLE, American Association of Instructors of the Blind
HAROLD T. CLARK, Cleveland Conference for Educational Co-operation, Ohio
WILLIAM NELSON CROMWELL, American Braille Press, New York
DR. JOHN H. FINLEY, New York Association for the Blind, New York
CALVIN S. GLOVER, American Association of Workers for the Blind
MISS LUCILLE GOLDTHWAITE, New York Public Library, New York
WILLIAM A. HADLEY, Hadley Correspondence School for the Blind, Illinois
MISS GRACE S. HARPER, New York Commission for the Blind, New York
B. S. JOICE, Western Pennsylvania School for the Blind, Pennsylvania
H. R. LATIMER, Pennsylvania Association for the Blind, Pennsylvania
THOMAS S. McALONEY, Colorado School for Deaf and Blind, Colorado
STETSON K. RYAN, Board of Education of the Blind, Connecticut
EDWARD M. VAN CLEVE, New York Institute for the Education of the Blind, New York

COMMITTEE ON PERSONNEL AND PROGRAM

GEORGE L. RAVERAT, American Braille Press, Paris, *Chairman*
W. MCG. EAGAR, National Institute for the Blind, London, *Secretary*
U. AKIBA, Tokyo School for the Blind, Tokyo
SIEGFRIED ALTMANN, Israelitische Blinden-Institut, Vienna
CAPTAIN E. A. BAKER, Canadian National Institute for the Blind, Toronto
J. ULISES CODINO, Instituto Nacional de Ciegos, Buenos Aires
ROBERT B. IRWIN, American Foundation for the Blind, New York
ALRIK LUNDBERG, De Blindas Förening, Stockholm
CAPTAIN AURELIO NICOLODI, Istituto Nazionale per Ciechi Adulti, Florence
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(NOTE.—In advance of the meeting of the World Conference, Mr. Irwin was requested to serve as chairman of a Round Table on International Organization of Work for the Blind. Mr. Irwin asked the persons listed above to assist him in preparing suggestions to be laid before this Round Table. At the meeting of the Round Table on April 16, it was voted to continue this group as a committee to draw up plans for a World Council to be submitted to the delegates at the business meeting on April 29.)

SPEAKERS AT THE WORLD CONFERENCE

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- ALLEN, E. CHESLEY, Superintendent, Halifax School for the Blind, Halifax, Nova Scotia.
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- *ALLEN, MURRAY B., Vice-Chairman, Utah Workshop for the Blind, Salt Lake City, Utah.
- ALTMANN, SIEGFRIED, Director, Israelitische Blinden-Institut, Vienna, Austria. (D)
- *AYER, REV. E. P., Chaplain, Senate of the State of Connecticut.
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- *BAUSCH, JACOB, Teacher of Music, Classes for the Blind, Cleveland Public Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.
- BERENS, DR. CONRAD, Ophthalmologist, New York, N. Y.
- *BERINSTEIN, BENJAMIN, Lawyer, New York, N. Y.
- BETETA, RAMÓN, Director, Educational and Survey Department, United Charities and Welfare, Mexico City, Mexico. (D)
- BLAXALL, REV. ARTHUR W., Chairman, National Council for the Blind, Cape Town, South Africa.
- *BORRÉ, GÉRARD, Professor of Music, l'Institut National de Sourds-Muets et Aveugles; Vice-President, la Ligue Braille, Brussels, Belgium. (D)
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- CONRAD, MISS EMMA, Teacher, Classes for the Blind, Newark, N. J.
- CROMWELL, WILLIAM NELSON, Founder and President, American Braille Press, New York, N. Y. (D)

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(D) Delegate.

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INDEX

INDEX

- Acupuncture, 256, 523
 After-care, 168
 Akiba, Umaji, 254, 365, 396, 403, 542, 546
 Allegría, Gonzalo, 542
 Allen, E. Chesley, 363, 385, 387
 Allen, Edward E., 197, 300, 395, 543, 546
 Allen, Murray B., 391, 392
 Altmann, Siegfried, 25, 39, 70, 375, 531, 534, 541, 546, 547
 American Association of Instructors of the Blind, iii
 American Association of Workers for the Blind, iii
 American Braille Press, iii, 47
 American Foundation for the Blind, iii, 211, 250, 374, 377
 Appliances for the blind, 223, 248, 407
 Argentina, 445, 541
 Argentine Library for the Blind, 252, 446
 Artistic training, 42, 46
 Augmentation of wages, 136
 Australia, 448, 541, 545
 Austria, 541
 Ayer, E. P., 322, 391, 392

