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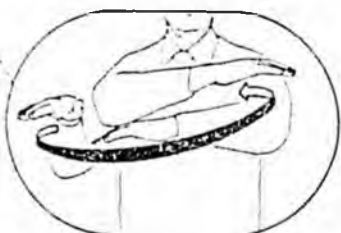
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is



the kingdom,



and



the power,



and



the glory



forever.



Amen.



**TEACHING
ENGLISH
TO THE
DEAF**

SPRING 1978/79
Volume 5 No. 3

*Published by the
Gallaudet College
English Department*

Teaching English to the Deaf

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TEACHING ENGLISH TO THE DEAF — Published three times a year by the Gallaudet College English Department (Chairman: Dr. Daniel C. Nascimento), Editor: Russell Astley, Associate Editor and Circulation Manager: Mimi Thompson Evans. Subscription: \$4.00 a year personal, \$5.00

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A Critique Of The Mainstreaming Of Hearing-Impaired Children

Introduction to the Problems Inherent in Deafness

It is well known by now that the implementation of P.L. 94-142, The Education of All Handicapped Children, which must be fully implemented in pre-school, elementary and secondary grades by September of 1978, has caused serious concern among educators. The purpose of the legislation is to end the isolation of large numbers of disabled children who, prior to its enactment, had been educated apart from the non-handicapped in residential schools, mental institutions, day schools or classes, at home or, in some cases, not at all. Our concern is with deaf children and the implications of the Federal law for them.

Deafness is different from other handicaps in that it is, first of all, an invisible one. There are no crutches, braces or wheelchair in sight to let the observer know that a disability is present. The majority of deaf children look exactly like their peers. If they do wear hearing aids, it is generally—and quite falsely—assumed, as we shall explain below, that they can hear as well as "normal" children.

Second, it is not the inability to hear or speak *per se* that is so devastating to deaf children but, rather, the inability to communicate expressively and receptively with those around them. There is a vast difference between speech and language. The deaf child may be able to see on the teacher's lips and have learned to pronounce adequately such words as

"blackboard" or "number" but, unless there is a conceptual grasp of their actual meaning—a connection between the word and object or concept the teacher is discussing—meaningful communication cannot occur. The words remain just that—words isolated from a context. Placed in such a situation, and in order to please the teacher, the deaf child soon learns to smile, nod, and present an aspect of understanding while not having the slightest idea of what is going on. These responses are generally based on the "body language" of the instructor and represent what the child thinks the teacher wants. Thus, no learning really takes place and, if this "feigning syndrome" is allowed to continue, the disability of deafness becomes a true handicap with serious educational and psychological consequences.

Third, speech is normally learned through imitation of sounds that are spoken by other persons—parents, grandparents, siblings, peers, teachers, neighbors. When this stimulus is lost because of their lack of hearing, deaf children are unable to function within the normal give-and-take of everyday society. As a result, according to Mervin Garretson, "the deaf child tags along as a wall flower, a silent member of the crowd, present and yet absent, a second-class participant with latent leadership abilities undeveloped and dormant without much of

a chance to contribute" (1977, p.20).

If the hearing loss is not discovered early enough or if the parents are unable or unwilling to establish some form of meaningful communication with their children for various reasons, it is not uncommon for them to enter school not even knowing their names.

Because they have no speech models to imitate through lack of sound perception, it quite naturally follows that the children, themselves, may be unable to produce intelligible words. It is for this reason that the erroneous and degrading expressions "deaf and dumb," "dummy" and "deaf-mute" came into use. It is true that deaf children will generally tend to lag behind their hearing peers educationally and in educability. This, however, is based on a purely physical cause, and it must be stressed that in the case of the deaf, as in several other learning disabilities, educational retardation does not automatically equal intellectual retardation. As Mindel & Vernon state in *They Grow in Silence*:

Now, with proper intelligence tests, it has been conclusively demonstrated by over fifty independent studies that deaf and hard of hearing people have essentially the same distribution of intelligence as the general public All the available evidence demonstrates that there is no direct relationship between hearing loss and intelligence

Another and perhaps more sophisticated fallacy is that deaf and hard of hearing people are less capable of abstract thought. Research on the relationship of language to thought processes shows clearly that capacity for abstract thought is no different among deaf people than among the normally hearing. This point is best illustrated by the large number of deaf mathematicians (1971, p.87).

However, more often than not, even with the special and intensive schooling offered in residential and day schools, the lack of adequate sound stimulus means that the average deaf high school graduates are generally educationally retarded to such a degree that they can read on only a third grade level and their gram-

mar is equally impaired. There are, of course, exceptions to this situation but it takes a phenomenal effort on the part of a profoundly deaf individual to achieve educational success.

Since they lack normal voice inflection, serious misunderstanding of the deaf often results and can cause someone who hears to look at them askance and, perhaps, avoid them as being "peculiar." Apart from their being viewed as social pariahs, this difficulty with intonation can also produce another form of profound psychological blow to deaf students who are in an integrated classroom, as the following example illustrates:

Jim, a deaf professional, has this to say: "It never entered my mind in high school that my deafness might be a legitimate reason for being excused from some activities which I could not reasonably be expected to perform adequately.

"In my junior year of high school, public speaking was a requirement. For a semester, I went through the exercises with my class of hearing students. Toward the end of the semester, class evaluation was part of the speechmaking. Until that time, I had been getting B's for every speech and felt pretty good about it.

"After the speech I had to make for class evaluation, the teacher asked for comments. There was total silence, so she prodded the class to say something. Finally, after several awkward minutes, one guy raised his hand. 'I'm sorry, but I can't make any constructive comments because I can't understand you. In fact, I have never been able to understand any of your speeches.'

"Since that time I have never made a speech before a group of people. And I never will" (Horton, 1977, p.10).

There are many degrees of hearing impairment, varying from the hard of hearing to the profoundly deaf. The classification is determined mainly through the use of an electric audiometer which measures hearing. The sound perceived is expressed in decibels. Although hearing dysfunction is sometimes first defined by audiologists and hearing aid dealers, their

knowledge of the field is limited and it is not only strongly suggested but has become mandated by law in several states that a person with a suspected loss should first be examined by a physician. Both otologists and otolaryngologists have medical degrees and can diagnose, treat and perform surgery on ears (Rosenthal, 1975, p. 43). An audiologist, with a Master's or Ph.D. degree in hearing and speech therapy, can determine the extent of the loss and teach rehabilitation techniques, as well as give advice concerning the specific kind and make of hearing aid best suited to the loss. He or she cannot medically treat the condition, if it is curable—nor can the hearing aid dealer, whose primary purpose is to sell aids.

The average hearing person tends to think of and use the terms "deaf" and "deafness" with reference to any child or adult who has difficulty hearing. It is felt that the acoustic privation is total. Unfortunately, this blanket designation is incorrect and misleading: There are actually two different categories of loss which can be used to describe hearing impairment. These are "deaf" and "hard of hearing." It is vitally important to recognize the dichotomy, especially for purposes of rehabilitation and education. As Newby explains, the difference is determined as follows:

In planning a rehabilitative program for adults, or an educational program for children, it is necessary to make a distinction between the "deaf" and the "hard-of-hearing." In the mind of the layman, "deaf" means "completely without hearing." Actually, there are very few individuals whose auditory mechanism is completely dead. Most persons educationally classified as deaf have some shreds [sic] of hearing remaining, that is, some level of hearing that is demonstrable on an audiometric test. It is the *usefulness* of this residual hearing which determines whether a person is deaf or hard-of-hearing (1972, p. 306).

The two categories are defined as follows:

1. *Hard of hearing.* This represents a slight loss of sensitivity to sound, the degree varying with each individual.

Hearing remains functional with or without the use of a hearing aid.

2. *Deafness.* In this case, there is a hearing loss severe enough so that an understanding of conversational speech is not possible in most situations either with or without an aid.

A further distinction must be made in the type of hearing impairment in its physiological aspects. There are two main divisions:

1. *Sensorineural loss.* This is commonly known as "nerve deafness" since it is caused by destruction of the nerve cells in the cochlea or inner ear. It is characterized by the inability to discriminate one sound or word from another and is, by far, the most common type of loss. Unfortunately, there is presently no cure for it.

2. *Conductive loss.* A conductive loss generally produces a mild impairment which is due to the failure of normal physical conduction of sound to the cochlea. The nerve fibers, themselves, within the inner ear are generally normal. Those diagnosed as "hard of hearing" are most often characterized by this type. It is frequently surgically correctible if it is discovered early enough.

The issue is further complicated by whether or not the person is prelingually or postlingually hearing impaired:

1. *Prelingual deafness.* Individuals born with a hearing loss fit into this category. They are also known as "congenitally deaf." In a small percentage of cases, the deafness is hereditary. It is more often caused by maternal illness such as rubella, or by Rh incompatibility, some antibiotics (the mycin group), and birth trauma such as prematurity or prolonged labor. In addition, premature or very young infants are especially susceptible to meningitis and damage to hearing often occurs before a specific diagnosis can be made and medication administered since they cannot indicate the source of their malaise.

2. *Postlingual or adventitiously acquired deafness.* This occurs after birth

through infectious diseases such as meningitis or encephalitis later in life, chronic respiratory infection and/or allergy, and injuries such as that sustained in an automobile accident, war or a fall, for example. It can also be noise induced.

A person who is adventitiously or postlingually deaf has lost his or her hearing *after* being exposed to language and speech. The important factor here, of course, is the age at which the loss occurs since, if language has already been well imprinted on the child's mind, there is far less learning difficulty.

Before the discovery of antibiotics, thirty to forty percent of deaf children lost their hearing through infectious disease after being exposed to language. Presently, with compulsory vaccination and improved methods of treating illness medically before hearing loss can occur, prelingually deafened children now represent ninety-five percent of those so afflicted (Vernon, 1970, p. 106). Since these children have never heard speech, this fact has vital implications in terms of their communicative abilities or, rather, their lack of them. Prelingually deafened children do not readily hear or understand speech which they can imitate, thereby providing them with a vocabulary to achieve normal contact with the world around them. This, obviously, poses enormous problems in all areas of living.

Hearing aids can be, and are, used in an attempt to overcome the resulting communication gap, since even the most profoundly deaf individuals do have some residual hearing. It is very rare for a person to be totally deaf, as explained above. However, contrary to popular belief, the use of an aid does not restore hearing in the sense that eyeglasses can correct defective vision to normal. All that the device is able to do is increase the individual's sensitivity to, or awareness of, sound. They are most successfully used by children and adults who have been diagnosed as "hard of hearing" and/or have conductive losses. For those with sensorineural deafness (who represent the majority of the hearing impaired population), the fact remains that the deafness which has been caused by the destruction of nerve cells in the

inner ear still exists and no amount of amplification will "cure" it by restoring deadened nerves. Thus, all that a hearing aid can be expected to do for a child with nerve deafness is to increase his or her sensitivity to whatever sound the aid amplifies, and that sound is generally quite distorted because of the nature of sensorineural loss. It will, by no means, improve the *quality* or *clarity* of sound or restore it to normal. A further fact to consider is that "there is no evidence to substantiate the notion that sound awareness contributes to the development of a speaking vocabulary or linguistic competence. In no instance will sound awareness insure that a deaf child will have normal speech" (Mindel & Vernon, 1971, p. 54).

Another common myth is that of emphasis on lipreading or "speech-reading," as it is called today, as the ultimate solution for the problems of deaf children and adventitiously deafened adults, since it is felt that learning it will bring them closer to the way communication is handled in the hearing or "normal" world. It is essential that every effort be made for the deafened individual to be exposed to speech-reading, both receptively and expressively, since communication is the basis of learning. However, children—and adults—differ in their abilities to benefit from such exposure. The problems lie in several areas.

First, English language structure and pronunciation are among the most difficult in the world to learn. Second, only twenty to thirty percent of English words are visible on the lips. Third, forty to sixty percent of English words are "homophonous." That is, they look the same to the speechreader, but they are pronounced differently. As an illustration, "bat," "mutt," and "pet" look exactly alike to a deaf person attempting to understand what someone is saying by following lip movements. But, which word is meant? Unless the context is clear, the deaf child and adult are literally left in the dark. Mindel & Vernon state the fact that "even the best speech readers in a one-to-one situation were found to understand only twenty-six percent of what was said. Many bright deaf indi-

viduals grasp less than five percent" (1971, p. 96).

The above factors not only cause frustration in understanding, but also a concomitant difficulty in expression. If the prelingually deafened child has never heard the words pronounced, how can he or she be expected to repeat them correct through imitation and in a normally inflected voice?

Since these children cannot communicate they are, in effect, isolated in all areas of endeavor. Because lack of hearing represents far more than the inability to perceive sound, special education is a necessity virtually from the minute the hearing loss is discovered and evaluated. The earlier this is done, the better. It should not wait until the child reaches school age because communication is the *sine qua non* of meaningful existence.

Isolation from others is perhaps one of man's greatest concerns. No one can exist in a vacuum. Our capacity to communicate meaningfully with others is inextricably tied to our capacities for survival. A diminished capacity renders one compromised; a non-existent capacity to communicate renders one impotent (Mindel & Vernon, 1971, p. 13).

As they have been in the past in residential and day schools for the deaf as well as in a few scattered public schools, special education personnel and facilities must continue to be available to aid these children when they are mainstreamed. At present, the average pre-school, elementary and secondary school are not equipped to meet these needs, although an encouraging start has been made. However, it is most likely that, even under optimum conditions, only a few hearing impaired students—particularly those classified as "hard of hearing"—will be able to participate in the "advantages" offered by closer contact with their hearing peers. The problem lies in the fact that, although they are physically present, intellectually and socially they will not be able to compete with their classmates who have unimpeded hearing (and this category not only includes "normal" students but

also those with orthopedic, visual or other physical disabilities whose hearing is still intact) simply because they cannot hear the teacher, their classmates, everyday background noises, educational films, and the social interchange constantly occurring among the hearing children as they discuss, for example, their reactions to a television program watched and heard the night before. Thus, far from being "the least restrictive environment" for deaf children, the public school may pose even greater problems and isolate them even further. As Birch has stated, if social and emotional benefits are lacking, "proximity is not integration" (1975).

The question, then, is how the problem is to be handled since mainstreaming is now mandated by law. For the majority of deaf children, unfortunately, integration cannot be successfully accomplished. The crux of the matter is that it all depends on the individual child and his education and psychological well-being. Since the purpose of P.L.94-142 is to end the isolation of handicapped children, each deaf child must be evaluated individually in order to determine if this will be achieved rather than its opposite—further isolation—and prove to be a realistic goal for that particular student. Attention to this is of utmost importance. Further, an individual education program (IEP) must be prepared jointly through cooperation of both the school and the parents of the hearing impaired child being considered for mainstreaming. As for all disabled students, this must outline the current level of achievement, the goals expected to be attained, the educational services which will be provided and the method(s) used in evaluating the student. Such profiles must be drawn up yearly so that the child can be supported within an adequate instructional framework and his or her progress meticulously followed since the hearing impaired student needs to be defined "in terms of the extent to which his impaired ability to communicate by speech and hearing affects his psychological and educational potential" (Brill, 1974, p. 102).

In general, it will be found that it is hard of hearing rather than deaf children who will most likely be the

ones to derive the greatest benefit from integration. Their impairments are generally mild enough for them to communicate in a "normal" environment without too much difficulty. The profoundly deaf child or the multiply-handicapped deaf child will simply be placed at too great a disadvantage in such a milieu and will be unable to cope with its complexities. The following letter written by James Tucker when he was a senior at the Austine School for the Deaf illustrates what happens even to the brightest and most highly motivated deaf student:

I started my formal education at the Beverly School for the Deaf in Beverly, Mass. in 1963 at the age of four. During my three years there I had progressed in speech, language and vocabulary skills to a level that the school and its clinical psychologist had decided, with my parents' consent, to integrate me into public school on a trial basis. After a lengthy discussion, they had agreed to put me into a second grade which was my age level, instead of fourth grade which was my reading level, because they didn't want to give me pressure being with normal kids two years older than I was.

In the fall of 1966 at the age of seven, I enrolled in a second grade class of 35 kids. I didn't have too much trouble with my elementary education for the next five years, for most of my classmates were my neighborhood friends, and my teachers almost always assigned my class group and manual activities which I did participate in enthusiastically.

After five satisfactory years, I enrolled in a junior high school, where for the first time in my life, the teachers started to give lectures and my classes would have discussions, debates, or exchange ideas verbally. I could lip-read and understand the teacher for at least ten minutes, but for the entire class time my eyeballs would just roll out to the floor. And I was totally lost when my class had group conversations

Later, my brief nightmare was soothed when I was not required to pay attention to my teachers. Instead,

I could read the textbooks during the class time because they told me that all they talked about was from those books. In my last year in junior high school (eighth grade) I was able to maintain respectable grades, but I was completely isolated from my classes. This greatly disturbed me deep down within myself.

As I was approaching my high school years, I said "no way!" to my hometown high school, because it was just like a school factory where kids just come and go, and the teachers have an average of 150 students on their roll books. Then my family, who supported me one-hundred percent, and I started a long search for a high school where I could participate and understand conversations with my teachers and classmates, and have my thoughts and feelings heard.

I had a dark picture of my future . . . until my parents took me to The Austine School for a visit I saw what I always longed for; the students of my kind . . . freely conversed with themselves and with their teacher about different topics that they chose to discuss. On the very same day, I decided on Austine where I could pursue a high school diploma. This decision was the toughest one in my life, for it would change my life style completely, but I wanted to be "involved," the magic word in my vocabulary

Today, if any concerned parent of a deaf child asked me if it would be wise to put their child into public school, I would say "NO" unless that child is exceptionally bright. The child could profit from group and manual activities during the elementary years; but he will be forcibly isolated during the junior high and high school years when the teachers start to lecture and the students begin to have discussions. No proficient deaf person has the stamina to maintain his speech and lipreading skills high six hours of school time every day. So, to me it is cruel and tragic to put a deaf student through high school, where he cannot become involved at all. To be a fulfilled being, a deaf student must attend a school where

he can be involved with and most of all understand his peers, his teachers, and the life around him (1976, pp. 356-58).

Program Development

In 1974, Katz, Mathis & Merrill in *The Deaf Child in the Public Schools* listed several different types of educational programs then prevalent for the hearing impaired in public schools:

Various options in instructional programs may include (1) placement in a regular classroom with preferential seating and the services of a speech therapist; (2) placement in a "resource room" with a resource teacher and partial integration in the regular classroom; (3) placement in a special class for "communicative disorders" (which combines the deaf and hard-of-hearing with pupils who demonstrate language disorders not connected with hearing loss; (4) placement in a special class for deaf children; and (5) placement in a day school where the entire instructional program is designed exclusively for deaf children (p. 10).

More recently, in the attempt to begin full implementation of P.L. 94-142, two of these initial approaches to mainstreaming the hearing impaired child appear to have gained ascendancy. Both present difficulties. One is to begin the program by still retaining physical segregation of the children in a separate classroom with their own specially trained teachers, interpreters, aides and equipment. The "integration" occurs at lunchtime when all the students eat together in the same lunchroom (but most often sit at separate tables), in Physical Education classes and in Art classes, where interpreters are lacking more frequently than not. Unless there is a concerted on-going effort toward actual integration of the two groups in these situations through use of interpreters and the presence of specially trained personnel, along with the regular classroom teachers, they all remain situations of "proximity without integration," to paraphrase Birch. It becomes mainstreaming in name only and "isolation" is still the key word in operation.

The second approach is total integration in one classroom from the beginning. This, too, is doomed to failure academically and socially unless the above rules are also made to apply here—the use of equipment and individuals trained to work with deaf children, as well as *informed* regular classroom teachers who are alert to and have empathy with the problems involved. As one parent says in a recent *New York Times Magazine* article:

- The new integration is the same old dumping. The teacher still turns her back and writes on the board, talking as she does [thus preventing speech-reading]. The same old visual aids, shown in the dark where no sign [language] can be seen . . . (Greenberg & Doolittle, 1977, p. 82).

The article goes on to point out that after school hours, the loneliness only grows greater:

Oh yes, on the surface there is communication, a greeting when he comes in—a sign or two that the kids learned or picked up from him. It isn't enough for real social contact; it's strictly a token thing. He's a curiosity (p. 82).

However, since mainstreaming is now an unavoidable fact, it is possible that the tragedies like the above can be circumvented by careful planning and by choosing those students most likely to benefit from the program.

Since, as we have repeatedly mentioned, the problem is essentially one of isolation through lack of communication, the means to overcome this must be provided if the program which is instituted is to achieve any degree of success. This is the reason why highly trained, accredited interpreters are essential. They represent the hearing impaired child's key to the "normal" world. In a totally integrated room or in individual integrated classes, they "translate" what is being verbally expressed by the regular teacher into a visual language. The currently most successful and recommended method of accomplishing this is through the use of "Total Communication"(TC) which is defined as follows:

Total communication is a theory of communication that embraces the concepts of oralism (the use of speech and speechreading only) and manualism (fingerspelling and/or the language of signs) into a single and all-inclusive procedure of communication. It stresses the right of the teacher and the deaf child to use *all* forms of communication to develop language competencies, both receptive and expressive. These forms include child-devised gestures, amplification, speech, lip-reading, fingerspelling, formal signs, reading and writing. Proponents of this theory, pointing to the highly individualized needs and responses of deaf children, maintain that it provides the greatest opportunity for every deaf child to develop his maximum potential in language acquisition and speech development (Katz, Mathis & Marrill, 1974, p. 16).

Thus, by rendering speech visible by using all possible methods, the interpreter (and special education teacher) eliminate James Tucker's "prolapsed eyeball" phenomenon with its consequent physical and emotional exhaustion, *and* offer an opportunity for the child's comprehension of the classroom material to increase one hundredfold.

According to Bitter, Johnston & Sorensen:

It appears that the size of the program and its financial base dictate to a great extent how many people will be employed to support the handicapped child. State law and organization also play an important role here, as do district and school organization patterns.

Each administrator must ascertain the needs of the child and place them in a perspective with his own limitations. His goal should be to fulfill the child's needs in the best way possible while remaining within his own financial and administrative restrictions

The responsibility rests with the administrator, then, to think very seriously about his system and the needs of the children, the parents and the teachers. He must delimit those needs, decide which of those needs

can, in fact, be fulfilled by personnel, and then develop a task analysis to accomplish them: A plan is essential for several reasons, and it does not require much more to develop one than a great deal of thought, some consultation with present staff and firm direction. A plan is valuable because:

- (1) It avoids duplication of service.
- (2) It forestalls gaps in communicative chains.
- (3) It clearly defines responsibility of personnel.
- (4) It assures smooth transition for a child from one placement to another (1973, p. 33).

In addition to the need for specialized personnel, regular teachers and administrators must be introduced to and helped to understand deafness, its ramifications, and how to deal with it. DeSalle & Ptasnik state that "at all levels, pre-school, elementary, and secondary, the principal definitely is the key person to establish a good rapport between regular and special teachers and students in the course of mainstreaming" (1976, p. 534). Thus, a strong supportive attitude on his or her part is essential before any progress can be made.

Second, it is important to plan for the introduction of materials to help the staff in understanding the needs of hearing impaired students. This can be done through the use of pamphlets or other printed material, lectures, records, films and filmstrips, tapes, videotapes, demonstrations, visits to classrooms, and private conferences. Sources of materials include, but are not limited to, the following:

Reprints:

1. The Alexander Graham Bell Association, 1537 35th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007.
2. The National Association of the Deaf, 814 Thayer Avenue, Silver Spring, Maryland 20910.
3. The National Association of Hearing and Speech Agencies, 919 18th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007.
4. Assistant Public Printer (Superintendent of Documents), United

States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. *Learning to Talk: Speech, Hearing and Language Problems in the Preschool Child*. Reprinted 1975, 48 pp.

Washington Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20016.

4. Public Service Programs, Gallaudet College, 7th and Florida Avenues, N.E., Washington, D.C. 20002.

Records:

1. Zenith Radio Corporation, 1900 N. Austin Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60639. *Getting Through*.
2. Stowe, Gordon N. and Associates, P.O. Box 233-A, Northbrook, 60062. *How They Hear*.

Films and Filmstrips:

1. Beltone Electronics Corporation, Beltone Building, 4201 West Victoria Street, Chicago, Illinois 60646. *How We Hear*. Also, *Life-line to the World of Sound*. (14 minute film)
2. University of Tennessee, Southeastern Regional Media Center for the Deaf, Knoxville, Tennessee 37916. *Patchwork*. (Sound film-strip)
3. Maico Film Library (free through local dealers and rented from other sources. *You and Your Ears*. (Jiminy Cricket animated film)
4. University of Utah, Educational Media Center, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112, and other sources. *Lisa, Pay Attention*.

Additional sources of film and other media include the following:

1. Regional Media Centers. Ad-Special Education IMC/RMC Network, Network Office, 1499 S. Jefferson Davis Highway, Suite 900, Arlington, Virginia 22202.
2. John Tracy Clinic, 806 W. Adams Blvd., Los Angeles, California 90007.
3. Media Services and Captioned Films for the Deaf. Educational Media Distribution Center,

It is also possible to obtain slides, overhead transparencies, tapes and videotapes from local sources since they were made to fulfill the specifications of an individual district (Bitter, Johnston & Sorensen, p. 38).

Parents of non-handicapped children can also benefit through the use of the above media in helping to prepare themselves and their children for the introduction of the hearing impaired into public schools.

In addition to the materials mentioned above, counseling services for educators are available from a wide variety of sources including: teachers of the deaf, special education directors, psychologists and counselors specializing in deafness, resource personnel, audiologists, social workers familiar with deafness and, for the parents of hearing handicapped children in particular: Early Education Services, counseling services, parent coordinators and home-school coordinators (Bitter, Johnston & Sorensen, p. 62). The use of such professionals will vary according to the program being designed.

The educational services to be provided must be highly specialized and geared specifically to aiding hearing impaired children. For example, a teacher trained to work with the mentally retarded or the aphasic will not have the necessary qualifications and expertise to teach a deaf or hard of hearing child. He or she must be a graduate of an accredited program in Special Education of the Deaf given at a college or university which, itself, has accreditation on a regional basis. Further, the teacher education program must meet the standards of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education.

In developing the public school program, the professional and ancillary staff should, ultimately, consist of as many as possible of the individuals and

resources listed below, keeping in mind that it must be planned according to the relevant needs of the school or district, as well as being aware of the priorities and cost factors involved. The principal or other administrator in charge must remember, as stated above by Bitter, Johnson & Sorensen that "his goal should be to fulfill the *child's* needs in the best way possible while remaining within his own financial and administrative restrictions." They further assert that "he should not attempt to maintain a certain predetermined number of ancillary personnel or to provide a person to fill every job description arbitrarily designed by an outside agency" (p. 33).

Personnel Needed

1. *Teachers:* Teachers, of course, are the most essential ingredient for the functioning of the special education program, with the exception of interpreters. They must have a minimum of a Bachelor's degree and must be certified by the Council on Education for the Deaf which formulates standards for certification of teachers of the hearing impaired. They must also be members of the American Instructors of the Deaf. In addition, they must have had appropriate teaching experience with the hearing handicapped, be proficient in using sign language and fingerspelling, and have a thorough understanding of deafness and the deaf child. This, as well as all other categories, with the exception of speech therapists and interpreters can, and should, include professional deaf personnel. These latter individuals have a naturally greater comprehension of the difficulties inherent in deafness and they will also perform the very important function of serving as successful role models for their hearing handicapped students.

2. *Counselors and Psychologists:* Counselors and psychologists must have, as a minimum, a Master's degree in psychology or counseling with emphasis on working with the deaf, and be graduates of accredited programs. They may be either hearing or acoustically impaired. They must be proficient in

manual communication, understand deafness *per se* and as it relates to the deaf child. Because of the nature of their work, they must be of exceptional moral character, integrity and maturity.