 Baker, E. A., 166, 178, 181, 309, 541, 546
 Baker, Mrs. E. A., 545
 Baquero, Julian, 445
 Basket-making, 48, 122, 141, 316
 Bausch, Jacob, 364
 Bedding, 141
 Belgium, 454, 541, 545
 Belzer, A. H. J., 473, 542
 Berens, Conrad, 385
 Berinstein, Benjamin, 371
 Beteta, Ramón, 119, 393, 481, 543
 Beteta, Señora, 545
 Blaxall, Arthur W., 354, 441, 492, 543
 Bledsoe, J. F., 543
 Blind-deaf, 51, 376, 394, 400
 Blind feeble-minded, 143
 Blind Persons' Act, 312, 323, 330
 Blindness, Definition of, 341
 Boot-repairing, 130, 141, 147
 Borré, Gabrielle, 545
 Borré, Gérard, 149, 427, 454, 541
 Boy Scouts of America, 111, 360
 Brady, Peter P., 545
 Braille, Louis, 41, 226
 Bramhall, Robert I., 543, 546
 Brick-making, 134, 141
 Brown, G. C., 89, 545
 Brush-making, 48, 125
 Bryan, Frank C., 239
 Bulgaria, 459, 541
 Burritt, O. H., 360, 381, 543, 546, 547

 Cafeterias, 172
 Caldwell, A. J., 363, 543
 Campbell, Lady Francis, 545
 Campbell, Mary Dranga, 389, 543, 546, 547
 Canada, 541, 545
 Cane-seating, 124
 Carmer, Dorothy R., 373
 Carpentry, 135
 Carris, Lewis H., 295, 381, 384, 386, 543
 Causes of blindness, 283
 Ceylon, 268
 Chain mats, 128
 Chair-caning, 48, 124, 141
 Chair-making, 123
 Chapman, Tad, 395
 Chapple, B. P., 70, 543, 546
 Character education, 57
 Chiaramonte, Gino, 22, 542
 Chile, 462, 541
 China, 264, 272, 541
 Clark, Harold T., v, 373, 375, 543, 546
 Clergymen, blind, 81
 Clunk, J. F., 166, 178, 371, 372, 541
 Coal-bag making, 128
 Codino, J. Ulises, 541, 546
 Coffin, Helen J., 373, 543
 Coir-mat making, 127
 Coir-yarn matting, 129
 Coleman, L. V., 375
 Colombia, 465, 541
 Commercial occupations, 86
 Concession stands, see
 Stand concessions
 Conjunctivitis, 288
 Conrad, Emma, 373
 Conservation of sight, 298
 Cromwell, William Nelson, v, 418, 423, 434, 531, 533, 534, 536, 543, 546
 Cuba, 541
 Czecho-Slovakia, 541

 Daly, Patrick J., 542
 Danby, George, 119, 140, 153, 377, 542
 Danby, Mrs. George, 545
 Day-Schools, 55
 See also Public school classes for the blind
 DeFrances, Therese, 382
 Delegates to the World Conference, 541
 Delfino, Emma N., 544
 Denmark, 541, 545
 Deportment, 44
 Dolanski, Vladimir, 223, 543
 Dolanski, Mme., 545

 Eagar, W. McG., 322, 389, 417, 427, 432, 433, 435, 440, 531, 534, 542, 546, 547
 Eastman, Linda A., 547
 Edmonds, Harry, 5
 Egypt, 470, 541
 Escobar, Juan, 541
 Elliott, Huger, 374
 Ellis, A. C., 218, 407, 544
 Employment, 166, 333, 342, 403
 Eustis, Dorothy Harrison, 183, 191, 543
 Executive Committee of the World Council, 534
 Exhibits, Committee on, 547

 Fajardo, Pedro, 151, 541
 Farewell message, 535
 Feliu-Hurtado, Luis E., 541
 Finley, John H., 9, 544, 546
 Fisher, Clyde, 375
 Fitch, A. P., 4
 Fendoffs, 129
 Foley, Kate M., 379, 544
 Forbes, R., 71, 310, 387, 542
 Formosa, 271
 Fortune-telling, 275
 Fowle, Luther R., 543
 France, 541, 545
 Frank, Morris, 185
 Fraser, Ian, 16, 323, 371, 425, 430, 542
 Fraser, Mrs. Ian, 545
 French, R. S., 37, 40, 91, 369, 544
 Frick, Kathryn M., 394
 Friedman, Mrs. Samuel D., 111
 Fryer, George B., 264, 280, 361, 365, 541
 Fuchs, Ernest, 277
 Furniture-making, 135, 141, 146