3. *Interpreters:* Interpreters are essential for the successful integration of hearing impaired students into regular classrooms. According to Brasel's specifications in *Interpreting for Deaf People* (1965, pp. 111-112), the interpreter must be highly proficient in the language of signs and fingerspelling and be accredited by the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID). He or she must be:

- A. Fully qualified and experienced in:
 1. Translating and reverse translating [situations in which the speaker is quoted verbatim].
 2. Interpreting and reverse interpreting [includes the use of paraphrasing and defining rather than using the exact words of the speaker in order to explain what is being said].
 3. Simultaneous interpreting and translating.
 4. Simultaneous delivery, both receptive and expressive.
 5. Ability to translate and interpret in all areas
- B. Broad knowledge of all levels of deaf people, the problems encountered and techniques needed in interpreting for each level.
- C. Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) certification and supplementary local endorsements.
- D. Some teaching experience in basic and advanced manual communication classes.
 1. Knowledge of educational procedures.
 2. Literate and able to express himself well.

Above all, interpreters must be versatile, being able to adapt to varying situations as they arise in different classes, since they, as well as the teacher, perform on the instructional level. They must be skilled in explaining abstract concepts

in mathematics or giving instructions in a typing class (Pfetzing, 1974, p. 120).

Even though an interpreter can't be expected to be knowledgeable in every area, it is necessary that [he or] she learn and understand the material as it is presented to the students, in order to answer any questions that may arise. Interpreting the lecture or instructions given by the teacher for a class is only the beginning of this job. Unfortunately, the deaf students' language deprivation may cause problems in comprehension. Therefore, the interpreter must constantly reinforce the unfamiliar language and new learning concepts the students have been exposed to by repetition and questioning. Often this means working with students in a one-to-one tutoring situation, or rewriting into simpler language the information they are required to learn

In summary, this job requires a person who can interpret, tutor, teach and handle clerical duties. But far more important than any of these, they must be genuinely interested in the welfare of the children they are working with (pp. 120-121).

4. Interpreter Aides or Teacher Aides: In order to alleviate some of the burden placed on interpreters, as soon as the opportunity arises and/or funds are available, it is essential to hire aides to perform some of the peripheral duties outlined above, such as clerical work or tutoring. This will free the interpreters for more professional use of their time and skills. The aides, too, should be able to use Total Communication, hold a Bachelor's degree in Special Education of the Deaf and Hearing Impaired from an accredited program or be studying for one. This is an ideal position for a college student in a teacher training program. Serious consideration should be given to placing deaf as well as hearing persons in this position.

5. Reading Specialists: It is essential to develop a concentrated reading program or clinic for these children since difficulty in this area—an essential aspect of communication—constitutes one of the

most urgent problems today in the education of the hearing impaired. The necessary personnel requirements in this category are the same as those outlined above for teachers, with the addition of specialized training in the problems of teaching reading to the deaf and hard of hearing. Again, it is essential for the reading specialist to have had prior experience in reading instruction for students with this particular handicap as well as be thoroughly conversant with the language of signs and finger-spelling.

6. Speech Therapists: A speech therapist should, at the minimum, possess a Bachelor's degree; ideally, a Master's. He or she must have attended a college or university with a speech therapy curriculum either meeting or exceeding the standards set by the American Speech and Hearing Association, and must have participated in a supervised clinical practicum for a specified number of hours with both deaf and hard of hearing children as well as be proficient in Total Communication. The presence of the therapist is essential in the individual school or district in order to provide special auditory training and speechreading on a continuing basis.

7. Audiologists: The speech therapist can, in some situations also be the audiologist but, generally, the two perform different functions, the former being expert in language and speech skills and in offering help in the use of residual hearing. The audiologist must be adept in administering hearing tests through the use of sophisticated equipment (e.g., the audiometer and other devices), be able to test a student's hearing aid for adequate functioning, check hearing aid earmolds for correct fit, and recommend trial usage of one or two different makes or models of aids in order to determine the one which the hearing impaired child can use to best advantage, if such action is necessary. He or she must also have had prior training with the hearing impaired and know sign language and finger-spelling. Audiologists are also responsible for screening the hearing of the entire

school or school district population at periodic intervals. Thus, their function is not only limited to the acoustically handicapped.

8. *Other Supporting Services:*

a. *Classes in Manual Communication:* Classes offered in sign language and fingerspelling must be planned for on both the beginning and intermediate levels in order to reinforce the speech therapist's work. To acquaint hearing students with signs as a means of communication, the course(s) can be offered by the school system as an elective given for credit. Regular classroom teachers should be strongly encouraged and motivated (perhaps by being given academic credit on the college level) to attend the classes also. In addition, it must be kept in mind that some of the hearing impaired children will not have been previously exposed to the language of signs and the manual alphabet. Thus, the classes will perform a threefold function. Both beginning and intermediate levels can be taught by either qualified special education teachers or interpreters.

b. *The Resource or Media Room:* The Resource Room is an essential part of the education of hearing impaired children. Since these students are *visually* oriented rather than *aurally* (even with the use of hearing aids), sufficient material must be made available to them to offer stimulation through the use of sight. It must not be forgotten that they are dependent on *seeing* what other people hear.

What could normally be conjured up with visual images in his mind by a hearing child as a result of oral explanation by the teacher must be shown the deaf child for proper perception, reaction and integration. Transparencies, films, filmstrips, pictures, and other teaching aids are therefore invaluable to the instructional program for deaf children. Teaching machines for various subjects can foster creative thinking and independent learning which will help offset what, because of hearing loss, the child has not learned spontaneously in the process of growth (Katz, Mathis & Merrill, 1974, p. 55).

c. Each school or district will, in addition, undoubtedly soon discover that adjunct services are necessary. No blanket statement concerning what is needed can be made since the decisions will have to be forthcoming on a local basis. Some personnel are already present such as the school nurse, the social worker and the pediatric medical adviser. Another ready source of aid that should not be ignored—and which is free for the asking—is the local deaf community itself. The members will prove to be an invaluable mine of information concerning both the positive and negative aspects of integration and the relevant areas to stress in structuring the school program. Contact with deaf community leaders can easily be made through each state's Council of Organizations Serving the Deaf, its Commission or Office on the Deaf and Hearing Impaired (in the states where they now exist), the Department of Vocational Rehabilitation, or local clubs of the deaf and state associations of the deaf. These organizations are as near as your phone book. Interpreters for meetings between concerned deaf participants and the schools' hearing staff will be provided on request at little or no cost, depending on the state's policies. It cannot be stressed strongly enough that it is *most* essential to obtain input from the deaf community and to retain one or more hearing impaired persons on an unpaid advisory status. Not to do so would be comparable to preparing a program in Black Studies without inviting any members of the Black community to attend the meetings. As Katz, Mathis & Merrill state:

Supporting services encourage the development of the whole child, strengthen the work or classroom teachers, and promote close cooperation between school and home. Whether an individual need is physical, intellectual, or social, there should be professional [and other] personnel available for diagnostic, preventive, remedial assistance (1974, p. 61).

And who can be of more preventive and remedial assistance than the deaf individual who has already "been there?"

d. *Administrators of Education for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing:* Another position strongly advised is that of Administrator of Education for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing. This person would have jurisdiction over pre-school, elementary and secondary levels. He or she would provide the program with administrative stability and would enable it to progress more consistently throughout all three educational levels as well as offer the hearing impaired a ready advocate. It is essential that the coordinator function on the same administrative level as the school principal in order to facilitate the acceptance of his or her decisions, suggestions, etc., by both the regular and special administrative and teaching staff (DeSalle & Ptasnik, 1976, p. 534). It is strongly recommended that the person hired for this position be deaf or hard of hearing.

e. *Liaison Persons:* The addition of a liaison person to act as an intermediary between the regular and special education staff should also be considered. The individual in this position should be a professional with a knowledge of both worlds—the deaf and the hearing—and act as a bridge between special education classes and regular classes. This position, as the one above, can also be filled by a deaf as well as a hearing person.

Conclusion

In summary, the mainstreaming of deaf children poses greater problems than at first appear on the surface. The biggest obstacle to overcome is the gap caused by communicative dysfunction. Primary attention must be given to this. Second, administrators are faced with a lack of funds to implement the very specialized personnel and equipment needed to carry this out. These, however, can be added

gradually on a priority basis as monies are made available. Third, regular teachers are, for various reasons, often reluctant to participate in the program. Fortunately, this can be overcome through strong support from administrators, particularly the school principal, whose backing is vital. Personnel can be hired to act as liaison between the two groups. Adequate advance preparation of parents, regular classroom teachers and their hearing students can be accomplished by use of the various media (films, pamphlets, etc.) listed above. Leaders of the deaf community are most willing to act as sources of information concerning deafness and should be consulted. Finally, even with an all-out effort on everyone's part, it is important to keep constantly in mind that, except for those very few profoundly deaf students (like James Tucker) who are exceptionally well motivated and generally of superior intellect, the children who will benefit most from integration are the hard of hearing since, for them, the communicative obstacles are not quite so great.

It must also be remembered that, on the whole, mainstreaming is still in an experimental stage and it is well to tread cautiously until its worth for the hearing impaired has been proven. As Taras B. Denis points out: "Lest we forget, mainstreaming is little more than a theory, however well-meaning its principles The point [is that] education is *not* a science and is vulnerable . . ." (1978, p. 10).

For any program to succeed, the most important factor is sensitive understanding of the hearing impaired students themselves and their problems since they are, after all, the subject of this experiment in education, and their success or failure in life will depend on its adequacy to fulfill their needs.

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Acknowledgement

Grateful acknowledgement is made to Sally H. McCrary who did some research assistance in planning and organizing my presentation.

Chronology

- 355 B.C. — Aristotle says those "born deaf become senseless and incapable of reason."
- 721 — St. Bede writes about St. John of Beverly (d. 721) teaching a deaf-mute to speak.
- 1485 ca. — Rudolphus Agricola (1443-1485) writes about a deaf-mute who learns to read and write (1520-1584).
- 1500 ca. — Girolamo Cardano (1501-1576) is the first physician to recognize the ability of the deaf to reason.
Juan F. X. Navaretta (1525-1579) called El Mudo (the mute) serves as painter for Philip II of Spain.
Joachin Dubellay (1522-1560), a deaf poet, publishes *Hymn to Deafness*.
- 1550 ca. — Pedro Ponce de Leon begins teaching the deaf.
- 1575 ca. — Lasso, a Spanish lawyer, concludes that those who learn to speak are no longer dumb and should have right to progenture.
- 1616 — G. Bonifacio publishes a treatise discussing sign language, *Of The Art Of Signs* (1579-1620).
- 1620 — Juan Pablo Bonet publishes first book on education of the deaf, Madrid, Spain.
- 1644 — John Bulwer (1614-1684) publishes *Chirologia* (The Natural Language of the Hand).
- 1648 — John Bulwer publishes *The Deaf And Dumb Man's Friend*.
- 1653 — John Wallis (1616-1705) publishes *De Loquela* (a method of teaching English and speech).
- 1661 — George Dalgarno of Scotland publishes *Art of Communication*.
- 1662 — Dr. John Wallis teaches D. Whaley to read and write (d. 1806).
- 1680 — George Dalgarno publishes *Deaf and Dumb Man's Tutor*.
- 1693 — DuVerney presents new Swiss resonance theory for hearing.
- 1700 — Johann Ammon (1669-1724) a Swiss medical doctor develops and publishes methods for teaching speech and lipreading to the deaf called *Surdus Laquens*.
- 1755(?) — Samuel Heinicke (1729-1790) establishes first oral school for the deaf in the world in Germany.
- 1755 — Charles Michel Abbe de l'Epée (1712-1789) establishes first free school for the deaf in the world, Paris, France.
- 1760 — Thomas Braidwood opens first school for the deaf in England.
- 1776 — Charles M. A. de l'Epée publishes *Instruction of Deaf and Dumb by Means of Methodical Signs*.
- 1777 — Arnoldi, a German pastor, publishes *Practical Instructions For Teaching Deaf-Mute Persons to Speak and Write*. Arnoldi believed education of the deaf should begin as early as four years.
- 1778(?) — Samuel Heinicke, the "Father of the German Method" (pure oralism), establishes a pure oral school at Leipzig.
- 1780 — Charles Green of Boston becomes one of the earliest deaf Americans to receive formal education overseas in Scotland.
- 1782 — R. A. Sicard (1742-1822) opens a school for deaf at Bordeaux; writes *Theorie Des Signes* (an elaborate dictionary of signs).
- 1784 — Abba Silvestri opens first school for the deaf in Italy in Rome.
- 1789 — Abbe de l'Epée dies.
- 1789(?) — Roch Ambroise Cucurran Sicard (1742-1822) succeeds Abbe de l'Epée.
- 1803 — Francis Green, father of Charles Green, publishes article recommending founding of a school for the deaf in America.
- 1807 — Rev. John Stanford discovers deaf children in New York City almshouse, later attempts to instruct them.
- 1812 — John Braidwood begins teaching private class of deaf children at Bolling Hall in Cobbs, Virginia.
- 1814 — Thomas H. Gallaudet meets Alice Cogswell.
- 1815 — Colonel Bolling opens the short-lived first school for the deaf in America at Cobbs, Virginia, to public.
Thomas H. Gallaudet departs for Europe to seek methods to teach the deaf.
- 1816 — Laurent Clerc returns to America with Thomas H. Gallaudet.
- 1817 — Connecticut Asylum for the Education and Instruction of Deaf and Dumb Persons, the first permanent school for the deaf in America, opens in Hartford on April 15.

- 1818 — New York School for the Deaf (Fanwood) opens.
- 1819 — Clerc marries Elizabeth Boardman. First female teacher employed at the New York School.
- 1820 — School for the Deaf in Philadelphia (Pennsylvania Institution) opens.
- 1822 — American School for the Deaf adds vocational training to curriculum.
- 1823 — Kentucky School for the Deaf opens in Danville and becomes first state-supported school and first school for the deaf west of the Allegheny Mountains.
- 1825 — Central New York Asylum opens in Canajoharie, New York; merges with New York School in 1836.
- 1827 — Colonel Smith's School opens in Tallmadge, Ohio.
- 1829 — Ohio School for the Deaf opens.
- 1830 — Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet resigns as principal of the American Asylum for the Deaf.
Mason Fitch Cogswell (1761-1830) dies; his daughter, Alice, dies a few weeks later.
- 1837 — St. Joseph's School for the Deaf the first Catholic school for the deaf in the United States started in St. Louis, Missouri.
Perkins School for the Blind enrolls Laura Bridgman, one of the first deaf blind persons to be formally educated in U.S.
- 1839 — Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind becomes first school to serve both deaf and blind children.
- 1840 — Sisters of Loretto at the Foot of the Cross in Loretto, Kentucky, accept deaf girls in their school
- 1864 — Melville Bell invents "Visible Speech."
- 1843 — Indiana School for the Deaf opens in Indianapolis.
- 1845 — Tennessee School for the Deaf opens.
North Carolina School for the Deaf opens in Raleigh.
- 1846 — Illinois School for the Deaf opens in Jacksonville.
American Annals of the Deaf begins publication at the American School in Hartford.
Georgia School for the Deaf opens.
- 1849 — South Carolina School for the Deaf opens.
The Deaf-Mute begins publication at the North Carolina School for the Deaf.
- 1850 — Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf holds first meeting at New York School
School for deaf children is started in Clarksville, Arkansas.
- 1851 — Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet dies on September 10.
Missouri School for the Deaf opens in Fulton.
- 1852 — Wisconsin School for the Deaf opens in Delavan.
The Rev. Thomas Gallaudet starts St. Ann's Church for the Deaf in New York City, the first church for the deaf in U.S.
Louisiana State School for the Deaf opens.
Mr. Bartlett's Family School for Young Deaf-Mute Children opens in New York City.
- 1854 — Mississippi School for the Deaf opens in Jackson.
Michigan School for the Deaf opens.
Gallaudet Monument is dedicated in Hartford.
- 1855 — Iowa School for the Deaf opens in Council Bluffs.
- 1856 — Texas School for the Deaf opens in Austin.
J. B. Edwards' school opens in Lexington, Georgia.
P. H. Skinner's School opens in Washington, D.C.
P. H. Skinner's School for the Colored Deaf Children opens in Niagara City, New York.
- 1857 — Columbia Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb (Kendall School) opens in Washington, D.C.
First special teacher of articulation employed by American School for the Deaf.
- 1858 — Alabama Institute for the Deaf opens.
Laurent Clerc retires from teaching at age 73.
- 1859 — St. Mary's School for the Deaf opens in Buffalo, New York.
Home for Young Deaf-Mutes (a shelter for preschool deaf children) opens in New York City; closes in 1862.
- 1860 — California School for the Deaf opens in San Francisco.
- 1861 — Kansas School for the Deaf opens in Baldwin.
Minnesota School for the Deaf opens in Faribault.
- 1864 — Congress authorizes the Board of Directors of the Columbia Institution to grant

- college degrees; President Lincoln signs charter on April 8.
- 1865 — Collegiate division named National Deaf-Mute College.
John Carlin and others organize Clerc Literary Society of the Deaf in Philadelphia.
- 1867 — Lexington School for the Deaf opens in New York City; first pure oral school in the country.
Clarke School for the Deaf, Northampton, Massachusetts opens.
- 1868 — Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf organized at Gallaudet College in Washington, D.C.
Maryland School for the Deaf opens.
Melville Bell lectures about his work of teaching speech to the deaf in the U.S.
Presbyterian Mission Sabbath School becomes first day school for the deaf—later renamed the Pittsburgh School for the Deaf, then the Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf.
- 1869 — Nebraska School for the Deaf opens in Omaha.
Horace Mann School opens in Boston.
North Carolina opens Institution for Colored Deaf and Dumb and Blind children.
St. Joseph's School for the Deaf opens in New York City.
Laurent Clerc dies July 18 at age 83.
- 1870 — West Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind opens in Romney.
Oregon School for the Deaf opens in Salem.
- 1872 — Alexander G. Bell opens speech school for teachers of the deaf in Boston.
Rev. Thomas Gallaudet and others start Church Missions to Deaf-Mutes.
Rev. Thomas Gallaudet founds Home for Aged and Infirm Deaf in New York City.
Maryland School for the Colored Blind and Deaf opens in Baltimore.
- 1874 — First adult education program for the deaf starts in New York City.
Cincinnati Public School for the Deaf opens.
Chicago Day Schools for the Deaf open.
- 1876 — St. John's School for the Deaf opens near Milwaukee.
Bell gets patent for his telephone invention; exhibits it at Philadelphia Exposition that summer.
New England Industrial School for the Deaf-Mutes opens in Beverly, Massachusetts, (later renamed Beverly School).
- 1877 — Knapp School in Baltimore begins admitting deaf students in an integrated program setting.
- 1878 — Gallaudet Day School opens in St. Louis, Missouri.
E. Z. Westervelt introduces Rochester Method at New York School in Rochester.
First International Congress on Education of the Deaf meets in Paris, France.
- 1880 — National Association of the Deaf organizes in Cincinnati, Ohio.
Rochester School begins kindergarten for deaf children.
International Congress on Education of the Deaf meets at Milan, Italy and adopts infamous resolution banning the use of sign language in teaching deaf children.
- 1881 — Tennessee School for Colored Deaf and Dumb children opens in East Knoxville.
- 1883 — The Voice and Hearing School for the Deaf opens in Chicago, becomes one of first to accept deaf children as young as three years old.
Pennsylvania Oral School for the Deaf opens in Scranton.
- 1884 — Ephpheta Catholic School for the Deaf opens in Chicago.
Utah School for the Deaf opens in Salt Lake City.
Northern New York School for the Deaf opens in Malone.
- 1885 — Marie Consila Deaf-Mute Institution opens in St. Louis, Missouri.
New Mexico School for the Deaf opens in Santa Fe.
Florida School for the Deaf opens in St. Augustine.
- 1886 — St. Mary's School for the Deaf opens in St. Paul, Minnesota.
Evansville School for the Deaf opens in Indiana.
- 1887 — Texas Institute for Deaf, Dumb and Blind Colored Youth opens on a farm near Austin.
Women admitted to the National Deaf-Mute College.
Alexander Graham Bell establishes the Volta Bureau.
Home for Little Children Who Cannot Hear opens in Massachusetts.
- 1888 — The Kindergarten and Primary School for Hearing and Deaf Children opens in Washington, D.C.
Eastern Iowa School for the Deaf opens in Dubuque.

- 1889 — Albany Home School for the Oral Instruction of the Deaf opens in New York.
National Association of the Deaf unveils memorial to Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet at National Deaf-Mute College.
Gallaudet graduates organize alumni association.
- 1890 — North Dakota School for the Deaf opens in Devils Lake.
Alexander Graham Bell founds and endows the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf (now the Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf).
- 1891 — Teacher Training program begins at the National Deaf-Mute College.
American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf holds first convention at Lake George, New York.
- 1892 — Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age opens in Philadelphia.
- 1893 — Cleveland Day School for the Deaf opens in Ohio.
World Congress of the Deaf meets in Chicago.
- 1894 — Parents of deaf children organize association at the Sara Fuller School in West Medford, Massachusetts.
National Deaf-Mute College becomes Gallaudet College.
Wright-Humason School (later Wright Oral School) opens in New York City.
- 1895 — St. Joseph's (Catholic) School for the Deaf opens in Oakland, California.
Minneapolis Day School for the Deaf opens in Minnesota.
Military drill system for the deaf starts at New York School (Fanwood).
- 1897 — St. Francis Xavier (Catholic) School for the Deaf opens in Baltimore, Maryland.
- 1899 — Boston (Catholic) School for the Deaf opens.
- 1900 — Edith Fitzgerald develops the Fitzgerald Key.
- 1900-20s — Day schools and classes for the deaf increase.
- 1900-30s — Dr. Pintner becomes generally recognized as father of psychology of deafness.
- 1901 — Alumni of the Michigan School organize the Fraternal Society of the Deaf.
- 1902 — Helen Keller earns BA degree *cum laude* at Radcliffe College.
- 1905-07 — St. Olaf College in Northfield, Minnesota establishes a department for the deaf.
- 1908 — DePaul (Catholic) Institute for the Deaf opens in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
- 1909 — Virginia State School opens in Hampton.
- 1910 — Edward Miner Gallaudet retires as president of Gallaudet College.
Dr. Percival Hall becomes second president.
The Volta Review begins publication.
- 1911 — Arizona School for the Deaf and the Blind opens.
- 1912 — Archbishop Ryan (Catholic) Memorial Institute for the Deaf opens in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
Teacher Training program at Gallaudet College renamed Department of Articulation and Normal Instruction.
Society for the Welfare of the Jewish Deaf (later New York Society for the Deaf) forms professional services in New York City.
- 1914 — Central Institute for the Deaf opens in St. Louis, Missouri.
Dr. Harry Best publishes *The Deaf: Their Position in Society and the Provision for their Education in the U.S.*
- 1915 — St. Rita (Catholic) School for the Deaf opens in Wisconsin.
- 1917 — Edward Miner Gallaudet dies in Hartford.
- 1921 — Earl C. Hanson patents the first vacuum-tube hearing aid.
- 1922 — Alexander Graham Bell dies on August 2 in Nova Scotia, Canada.
- 1926 — Edith Fitzgerald publishes *Straight Language for the Deaf*.
- 1930 — U.S. Bureau of the Census does census of deaf people.
- 1931 — Convention of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf establishes teacher certification for teachers of the deaf.
- 1934 — Federal survey of the deaf and hard of hearing begins under U.S. Office of Education.
New Jersey School hosts the International Congress on the Education of the Deaf.
- 1937 — Ernest Marshall produces a motion picture in sign language for deaf audiences.
- 1940 — Helmer Myklebust publishes *The Psychology of Deafness*.
P.S. 47 in New York City (junior high school for the deaf) opens.
First audiometers appear.

- 1941-45 — Individually and collectively deaf Americans make outstanding contributions to war effort and build excellent work records.
Clubs of the deaf flourish.
- 1942 — John Tracy Clinic opens in Los Angeles.
- 1943 — Harry Best's book, *Deafness and the Deaf in the United States* appears.
- 1945 — Deaf sportsmen organize American Athletic Association for the Deaf in Akron, Ohio.
Dr. Leonard M. Elstad succeeds Dr. Percival Hall as third president of Gallaudet College.
- 1947 — Rhulin Thomas flies solo across U.S.A.
- 1950 — First transistor hearing aid appears on market.
- 1954 — Second California residential school for the deaf opens in Riverside.
The Columbia Institution is renamed Gallaudet College by Act of Congress.
U.S. Supreme Court outlaws segregation forcing colored schools for the deaf to close and integrate with institutions serving white children.
- 1955 — Crotched Mountain School for the Deaf opens in New Hampshire.
- 1956 — NAD officials and state representatives meet at the Missouri School for the Deaf to reorganize the National Association of the Deaf.
Jewish leaders organize the National Congress of Jewish Deaf.
- 1957 — Wyoming School for the Deaf opens in Casper.
- 1958 — President Dwight D. Eisenhower signs P.L. 85-905 establishing Captioned Films for the Deaf.
- 1959 — Gallaudet College publishes *Occupational Conditions Among the Deaf*.
- 1960 — Riverside City College in California begins program for the deaf.
National Association of the Deaf forms the Junior National Association of the Deaf.
Federal government provides stipends for teacher training.
Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois, establishes program for speech and hearing impaired.
- 1961 — Gallaudet College sponsors Workshop on Community Development Through Organizations of and for the Deaf at Fort Monroe, Virginia.
Leadership Training Program in the area of the deaf begins at San Fernando Valley State College (California State University, Northridge).
Georg von Bekesy wins Nobel Prize for inner-ear research.
- 1963 — International Congress on the Education of the Deaf meets at Gallaudet College.
- 1964 — Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf organizes in Muncie, Indiana.
Alexander Graham Bell Association forms Oral Deaf Adult section.
National Workshop on Improved Opportunities for the Deaf meets in Knoxville, Tennessee.
Robert H. Weitbrecht invents a terminal unit which permits deaf people to use teletypewriters to send messages over the telephone.
State Technical Institute and Rehabilitation Center Plainwell, Michigan offers deaf services.
California State University at Northridge begins program for deaf students.
Gallaudet College observes centennial; Gallaudet alumni give college half million dollars in cash and pledges.
- 1965 — American Athletic Association of the Deaf sponsors 10th International Games for the Deaf in Washington, D.C.
Eastern North Carolina School for the Deaf opens in Wilson.
- 1966 — Professional Rehabilitation Workers with the Adult Deaf organize.
St. Petersburg Junior College, Clearwater, Florida opens program for the deaf.
National Theatre of the Deaf begins.
New York University in New York City opens Deafness Research and Training Center.
- 1967 — Council of Organizations Serving the Deaf incorporates under New York laws; Mervin D. Garretson is first Executive Director.
National Association of the Deaf begins Communicative Skills Program.
Educators and rehabilitation workers meet at Las Cruces Conference in New Mexico.
National Theatre of the Deaf goes on first national tour.
- 1968 — Community College of Denver offers program for the hearing impaired.
Alexander Graham Bell Association and National Association of the Deaf form Teletypewriters for the Deaf, Inc. in Indiana.