 Gaebler-Knibbe, Lothar, 190, 346, 431, 436, 542
 Games, 44

- Garaway, Mary M. R., 102, 364, 398, 542
 Gas-cylinder covers, 128
 General education, 41, 52, 55
 Germany, 542, 545
 Gill, Crabin, 365
 Glover, Calvin, 294, 309, 321, 351, 354, 355, 357, 544, 546
 Glover, Mrs. Calvin, 392
 Goldthwaite, Lucille A., 208, 544, 546
 Gore, Thomas P., 12
 Grasmann, Paul, 52, 68, 364, 542, 547
 Great Britain, 542, 545
 Greece, 542
 Green, S. M., 544
 Greenwood, Mary Hamar, 545
 Grénade, R., 541
 Griffiths, E. H., 545
 Griffith, Roberta, 392
 Grimberg Villaroel, Abraham, 462
 Grzegorzewska, Marja, 433, 434
 Guide dogs, 183
 Guatemala, 542
 Guests of the World Conference, 545
 Guests of Honor of the World Conference, 545
 Guinot, Paul, 103, 180, 220, 277, 336, 357, 419, 426, 531, 534, 541
 Guinot, Mme. Paul, 545
 Gymnastics, 44
- Hadley, William A., 544, 546
 Hall, Rosetta, 267
 Halliday, W. R., 120, 220, 371, 380, 381, 389, 545
 Halliday, Mrs., 545
 Hanford, Bertha, 392
 Harper, Grace S., 544, 546, 547
 Hashimura, Norikazu, 542
 Hathaway, Winifred, 296, 387
 Haüy, Valentin, 41, 153, 233
 Hayes, Lydia Y., 394, 544
 Hedger, Henry, 68, 179, 356, 362, 377, 389, 420, 448, 541
 Henderson, C. G., 268, 271, 276, 384, 426, 542
 Hernandez, Francisco Luis, 465
 Herodek, Charles, 517, 542
 Hicks, Gordon, 364
 Higher education, 72
 Hill, Norman, 181
 Hoffnung, Olga, 541
 Holland, 473, 542
 Holmes, Walter G., 246, 544
 Home occupations, 317
 Home teaching, 86, 312, 379
 Home visiting, 312
 Home workers, blind, 114
 Hooper, J. T., 366, 369, 372, 390, 425, 544
 Hoover, Herbert, iii, v, 529
 Hospitality, Committee on, 547
 Howe, Samuel Gridley, 394, 396
 Hungary, 517, 542
 Hyman, Henry K., 378
- Ierardi, Francis, 392
 Ignacio Trigueros Association, 251, 484
 Immeln, Herman M., 391, 544
 India, 265, 271, 276, 477, 542
 Indigent Blind Visiting Society, 313
 Industrial accidents, 291, 298
 Industry, blind in, 176
 "Institutionalism," 34
 Interline printing, 231
 International House, 5
 Interpoint printing, 231, 243
 International Association for the Prevention of Blindness, 296
 International Anti-Trachoma League, 297
 International Organization, Committee on, 222, 547
 Introduction, iii
 Invocation, 4
 Irish Free State, 542, 545
- Irwin, Robert B., vi, 240, 301, 417, 419, 425, 426, 428, 432, 434, 435, 534, 544, 546, 547
 Italy, 192, 542, 545
- Japan, 254, 269, 324, 523, 542, 545
 Jarvis, Elsie, 240, 242
 Jenkins, Ruth Lord, 374
 Johnsen, Mary J., 389
 Johnson, Bertha, 382
 Joice, B. S., 544, 546
 Jørgensen, Ernst, 69, 352, 541
 Jørgensen, Mrs. Ernst, 545
- Karterud, Halvdan, 104, 543
 Kattan, Mahmoud Azmy el, 384, 427, 470, 541
 Keane, George, 372
 Keller, Helen A., 10, 11, 21, 241, 394, 545
 Kennedy, Isabel W., 322
 Keratitis, 284
 Kimura, Kingo, 542
 Kimura, Rutaro, 262, 542
 Kindergarten, 35
 Klein, Johann Wilhelm, 183
 Knitting, 131, 141, 316
 Knitting-needle making, 134
 Korea, 267, 271
 Kumagae, Tisutaro, 219, 543
- Larranaga, Esteban, 545
 Lascaridi, Irene, 542
 Latimer, H. Randolph, 90, 385, 544, 546
 Latin-America, 251
 Lawyers, blind, 84
 Leithoff, Gertrud, 545
 Lelièvre, Donatien, 41, 151, 541
 Libraries for the blind, 208, 408
 Libraries on blindness, 198
 Lichtman, Sina, 222
 Lovett, F. R., 150, 153, 386, 429, 430, 542
 Löwenfeld, Berthold, 386
 Lundberg, Alrik, 19, 353, 389, 425, 531, 534, 543, 546, 547
 Lundberg, S., 545
- Mabuchi, A., 545
 McAloney, Thomas S., 544, 546
 McCleary, G. F., 545
 McGirr, Katherine, 395
 Mack, Rebecca, 396
 Mackenzie, Clutha N., 67, 179, 354, 362, 389, 430, 485, 543
 Macy, Anne Sullivan, 394, 545
 Mahaut, M., 157
 Manual training, 62
 Marchal, Andre, 158
 Marketing, 150, 153
 Markham, S. F., 545
 Marston, Sybil, 372
 Marx, Mrs. Morris, 547
 Massage, 87, 193, 256, 523
 Master Institute of United Arts, 222
 Mat-making, 141
 Matthey, B., 545
 Mattress-making, 130, 141
 Maxfield, Kathryn, E., 373
 Mentally defective blind, 143
 Merchán, Augusto, 541
 Mérida Nicolich, Miguel, 190, 282, 384, 494, 531, 534, 543
 Mérida, Señora Vera B. de., 545
 Merivale, Judith A., 312, 379, 382, 542
 Merry, Frieda K., 375
 Mexico, 481, 543, 545
 Meyer, George F., 544
 Meza, Alejandro, 89, 164, 251, 484, 543
 Migel, M. C., v, 6, 418, 423, 434, 531, 534, 535, 544, 546
 Minimum wage, 141
 Ministers, blind, 80
 Montal, Claude, 153