- National Technical Institute for the Deaf opens on campus of Rochester Institute of Technology in Rochester, New York; Dr. Robert Frisina becomes first director.
- Delgado Junior College, New Orleans, Louisiana begins offering programs for the deaf and the hard of hearing.
- National Theatre of the Deaf forms The Little Theatre of the Deaf.
- Congress authorizes the establishment of a Model Secondary School for the Deaf at Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C.
- Utah State University, Logan, Utah, offers program for the hearing impaired.
- Permanent Alumni Office opens on Gallaudet College campus; Jack R. Gannon becomes first Gallaudet College Alumni Association Executive Secretary.
- 1969 — Seattle Community College begins program for deaf students.
- Dr. Edward C. Merrill, Jr. becomes fourth president of Gallaudet College.
- Lee College, Baytown, Texas offers hearing impaired program.
- National Theatre of the Deaf goes on first European tour.
- Tennessee Temple School for the Deaf in Chattanooga, Tennessee opens.
- St. Paul Technical Vocational Institute, St. Paul, Minnesota, opens program for deaf students.
- Gallaudet College Alumni Association dedicates statue of Edward Miner Gallaudet.
- 1970 — Valley Vocational Adult School, Industry, California opens program for deaf students.
- Kendall School becomes a national demonstration elementary school for the deaf.
- Golden West College, Huntington Beach, California opens Hearing Impaired Program and Disabled Student Services.
- 1971 — Iowa Western Community College, Council Bluffs, Iowa starts program for the hearing impaired.
- Portland Community College, Portland, Oregon opens special educational services.
- Charles Stewart Mott Community College, Flint, Michigan, opens program for hearing impaired.
- Johnson County Community College, Overland Park, Kansas establishes hearing impaired program.
- Jefferson State Vocational Technical School, Jeffersontown, Kentucky, opens.
- Tarrant County Junior College District, Fort Worth, Texas opens service center for opportunities to overcome problems.
- San Diego Community College, San Diego, California establishes Resources Center for the Handicapped.
- 1972 — Gallaudet College establishes Center for Continuing Education.
- Gallaudet College becomes a member of the Washington Consortium of Universities and Colleges.
- Ohlone College, Fremont, California establishes Department for the Hearing Impaired.
- Pasadena City College, Pasadena, California begins Hearing Impaired Program.
- University of South Florida, Tampa, Florida, opens program for the deaf.
- College of Southern Idaho, Twin Falls, Idaho opens program for the deaf.
- Waubensee Community College, Sugar Grove, Illinois, establishes Waubensee Hearing Impaired Program.
- Eastfield College, Mesquite, Texas begins services for handicapped students.
- Columbus Technical Institute, Columbus, Ohio adds technical education program for the deaf.
- Community College of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania opens program for hearing impaired students.
- North Central Technical Institute, Wausau, Wisconsin, opens program for the hearing impaired.
- Ann Billington becomes first Miss Deaf America.
- 1973 — William Rainey Harper College, Palatine, Illinois starts hearing impaired program.
- El Camino College, Torrance, California adds program for hearing impaired students.
- National Theatre of the Deaf performs a Christmas special on CBS-TV—"A Child's Christmas in Wales."
- New Hampshire Vocational Technical College, Claremont, New Hampshire adds program for the deaf.
- Maryland opens second school for the deaf in Columbia.
- 1974 — Los Angeles Pierce College Woodland, California begins special services for the deaf.
- National Association of the Deaf does census of deaf Americans; counts 13.4 million hearing impaired and 1.8 million deaf Americans.
- Central Piedmont Community College, Charlotte, North Carolina offers post-secondary program for the deaf.

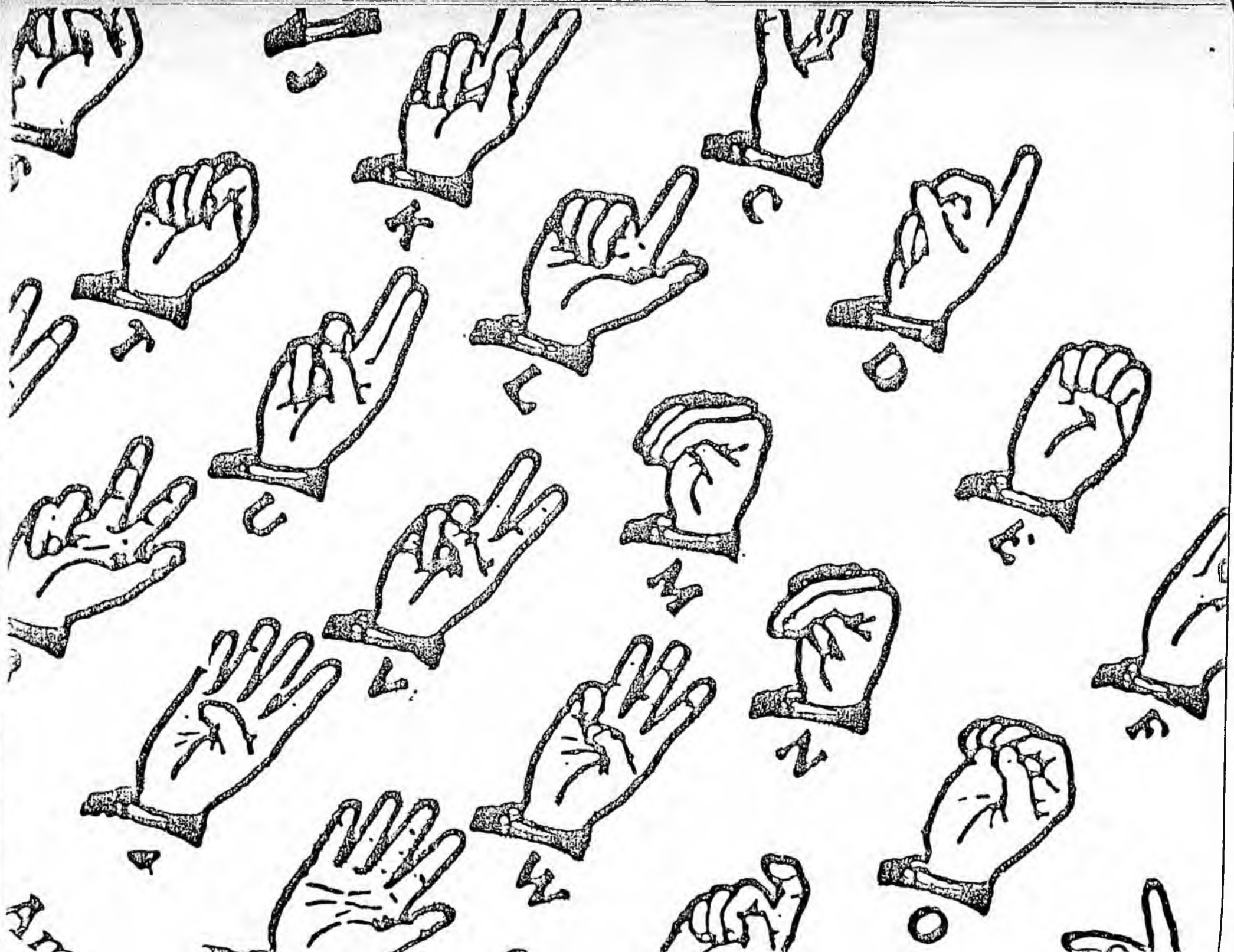
- Chattanooga State Technical Community College, Chattanooga, Tennessee opens program for the hearing impaired.
Community College of Allegheny County, Monroeville, Pennsylvania, offers supportive services for deaf students.
- 1975 — Gallaudet College starts doctoral degree program.
World Federation of the Deaf meets in Washington, D.C.
"Spectrum, Focus on Deaf Artists" organizes.
Central School for the Deaf opens in Greensboro, North Carolina.
Congress passes P.L. 94-142 "The Education of All Handicapped Children" Act.
- 1976 — Federal Communications Commission authorizes reserving Line 21 on television sets for closed captions.
- 1977 — National Theatre of the Deaf holds first Deaf Playwrights Conference.
Dr. William Castle becomes second director of National Technical Institute for the Deaf
- 1978 — Professional Rehabilitation Workers with the Adult Deaf becomes American Deafness Rehabilitation Association.
- 1979 — National Captioning Institute is formed to prepare captioned programs for television.
American Association of the Deaf-Blind, Inc. forms.
- 1980 — Sears, Roebuck and Co. begins selling decoders for closed captioning for television.
National Association of the Deaf observes centennial in Cincinnati.

Chapter 15

Deaf Heritage

Jack R. Gannon
1981

American Sign Language:
Our Natural Language



"The Noblest Gift"

George W. Veditz, the seventh president of the National Association of the Deaf, called sign language "the noblest gift God has given to deaf people."

Sign language traces its recorded history back to some Benedictine monks in Italy around A.D. 530. These monks had taken vows of silence and, it is believed, created a form of sign language in order to communicate their daily needs. Sign language has been passed down through the centuries. Pedro Ponce de Leon, also a Benedictine monk, used sign language to teach his deaf pupils. When the Abbé de l'Épée started his school for the deaf in Paris, he learned French Sign Language from deaf people, modified it to approximate spoken French, and used this variety of sign language to instruct his students.

Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet was introduced to signs used in de l'Épée's school when he visited the Paris Institution at the invitation of Abbé Sicard, de l'Épée's successor. It was the French Sign Language which Laurent Clerc and Gallaudet brought back with them to America in 1816. Of course, signs already existed in America before Clerc's arrival; historical records support that fact. A family friend, observing John Brewster, the deaf portraitist, wrote on December 13, 1790, that Brewster could "write well and converse in signs." That statement was made 26 years before the arrival of Clerc. A recent article about predominantly deaf communities on Martha's Vineyard, off the coast of Massachusetts, traces the use of sign language on the island back to the mid-18th century. Dr. James Woodward, a linguist at Gallaudet College, who has studied both American Sign Language and French Sign Language, estimates that approximately 60 percent of American signs are of French origin.

Clerc, Gallaudet, and the teachers and students at the Hartford School most likely combined the French signs with American signs. From the Hartford School, American Sign Language spread to other schools for the deaf. Sign language then enjoyed widespread use in the education of the deaf until the 1860s.

The heavy emphasis early schools placed on manual communication was one of the reasons that led to the establishment of pure oral schools in this country. Some parents and educators felt that no effort was made, or little attention given, to teach articulation in these schools. The establishment of pure oral schools

in this country in the 1860s forced the manual schools to change, as did the Milan resolution 20 years later. At the second International Congress on Education of the Deaf meeting in Milan, Italy, in September 1880, those present voted to outlaw the use of sign language in the education of deaf children in favor of the pure oral method. The U.S. delegation and an educator from Great Britain opposed the move but were heavily outvoted. One writer described the meeting as having an atmosphere rivalling religious fervor. Prevailing conditions in the education of the deaf in Europe at this time had much influence on the action taken. Mismanagement of schools for the deaf, the flagrant practice of nepotism, lack of training programs, and little or no accountability had resulted in a drastic decline in the quality of many educational programs. As usual, sign language was blamed as the cause. As a result of the meeting at Milan, education of the deaf in America became more oral. Some schools became pure oral schools while others became "combined" schools. The latter system was born as a result of disagreement with the pure oral philosophy. Rather than surrender the use of sign language, these schools added speech and speechreading for the beginning pupils while retaining signs and fingerspelling in the more advanced and vocational classes. This approach became known as the combined system. These two different approaches, oral or combined, began a heated controversy in this country that was to rage for decades and become what was commonly called, "The War of Methods."

The War of Methods

No history of deaf America, unfortunately, would be complete without mention of this war.

Why the controversy? Why the division among educators in the field of deafness? Why did it have to happen to deaf children, who, with their communication handicap, need input so badly? Perhaps one of the reasons is because deaf individuals look so normal. A blind child, or a paraplegic, for example, has a visible handicap. There is no escaping the disability. But a deaf person's deafness is invisible. It is possible, to a point, to hide deafness. Deafness remains unseen until some act gives the deaf person away—the use of sign language, for example, or the failure to respond when spoken to from behind, or wearing a hearing aid. No parents want to admit that their child is handicapped or different from other healthy children. Usually, the parents' first instinct on learning that their child is deaf is to search for a cure, a miracle, or a remedy that would make their child normal. The word

"normal" almost always enters into conversation with hearing parents of a deaf child. The oral philosophy holds out the hope and reassurance to parents that their child can learn to talk and lipread, and that with these tools he or she will fit into hearing society as a "normal" person would. How many deaf persons wish that this were true! They may wish also that it were that simple; but they know from personal experience, that it is not.

Oralism is not the easy way, parents are warned—and it certainly is not. They must stay away from signs, they are told. If they use signs or permit their deaf child to sign they will retard or ruin his speech development. The use of signs will become a "crutch"; the child will depend on them and neglect speech and speechreading, they are reminded. In other words, signing is bad for those who wish to develop speech.

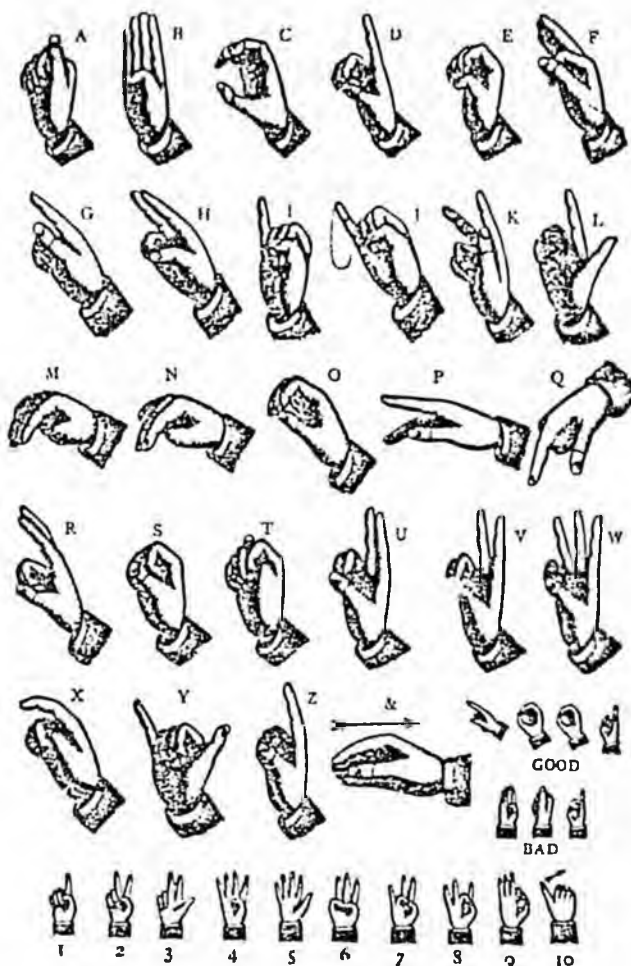
This obsession against signing has scared parents of deaf children away from deaf adults who use sign language. Many parents have been told that those who use signs become clannish when they grow up and that many live in "deaf ghettos." Parents do not realize, often until it is too late, that such contacts with deaf adults could be beneficial and could help them make constructive contributions to their child's development. Frequently, the deaf adults they chance to see are the models for their children.

This attempt to make a "hearing" person out of a deaf child; to demand that the child talk, talk, talk and to forbid him or her the use of that natural means of communication, to refuse to permit him or her to relate to other members of the deaf community are seen by many deaf people as cruel, unrealistic and unfair. People who do this would never think of giving a blind child a pair of glasses and demanding that the child see, see, see. Nor would they be so hardhearted as to take away the crutches from a crippled child. Yet in their determination to make a deaf child "normal," these same people unconsciously deny the deaf child the right to be himself. They are, in effect, saying that it is wrong to be deaf.

Normal? What is a *normal* deaf person? Deaf people have often asked themselves that question. Is a poor imitation of a hearing person a normal deaf person? Is pretending to understand, smiling and nodding at what is being said when one does not really comprehend, normal? Is rejecting the use of sign language

In order to communicate effectively and fluently, people must feel at home in their language, and the deaf are no exception.

—ROBERT F. PANARA



Sign language users will note how the letter "F" differs from its use today on this early manual alphabet.

because it is "the easy way out" and because hearing people do not use it and because it "classifies" you as deaf normal? Is not admitting one's disability and learning to cope with it the best you can normal? Why, then, do some people try to make an abnormal person out of a normal person who just happens to have a hearing disability? Why do they try to instill a sense of inferiority in a deaf person who initially sees life as a challenge? Why throw cruel, unnecessary stumbling blocks in the path of a deaf person or forbid him the right to use his natural means of communication? Is it not ironic that deaf people are rarely, if ever, asked what they believe is best for them? Wouldn't it be amusing if those who think they know what is best for deaf people could be deaf for a while, experience the frustration, and grope helplessly trying to understand what is being said? These are some of the questions deaf people have asked themselves. But, the overriding question remains: What is wrong with being deaf and trying to live with one's deafness?

The Controversy

The controversy over the best way to educate deaf children in this country raged from the 18th Century into the 20th. Hundreds of articles appeared in print, salvos of criticism were fired back and forth, and claims and counterclaims were made as each camp tried to win over parents and supporters. While the pure oralist proclaimed that speech was the way, the combinator argued that it was necessary to fit the method to the child, not the child to the method. Research findings, statistics, and statements, some lifted out of context, were used, further confusing parents who were neither familiar with the terms used in the studies nor with the persons conducting them. Personal testimonies of carefully selected deaf adults were held up as evidence of the "better way."

The controversy split families, broke up marriages, and led to divorces. It embittered deaf children and adults alike, leaving lifelong scars on the lives of many. It ran deep. In Nebraska, a mother of a deaf man made him promise on her deathbed that he would never use signs. Although he had attended a prestigious oral school his speech remained unintelligible throughout his life. As a result of that promise, neither hearing nor deaf people could understand him, and he had to resort to a pad and pencil to carry on a conversation with both groups.

Deaf children who did not succeed in oral schools were labelled "oral failures" and sent to residential schools where they were exposed to the more flexible combined system. Administrators in residential schools complained that their schools were becoming "dumping grounds" for oral failures and that the lateness at which they received these students, usually when the students were in their teens, made it impossible to make up for the lost years.

Contrary to widely held beliefs, most deaf adults did not oppose the teaching of speech and speech-reading. National Association of the Deaf President James L. Smith stated in 1904: "We are friends and advocates of speech and speech-training, but not for all the deaf. In order that the deaf may get the highest measure of intellectual, social, and moral happiness in this world, an adaption and combination of methods is necessary." Smith's stand has been held by a majority of deaf leaders through the decades. Many of them who can talk and lipread, as well as those who cannot, stress the value of those skills. But, deaf adults also repeatedly express concern over the heavy emphasis placed on the teaching of articulation at the expense of an education. "What good is it to be able to talk if you have nothing to say?" is a popular refrain.

W. L. Hill, a deaf man who became a successful newspaper publisher, said: "My object in going to school was to obtain an education, not simply a means of communication with hearing people." Issac Goldberg said: ". . . what I am today I certainly do not owe to my ability to speak or read the lips." Goldberg was a product of an oral school, a chemist, and an inventor of perfumes.

Nevertheless, the oralist-dominated years that followed had a profound impact on the lives of deaf people, most of it negative. Parents who had been convinced that sign language was detrimental to the speech efforts of their deaf child would have nothing to do with deaf teachers. Many schools came under pressure to switch to the pure oral method. In some states, deaf teachers became extinct or an endangered species.

Attempts To Suppress Sign Language

As oralism took a strong grip on education of the deaf in the United States in the 1860s and onward, there were attempts to suppress the use of sign language. It came under a mounting barrage of criticism. In the eyes of oral advocates, sign language was the culprit for everything wrong in the education of the deaf. It was blamed for deaf children's lack of speech, for their poor grasp of the English language; it was accused of promoting clannishness among deaf persons. If anything were wrong with deaf people, sign language was rapped as the cause.

In order to concentrate on teaching speech and speechreading, oral educators tried to provide an uncontaminated pure oral atmosphere for their students. They solicited the cooperation of parents. They refused to hire deaf teachers, even their own products. Deaf children were told that using signs was bad and degrading. They were told that it would prevent them from growing up "normal" and that they would not be able to live in a hearing world if they relied on signs and did not learn to talk and lipread. Even in the purest oral atmosphere, nevertheless, deaf children continued to use signs. Suppression only succeeded in driving sign language out of sight, behind the desk or the teacher's back, under the table, into the bathroom. Those who were caught breaking the rules were scolded or punished. Rapping a child's hand with a ruler was one of the punishments; clapping a child's mouth with a chalky eraser was another. Children had their hands tied behind their back or placed in brown paper bags. Still others were made to sit on their hands to keep them from going astray and forming signs. Although this natural way of communicat-

ing by deaf people defied suppression, the attempt to suppress it created a stigma towards sign language and a negative, guilty attitude about its use.

As sign language became outlawed in an increasing number of schools, there was a growing concern among deaf leaders that the beauty of the American Sign Language as used by the masters of old would be lost. Those masters had a special delivery of their own, a poetic motion, a Victorian dignity, standing ramrod straight with their lips tightly shut as they graphically etched in the air spellbinding presentations of beauty. It was considered gross in those early days to mouth words; platform signers placed emphasis on signs. If fingerspelling could be avoided it was.

Except at the Ohio School for the Deaf, Gallaudet College, and possibly a few other places, sign lan-

guage was never formally taught. Children picked it up from their peers. Teachers, new and veteran, learned it from their students or from other teachers. Under such circumstances there was little control over its originality, and signs underwent many changes. William H. Weeks of Connecticut, addressing the National Association of the Deaf convention in 1889 expressed concern about this: "The sign language is the grandest means yet devised for rapidity and clearness of communication with the deaf. We must hold fast to the original purity and strength of our signs. There is a tendency to invent new signs, some of which mean nothing. Many of the good old signs have been chopped and clipped so that they have lost much of their original force."

Dr. James L. Smith, a teacher at the Minnesota School for the Deaf, echoed Week's concerns at the

This old chart shows both the one-hand and two-hands alphabets. Laura Bridgeman (lower right corner) was reputedly the first deaf-blind person educated in this country.

THE MANUAL ALPHABET WITH ONE HAND, FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB.

ELEMENTARY LESSONS.

The Manual Alphabet is a system of signs for the deaf and dumb, which is the most perfect and useful yet devised for their education.

THE MANUAL ALPHABET.

The Manual Alphabet is a system of signs for the deaf and dumb, which is the most perfect and useful yet devised for their education. It is a system of signs for the deaf and dumb, which is the most perfect and useful yet devised for their education.

THE SINGLE HAND.



Class in form for getting the Alphabet. From the Manual of the Deaf and Dumb.

HOW TO TEACH THE DEAF AND DUMB LANGUAGE.

- 1st. The Manual Alphabet with one hand.
 - 2d. The Alphabet in capital and small letters.
- After having committed these characters to memory, proceed to their particular use as follows:
- Spell each letter of a word with the fingers distinctly; in spelling a double name, or more than one word, make a dash motion with the hand. At the finish of each letter allow a significant pause—shorter or longer, for a comma, semicolon, or period, as the case may be.
- N.B. This Alphabet is used in various institutions for the education of the Deaf and Dumb.
- Memory of learning in two hours how to speak with the Deaf and Dumb of all nations; and when it is separated by habit, it will be easy for any person to converse with his fingers as quickly as with the language itself.
- J is made by raising the little finger, and then describing with it, in the air, a curved line resembling the tail of the J. Z is made by raising the fore finger, and describing with it, in the air, the shape of Z.
- No record is had to syllable, in spelling words. The end of the word is denoted by a horizontal motion of the hand.

RELECTIONS OF SILENCE.

Example II. The I stand out like a white flag, and the mouth is open like a book. The tongue is out like a sword, and the lips are parted like a book.



SIGNS FOR THE FIGURES.

The following positions of the hand are generally employed by them to signify the most digits and the digits. They who have spent the leisure time in learning to converse with the deaf and dumb.

The same signs are used to signify the numbers, thus 1 and 10, 2 and 20, 3 and 30, 4 and 40, 5 and 50, 6 and 60, 7 and 70, 8 and 80, 9 and 90, 10 and 100, 11 and 110, 12 and 120, 13 and 130, 14 and 140, 15 and 150, 16 and 160, 17 and 170, 18 and 180, 19 and 190, 20 and 200, 21 and 210, 22 and 220, 23 and 230, 24 and 240, 25 and 250, 26 and 260, 27 and 270, 28 and 280, 29 and 290, 30 and 300, 31 and 310, 32 and 320, 33 and 330, 34 and 340, 35 and 350, 36 and 360, 37 and 370, 38 and 380, 39 and 390, 40 and 400, 41 and 410, 42 and 420, 43 and 430, 44 and 440, 45 and 450, 46 and 460, 47 and 470, 48 and 480, 49 and 490, 50 and 500, 51 and 510, 52 and 520, 53 and 530, 54 and 540, 55 and 550, 56 and 560, 57 and 570, 58 and 580, 59 and 590, 60 and 600, 61 and 610, 62 and 620, 63 and 630, 64 and 640, 65 and 650, 66 and 660, 67 and 670, 68 and 680, 69 and 690, 70 and 700, 71 and 710, 72 and 720, 73 and 730, 74 and 740, 75 and 750, 76 and 760, 77 and 770, 78 and 780, 79 and 790, 80 and 800, 81 and 810, 82 and 820, 83 and 830, 84 and 840, 85 and 850, 86 and 860, 87 and 870, 88 and 880, 89 and 890, 90 and 900, 91 and 910, 92 and 920, 93 and 930, 94 and 940, 95 and 950, 96 and 960, 97 and 970, 98 and 980, 99 and 990, 100 and 1000.

THE DOUBLE HANDED ALPHABET.

THE DOUBLE HANDED ALPHABET. THE DOUBLE HANDED ALPHABET. THE DOUBLE HANDED ALPHABET.



LAURA BRIDGEMAN, BLIND, DEAF, AND DUMB.

The following picture of the deaf and dumb is a portrait of the first deaf-blind person educated in this country. She was born in 1796, and died in 1879. She was the first deaf-blind person to be educated in this country.

1904 National Association of the Deaf convention: "The enemies of sign language are not confined to those who decry it and call for its abolition entirely. Its most dangerous enemies are in the camp of its friends, in the persons of those who maltreat it and abuse it by misuse. The sign language, properly used, is a language of grace, beauty, power. But through careless or ignorant use it may become ungraceful, repulsive, difficult to comprehend."

In the early 1900s George W. Veditz expressed concern that "'A new race of pharaohs that knew not Joseph' are taking over the land and many of our

... the educator of the deaf must learn through the experience of the educated deaf wherein to modify and improve his methods.

—ENOCH CURRIER

American Schools. They do not understand signs for they cannot sign. They proclaim that signs are worthless and of no help to the deaf. Enemies of sign language—they are enemies of the true welfare of the deaf."

The Deaf: "By Their Fruits Ye Shall Know Them"

When the New York School for the Deaf came under pressure to abandon sign language in favor of the pure oral method in the instruction of deaf children, Principal Enoch H. Carrier decided to solicit the opinions of deaf leaders of the day. Here are some excerpts from some of the letters he received. The letters were published in a booklet, The Deaf: "By Their Fruits Ye Shall Know Them."

"It is hard to conceive that there are minds and hearts so small and shriveled that they would say to the deaf, 'You are to acquire knowledge and understanding by watching the motion of the lips or not at all.' The deaf, as well as the hearing, are entitled to learn all they can by such methods as are most expeditious."—J.C. Howard

"... I feel that it is my right to come by knowledge in whatever way God has given me, since it was His good will that I should not hear. I do not recognize the right of any human being to deprive me of the means of communication that God has left to me."—J.C. Howard

"I have met many deaf people—some educated by the oral method and some by the combined method, where signs are used. In every case those who have been educated by means of signs are the more intelligent, more independent, self-reliant, and have an air of being capable, competent and unafraid. They are happier and experience more real joy in life."—A.R. Spear

"In attempting to abolish signs as used as aids in educating the deaf, the unfortunate children are not only being deprived of their birthright, but a means of education is being taken from them."—A.R. Spear

"From the standpoint of a totally deaf person, proficient in speech and lip-reading, and with forty years' experience in the art, I can only say that lip-reading at its best is a matter of skillful guess work, and a sorry mess we sometimes make of it."—A.R. Spear

"The deaf do not object to speech and lip-reading. They know it is a great advantage to those who can attain to a working proficiency. The combined schools provide this as well as oral schools, and at the same time educate those

who cannot profit to any great extent by pure oral methods. This is so apparent it seems a waste of time to state it."—G.M. Teegarden

"I know the value of speech. I can speak well and read the lips well. But I plead for broadness as against narrowness. I plead for the child rather than for the method itself."—G.M. Teegarden

"You cannot eliminate the sign language. It is the natural language of the deaf. You may suppress its use to an extent, but in doing so you close an avenue to the mind and soul of the deaf-mute, and in so doing add to his losses."—G.M. Teegarden

"Nature hates force. Just as the flowing stream seeks the easiest path, so the mind seeks the way of least resistance. The sign-language offers to the deaf a broad and smooth avenue for the inflow and outflow of thought, and there is no other avenue for them like unto it."—G.M. Teegarden

"Under the best of circumstances, both the young and the adult deaf are heavily handicapped, and, in their instruction, no *method* which will aid in the smallest degree, to give them knowledge and power, should be excluded from the curriculum."—Alice C. Jennings

"It is a lamentable fact that, in matters relating to the deaf, their education and well-being, few if any take the trouble to get the opinion of the very people most concerned—the deaf themselves."—John H. Keiser

"If you try to suppress signs you will teach deceit, for the deaf will always use it on the sly. To deprive a deaf-mute of the sign language is like clipping a bird of its wings."—F. Magian

These concerns led to the formation of a motion picture committee of the National Association of the Deaf during Veditz' administration. The sum of \$5,000, a large sum in those days, was raised in short order, and filming of the old masters of sign began. The NAD recorded for posterity presentations in sign language by Edward Miner Gallaudet, John Hotchkiss, Edward Allen Fay, George W. Veditz, Robert McGregor, and other old masters. These films have been videotaped and are available for viewing at the Edward Miner Gallaudet Memorial Library at Gallaudet College.