- Morton, H., 545
 Mowatt, G. F., 542, 547
 Moxibustion, 261, 523
 Müller, Hermann, 545
 Murray, W. H., 274
 Museums, 197
 Music, 153, 274, 361, 383, 405
 Musical training, 42, 46, 153, 370
 Musicians, blind, 84, 89, 153, 371
 Mussolini, B., 21
 Myers, Richard, 181, 545
 Myope schools, 299, 303

 Nakamura, Kyotaro, 262, 543
 National Braille Press, 249
 National Society for the Prevention of
 Blindness, 297
 Neary, J. P., 355, 389, 420, 429, 545
 Negri, Marcella de, 545
 Netting, 133, 317
 New Zealand, 485, 543, 545
 Nicolich, Miguel Mérida, see
 Mérida Nicolich, Miguel
 Nicolodi, A., 21, 192, 532, 534, 542, 546,
 547
 Norway, 543, 545
 Novák, Jeroslav, 541

 Occupations for the blind, 121, 141, 166
 "l'Oeil qui Voit," 186
 Organists, blind, 155
 Organizing Committee, 546

 Palestine, 111
 Palmer, Mrs. Eva B., 544, 547
 Pardo Ospina, J. A., 90, 152, 206, 310,
 433, 465, 541
 Pastime occupations, 316
 Paul, Constantin, 543
 Pensions for the blind, 148, 333, 346, 389,
 449
 Perkins Institution Special Reference
 Library, 201
 Permanent Blind Relief War Fund, 210
 Personnel and Program, Committee on,
 546
 Peru, 543
 Physicians, blind, 86
 Piano-tuning, 49, 132, 153, 193, 406
 Placement agents, 169
 Placement, 178, 403, 517
 Poggiolini, Lina, 545
 Poggiolini, Oreste, 22, 437, 542
 Poland, 543, 545
 Polishing, 141
 Political economy, 85
 Pre-school blind child, 25, 317
 Prevention of blindness, 282, 296, 384
 Priests, blind, 80
 Printing for the blind, 230, 239, 251
 Printing Visagraph, see
 Visagraph
 Professions, 72
 Professors, blind, 80
 Psychology of the blind, 104
 Public school classes for the blind, 400