With sign language under fire, it was obviously not a time when people sought the advice and opinions of deaf people. The education and welfare of the deaf was largely in the hands of hearing persons. It was rare indeed to find a deaf person serving on a school board or in an advisory capacity to a program that affected the welfare of the deaf. Few school administrators took counsel of deaf people, but one who did was Principal Enoch H. Currier of the New York School for the Deaf (Fanwood). When pressure was brought to bear on the Board of Directors of the school to switch to the pure oral method in 1912, Currier decided to seek the opinions of the leading deaf persons of the day. He received so many responses to his inquiry that he decided to publish them in a booklet entitled: *The Deaf: "By their fruits ye shall know them."* Those who responded to the invitation included professionals, businessmen, educators, members of the clergy, and a number of products of oral schools. Excerpts of some of their responses are printed elsewhere to give a feeling for the sentiments of the times. NYSD remained a combined method school.

On the other side of the coin, some oral products worked remarkably well. Mabel Hubbard Bell, the daughter of Alexander Graham Bell, was deafened at the age of five years by scarlet fever. She attended Clarke School for the Deaf in Northampton, a school her father, Gardiner G. Hubbard, had helped to start. Mabel Bell was a skilled lipreader.

Latham Breunig, a 1935 graduate of the Clarke School for the Deaf, also deafened at the age of five years, earned a doctorate at Johns Hopkins University and became a statistician for the Eli Lilly Co. in Indianapolis. Breunig was the first chairman of the Oral

Deaf Adult Section when it was organized within the Alexander Graham Bell Association, and he was the first deaf person to become president of that Association.

James C. Marsters was born deaf. He got his elementary education in a public school and attended the Wright Oral School in New York. He earned his BS degree at Union College in New York and attended Columbia University in New York City. Marsters earned his doctor of dental science (DDS) at the New York University College of Dentistry and later an MS at the University of Southern California. Marsters is a self-employed orthodontist in Pasadena, California. He has lectured in orthodontistry at USC. He holds a pilot's license and is active in an organization promoting telecommunications for the deaf.

Richard E. Thompson is another successful Clarke School graduate. Born deaf, Thompson earned an AB degree from Harvard *cum laude* in 1952 and a masters and a PhD in clinical psychology from Boston University. He was a member of the first National Advisory Committee for Education of the Deaf. He is a member of the Beverly School board. He was co-director of Psycho-Social Services for the Deaf at Newton Center before becoming director of the Massachusetts Office of Deafness. Now a skilled signer, he is very active in organizations of the deaf.

Barbara Ann Brauer was born deaf. She attended a residential school for deaf children in Michigan until the sixth grade when she was enrolled in the public school system. She earned her master's at Columbia University and a doctorate in clinical psychology at New York University. She is currently director of Mental Health Research in the Division of Research at Gallaudet College.

American Sign Language Comes Out of the Closet

And so it went through the decades until the 1960s. What took sign language so long to become acceptable again? Ignorance. Insensitivity. Cruelty. Pride. Well-meaning but overzealous and misguided intentions.

Slowly more and more people were beginning to realize that limiting a deaf child to a totally oral program did not guarantee success in speech and speech-reading skills. Researchers were beginning to find evidence that early use of sign language did not retard a deaf child's development of speech as many had thought it did. Other studies of deaf children of deaf parents who used sign language with their children showed that these children generally fared better ac-

... the study of sociolinguistics made me realize that in order to study a language one must understand the people who use it.

—BARBARA KANNAPPELL

ademically, socially, and in the acquisition of written language than did those deaf children of hearing parents who did not use sign language.

The exposure of deaf people on television, a changing national mood towards disabled Americans, and the increasing articulateness and visibility of deaf leaders, were other factors. Another reason for sign language's acceptance was a man named Bill Stokoe.

In the mid-1950s Dr. William C. Stokoe, Jr. joined the Gallaudet College faculty as chairman of the English Department. He soon became fascinated by the language of signs, the leading means of communication used on campus. When he proposed a study of sign language, however, his colleagues surprisingly showed little interest. Some even thought that he was crazy to think of such an undertaking. Even deaf colleagues were indifferent. But, Stokoe persisted. In 1957 he started the Linguistics Research Program, an after-hours and summer research project. With two deaf assistants, Carl Croneberg and Dorothy Casterline, Stokoe began filming individuals giving presentations in sign language. Few of the participants understood what he was trying to do or the significance of his work, and most who took part in the experiments did so to humor him.

Next, Stokoe and his team spent thousands of hours carefully studying the signs captured on film. From these studies he noted familiar patterns emerging. He identified points of contrast, morphemes, and syntactical patterns, those necessary ingredients of a language. He was the first linguist to subject sign language to the tests of a real language, and he found that it withstood them all. When he published his initial findings in 1960, however, few people got excited or paid much attention. He was nearly alone in his belief that sign language, instead of being a collection of grotesque gestures, as many thought it was, was indeed a language in its own right.

In 1965 Stokoe, Casterline, and Croneberg published the results of their work in *A Dictionary of American Sign Language on Linguistic Principles*. In this book they presented signs of American Sign Language in symbols based on linguistic principles. (A revised edition, *Sign Language Structure*, followed in 1978.)

Stokoe's work, however, caught the attention and interest of other linguists in the United States and abroad. He had made sign language a legitimate and academically acceptable research topic. Other hearing linguists began studying it. A few deaf people also became interested in linguistics because of this work, entered degree programs in linguistics and began their own research related to American Sign Language. These studies overflowed into other academic disci-

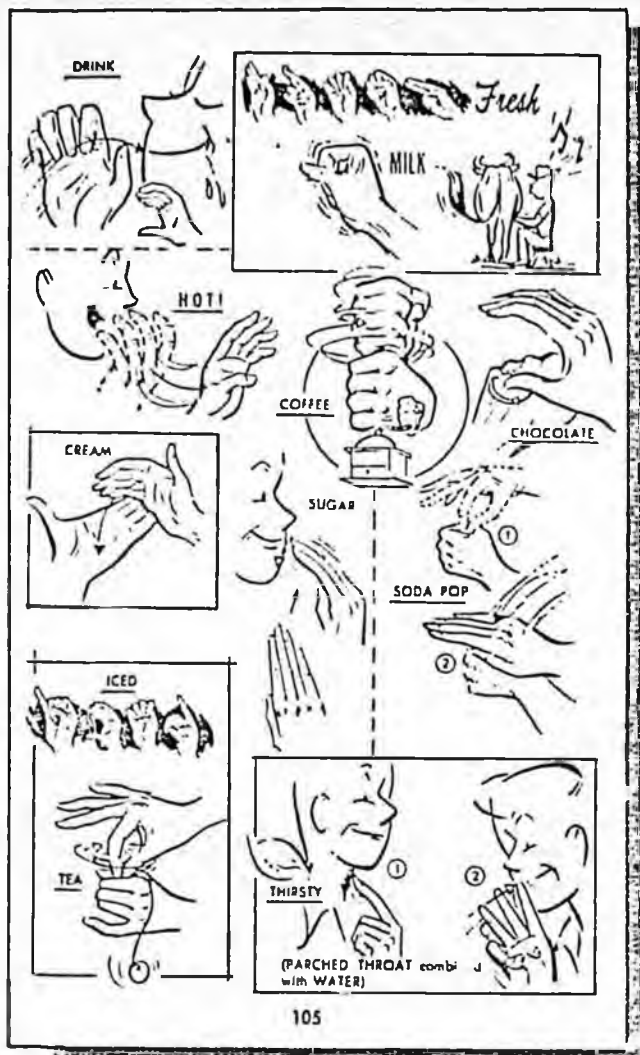


Dr. Stokoe at work in his lab at Gallaudet College.

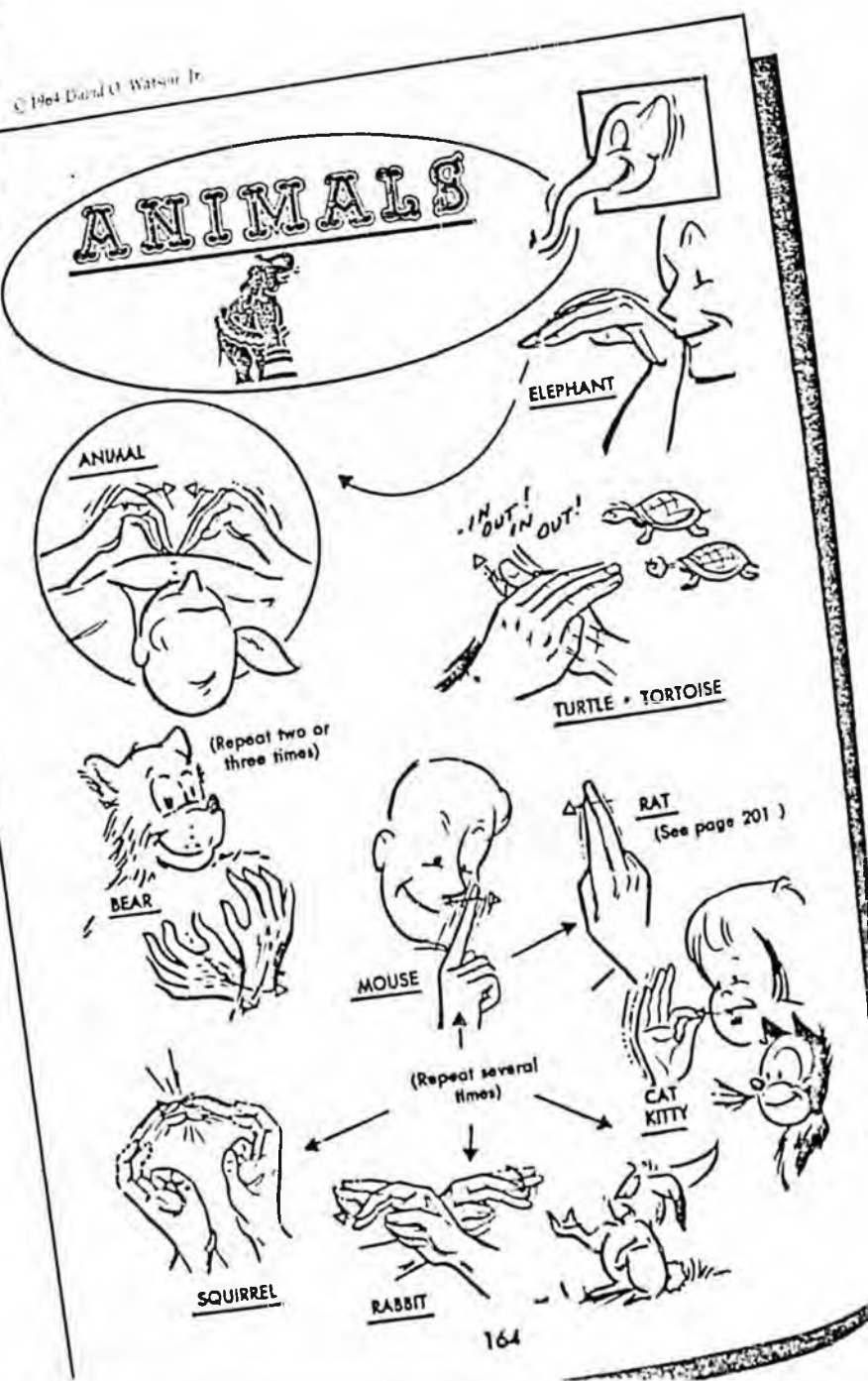
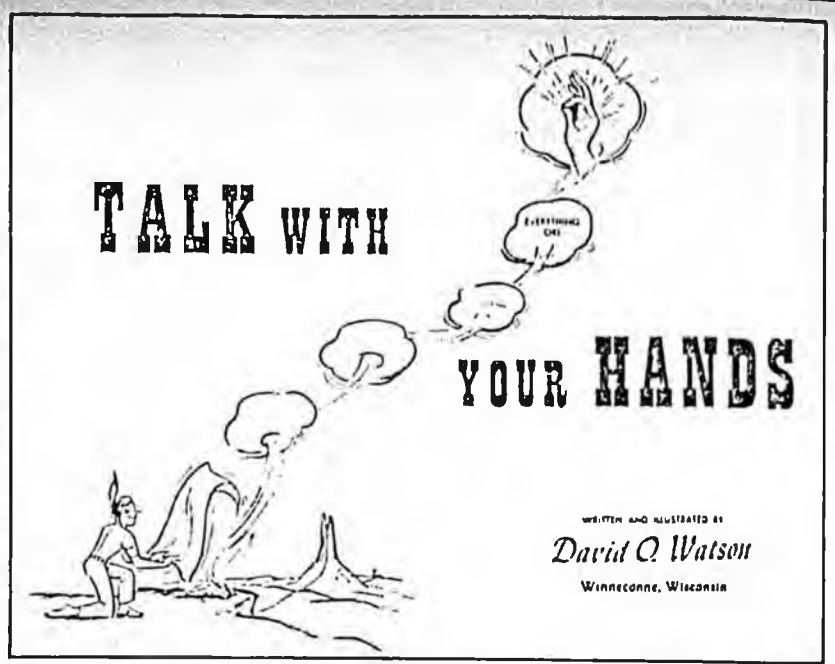
plines—anthropology, sociology, psychology. In 1973 James Woodward completed his dissertation at Georgetown University on American Sign Language and became the first linguist to earn a doctorate in that subject.