 Ramadanovitch, Velyko, 396, 511, 544
 Rand, Lotta S., 547
 Rau, P. N. V., 69, 152, 278, 426, 436,
 477, 542
 Raverat, George L., 47, 534, 541, 544,
 546, 547
 Raverat, Mme. G. L., 545
 Rea, James, 547
 Reardon, Dennis A., 245, 247
 Recreations, 149, 319, 360
 Reess, Gertrude, 361
 Registration of the blind, 319, 331, 341
 Residential vs. non-residential schools, 55
 Retsler, Ernst, 114, 543
 Richter blocks, 8, 374
 Riddervold, James, 368
 Riddle-making, 146

 Rivera, José, 384, 543
 Rockefeller, John D., v
 Rodenberg, L. W., 364, 383, 544
 Roerich Museum, 222
 Romagnoli, Augusto, 93, 206, 542
 Romagnoli, Coletta Elena, 545
 Romnauldi, Alessandro, 545
 Roumania, 543
 Rovde, K., 545
 Royer, Franklin B., 386
 Ruenzi, A., 391
 Rush-seating, 124
 Russia, 505
 Ryan, Stetson K., 544, 546

 Salmon, Peter J., 376, 544
 Schaffer, Margaret, 500, 532, 534, 543
 School activities, 360
 Schultz, Helen, 394
 Schwerdt, Hermann, 545
 Scouting, see
 Boy Scouts of America
 "The Seeing Eye," 186
 Shah, A. K., 163, 280, 433, 434, 542
 Sheltered shops, 404
 Siam, 271
 Sight-saving classes, 300, 301, 387
 Sinclair, S. Merwyn, 153, 544
 Sennets, 128
 Social organization, 399
 Social welfare, 391
 South Africa, 485, 543
 Spain, 494, 543, 545
 Speight, W. G., 268
 Stach, Karel, 541
 Stand concessions, 171
 Starling, S. W., 121, 369, 380, 430, 542
 Starling, Mrs. S. W., 545
 State and the blind, 323, 336
 Statistics, 341
 Steinberg, W., 542
 Stephanov, Vassil, 459, 541
 Stereotyping, 240
 Sterling, Sara K., 240, 242
 Straits Settlements, 270
 Strehl, Carl, 72, 88, 92, 152, 218, 352,
 389, 532, 534, 542, 546
 Stringer, Thomas, 395
 Sweden, 114, 543, 545
 Swift, Sherman C., 219, 403, 541
 Swift, Mrs. Sherman C., 545
 Switzerland, 500, 543

 Tactual education, 373
 Tailoring, 152
 Tamori, Henry Yoshihiro, 153, 523
 Teachers, blind, 81, 89, 92, 98
 Teachers of the blind, 93, 401
 Technical aids, 233, 407
 Telephone-operating, 50
 Tennis-racket stringing, 133
 Thomas, Philippe, 158
 Thompson, Herbert W., 218, 321, 379,
 392, 439, 541
 Thompson, Mrs. Herbert W., 545
 Tile-making, 134
 Touch, 42
 Trachoma, 287, 298
 Trainor, Rose, 391
 Training School for Teachers of the
 Blind, 94
 Turkey, 543

 U.S.S.R., see
 Russia
 Underwood, J. E., 66, 542
 Union of Counties Associations, 312
 Union Mandarin braille, 274
 United States of America, 543
 Upholstery, 141, 147

 Valentin Haüy Association, 157
 Van Cleve, Edward M., 110, 355, 417,
 433, 544, 546
 Vierne, Louis, 158

- Viktoroff, Vladimir Alexandrovitch, 505
 Villey, Daniel, 545
 Villey, Pierre, 42, 46, 49, 91, 153, 164, 206, 221, 429, 541, 546, 547
 Visagraph, 7
 Vocational counseling, 65
 Vocational guidance, 77
 Vocational training, 42, 48, 52, 62, 147, 367, 402, 517
 Vories, Mrs. Allen L., 547

 Wagner, Edwin, 152, 428, 543
 Wampler, I. S., 372, 544
 Watson, C. R., 384, 541
 Wawryznowski, Michal, 70, 543
 Wayne, Alfred, 240
 Weaving, 135

 Welcome, Formal, 5, 23
 " Addresses of, 5
 " Responses to addresses, 16
 West, James, 373
 White, Herbert H., 377
 Whitfield, Ernest, 38, 164, 221, 370, 542
 Wire-mattress making, 141, 146
 Workshops, 116, 121, 140, 274, 376
 World Council, 238, 417, 433, 529, 534
 Writers, blind, 84
 Wyland, Ray O., 111

 Yankovitch, Radoye, 544
 Yoshimoto, Tadasu, 433, 434, 532, 534
 Yugoslavia, 511, 544

 Záhor, Aleksej, 353, 385, 541



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