These researchers found that American Sign Language, like other languages, undergoes change. They discovered that, contrary to popular belief, it has its own grammatical structure and that it can and does convey abstract concepts. Just because American Sign Language appears ungrammatical when it is translated word for word into English does not make it ungrammatical. Harry Markowicz, who studied both American Sign Language and French Sign Language and who has written many articles on the subject, explained that other spoken languages with different word orders from English also appear ungrammatical in word for word translations in English. Much of this research has found its way into print and has heightened interest in American Sign Language.

Stokoe defines American Sign Language as both a native and a natural language. A native language is the first language an individual learns to use for normal communication. It is believed that every human is born with a language capacity. An individual's native language depends on the language those around him are using and on his ability to receive all the signals of that language. ASL is usually the native language of those deaf and hearing children born of deaf parents in a home where sign language is the language used. In households where both ASL and English are used, many of these children grow up with two or more native languages equally exercising their native language capacity. These bilingual chil-



Some illustrations from David Watson's book, *Talk With Your Hands*.



Silent Homage (A Tribute to Interpreters)

*The moving lips speak voicelessly—but hark:
The winging words fly from your fluttering hands;
And each, who dwells in silence, understands
How Dawn, the rosy-fingered, burns the dark
From shadow-worlds wherein the teeming brain
Lay, like a captive, in a dungeon-cell;
Your magic bursts the iron citadel,
And breaks the lock, and brings the light again!*

*Dear friend, how empty, vain and commonplace
Must seem this gratitude we offer you;
Yet now we render homage, as your due,
Remembering your patience, love and grace—
With teeming fingers as you blithely go,
Daily, to fell our Walls of Jericho*

—LOY E. GOLLADAY

dren are often intellectually advanced and academically superior to other children.

Stokoe describes a natural language as the language people of the world use in their everyday activities among themselves as well as for other purposes. A natural language is developed by its users, and it evolves over a period of time. He estimates that American Sign Language is the natural language of some 200,000 to 400,000 deaf Americans and deaf Canadians.

The discovery of American Sign Language as a true language has led to the identification of deaf culture as a rich, untapped field of study. Observed Carol Padden, a deaf linguistics student: "The culture of deaf people has not yet been studied in much depth. One reason is that, until recently, it was rare to describe deaf people as having a culture. . . ."

American Sign Language began to increase in popularity. Colleges, universities, high schools, private and public organizations, and agencies began offering courses in ASL. Deaf people suddenly found themselves in demand as teachers of their language. This interest and acceptance of sign language caught many deaf old timers by surprise. It has influenced the attitudes of deaf persons towards themselves, their language, their culture and made them take a closer look at their rights as American citizens.

In 1980 friends and colleagues of William C. Stokoe got together and secretly prepared a collection of essays in his honor. The book, *Sign Language and the Deaf Community: Essays in Honor of William C. Stokoe*, was published by the National Association of the Deaf and

presented to a surprised Stokoe at the NAD Centennial Convention. Royalties from the sale of the book will go into the William C. Stokoe Scholarship Fund to encourage continued research in the area of sign language.

Meanwhile, Bill Stokoe has found mastering sign language himself a tough subject. He is, as a colleague tactfully put it, "not a fluent signer." He continues to work on his sign language.

Sign Language Books

There appeared at the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf meeting in Salem, Oregon, in the summer of 1961, a commercial artist from Winnebago, Wisconsin, named David Watson. Watson was from a deaf family—deaf parents, a deaf brother, and three deaf sisters. He had with him some sketches of animated signs which he had been preparing for a book. He wanted to know what the teachers at the convention thought of the drawings. To his surprise and delight everyone who saw them liked the drawings and encouraged him to complete his project. Inspired, Watson returned home to his drawing board and set to work. *Talk With Your Hands* was completed three years later. It was an instant success and within nine months the first run of 10,000 copies was sold out. His drawings appeared in two colors and showed the movement of signs. Wrote one customer: "Your book breathes." Watson has since produced a second volume and is at work on a third.

In 1963 Lottie Eiekehof's *Talk to the Deaf*, L.M. Guilory's *Expressive and Receptive Fingerspelling for Hearing Adults* and Roger M. Falberg's *The Language of Silence* appeared. A year later Louie Fant's *Say It With Hands* rolled off the press. Much earlier—in 1909—J. Schuyler Long had produced *The Sign Language: A Manual of Signs* but, not since John W. Michael's *Handbook of Sign Language of the Deaf* which was printed in 1923 had there appeared a new book on sign language. These books opened the floodgate of many more sign language books that would appear during this decade and the next—more books on the subject than the country had ever seen. The list included hymnals, religious signs, flash cards, sign language games,

To know, once and for all, that our "primitive" and "ideographic gestures" are really a formal language on a par with all other languages of the world is a step towards pride and liberation.

—MERVIN D. GARRETSON

manuals for deaf-blind children, curriculum guides for teaching interpreters. *A Basic Course in Manual Communication* prepared by Terrence J. O'Rourke and published by the National Association of the Deaf appeared in 1970. It has sold almost one-half million copies since its release. By the end of the 1970s some 40 sign language-related books were on the market. Riekehof published a second book *The Joy of Signing*, and Fant has since published three more books *Ameslan: An Introduction to American Sign Language* (1972), *Sign Language* (1977) and *Intermediate Sign Language* (1980).

In 1980 T.J. Publishers brought out a package of materials for teaching American Sign Language. Written by Charlotte Baker and Dennis Cokely, it included a series of three student textbooks, two teacher's resource books on curriculum, methods and evaluation, and grammar and culture. A series of videotapes were also prepared to accompany the texts.

A Basic Course in American Sign Language by Tom Humphries, Carol Padden and Terrence J. O'Rourke also appeared that year.

The NAD Communicative Skills Program

The Rehabilitative Services Administration of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare awarded a grant to the National Association of the Deaf in 1967 to begin a series of pilot sign language classes in the United States. Terrence J. O'Rourke, a deaf teacher of the deaf, was hired as director of this new Communicative Skills Program. Through this program thousands and thousands of persons have been introduced to sign language.

In 1972 the Graduate School at New York University began accepting American Sign Language as satisfying a language requirement. By the end of that year 38 other colleges were offering credit courses in manual communication.

In the 1970s the Communicative Skills Program began to focus more on improving the quality of the courses offered, and on assisting colleges, universities, and government agencies to begin sign language training programs of their own. In 1975 CSP formed the Sign Instructors Guidance Network (SIGN), a professional organization of sign language instructors, with evaluation and certification responsibilities. In 1977, CSP organized the first National Symposium on Sign Language Research and Teaching in Chicago. A second symposium was held in San Diego, California, in 1978 and a third in Boston in 1980.



Terrence J. O'Rourke



Roy Holcomb

Terrence J. O'Rourke left the program in 1978 to start his own publishing business. He was succeeded by S. Melvin Carter, Jr. That year CSP added a program for training sign language instructors and doing curriculum development in the teaching of American Sign Language. Ella Lentz was hired as coordinator and assistant director of CSP. Through this program she works with sign language instructors in the ten Rehabilitation Services Administration regions, assisting them in upgrading their programs.

Edna Adler, a deaf consultant in the Office of Deafness and Communicative Disorders, Social Rehabilitation Services, Department of Health and Human Services, believes that this program "more than anything else helped remove the stigma of using sign language."

Total Communication Arrives

In the early 1960s, Dorothy Shifflett, a teacher with the Anaheim Union High School District in California and the mother of a deaf daughter, became disillusioned with the lack of progress her daughter was making through the oral approach. After contacts with deaf adults in the community, she switched to the combined system and began using a multi-approach to teaching deaf children in her school. She was influential in persuading teachers, parents, deaf and hearing children, and those who worked with deaf children to take classes in sign language. Deaf children were exposed to speech, speechreading, and auditory training as well as fingerspelling and signs. They were integrated with hearing children in physical education classes, during recess, and at lunch. Some attended classes for hearing children, including classes in Spanish and in band! One deaf boy was even included in the school's marching band. This approach did away with communication reservations, provided increased input to the deaf child, and stimulated his learning.

Mrs. Shifflett called her approach "The Total Approach." Although it was not the first time that deaf and hearing children had been integrated in a regular public school program and been taught sign language, it was a philosophy whose time had come. Dorothy Shifflett hired Herb Larson, a deaf teacher; he became one of the first deaf teachers to teach in the public school system outside a residential school in California.

In the fall of 1968 Roy Holcomb became the first area supervisor of the program for deaf students at the James Madison Elementary School. This school, with an enrollment of 800 hearing students, was part of the Santa Ana Unified School District in California. The program for deaf children was the oldest program of its kind in Orange County. The program's first teacher was Kathryn Fitzgerald, a relative of Edith Fitzgerald, inventor of the Fitzgerald Key. In 1968, the program consisted of six classes serving 34 deaf children from three to 12 years old.

Holcomb, a Texas School for the Deaf, Gallaudet College and California State University, Northridge product, and his teachers were aware that good communication was the key to a deaf child's successful learning process. They knew that once a child fell behind academically in his early years, he seldom, if ever, caught up. They wanted to provide each student with as much information as possible during these early formative years. They were interested in providing each student with a barrier-free communication environment and not in what they said were "theories as to what might be better for him in later life." They were interested in "real and genuine communication." They used the total approach at all levels at the school.

A year later Holcomb began using the term, "Total Communication." He widely publicized this system, and as other educators learned about it, they began adopting it and Holcomb became known as the "Father of Total Communication."

Roy Holcomb, who wears a hearing aid although he has a 90-decibel hearing loss, was one of the founders of the International Association of Parents of the Deaf and the author of *Hazards of Deafness*. (He once received a letter from the California State Credentials Department warning him that his job might be in jeopardy because of his deafness.) He was in demand as a speaker and was invited to serve on the advisory boards of at least six colleges that had programs for hearing impaired students. He is the recipient of numerous honors including the Dan T. Cloud Award (his wife, Marjorie, was also a recipient) given annually by the Center on Deafness at California State

University at Northridge. Gallaudet College awarded him an honorary Doctor of Laws degree. Eventually he left Santa Ana to become director of the Margaret S. Sterck School for the Deaf in Delaware.

The Maryland School for the Deaf was probably the first residential school to adopt officially the Total Communication philosophy and, under the leadership of Superintendent David Denton, became one of its strongest advocates. Margaret S. Kent, principal of MSD, defined Total Communication as "the right of every deaf child to learn to use all forms of communication so that he may have full opportunity to develop language competence at the earliest possible age." She and her colleagues at the Maryland School saw it as including "the full spectrum of language modes: child-devised gestures, formal sign language, speech, speechreading, fingerspelling, reading, and writing."

As it became increasingly used, Total Communication underwent modification, changes, and refinement. In 1976 an official definition of Total Communication was agreed on by members of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf. The CEASD version read: "Total Communication is a philosophy requiring the incorporation of appropriate aural, manual, and oral modes of communication in order to insure effective communication with and among hearing impaired persons."

The pendulum was swinging back toward sign language. By 1976 two-thirds of the schools for the deaf in this country reported that they used Total Communication although many teachers in these schools could not sign well and made little or no effort to learn.

Manually Coded English Systems

The search to find a better way to teach English to deaf children has long eluded educators of the deaf. Special systems have been devised to assist in this process; they include the Barry Five Slate System, Wing's Symbols, and the Fitzgerald Key. (Both Wing and Fitzgerald were deaf.) Grammar textbooks used

Deaf people feel a strong identification with ASL since it is a part of their cultural background, but when they are involved in community activities, the use of another language allows them to interact with other deaf persons who are not Deaf.

—CAROL PADDES



John Blake/Graphic (Coda) Daily Tribune

David A. Anthony

in public schools have been used and other teachers have had their own systems. English still remains a very difficult language for deaf students to master.

One spring day in 1962, David Anthony was reading a story about Basic English in *Life* magazine. The article told about a system created in the 1920s and 1930s by Charles K. Ogden, and Ivor A. Richards of Cambridge University. They had developed a list of 850 basic English words and rules for their use in an attempt to simplify English and make it easier for others to learn.

Born deaf and the son of deaf parents, Anthony knew first-hand the difficulties deaf children encounter in acquiring a working command of English. He was then a teacher of mentally retarded deaf children and adults at the Deaf Research Project at Lapeer State Home and Training School in Lapeer, Michigan.

Anthony, a graduate of Gallaudet College, saw weaknesses in the two traditional methods of teaching deaf children then in use. American Sign Language has a different grammatical structure and does not follow English syntax or word order. Speech and speechreading, on the other hand, were no better. While following the spoken English word order, lip-reading involved too much guesswork; at best, only

about 40 percent of the spoken words are visible on the lips. Anthony knew, as did other educators, that a hearing child has a decided advantage in acquiring English. He is acoustically bombarded with words on a daily basis. He hears them on radio, television, in conversation with others, and at the dinner table. Deaf children, on the other hand, are shut off from such valuable, yet effortless, learning sources. Every single English word they learn has to be learned with an effort. Since deaf children cannot hear spoken English, Anthony wanted to find a way for them to see it as it is spoken. He thought that this Basic English list might be used to help his children. He realized that he had another problem: many of those words on the list had no signs. An idea was beginning to form in his mind.

David Anthony returned to Lapeer and discussed his idea with his colleagues there. They thought it had possibilities. The more he thought about it and discussed it the more sense it made. He proposed a system called Signing Essential English with the acronym SEE in keeping with his philosophy that to learn English deaf children must see it. This new sign system, developed largely by the inventiveness of his pupils, was the theme of his master's thesis at Eastern Michigan University where he was completing work on his degree in English.

In developing SEE, Anthony decided to use as little fingerspelling as possible. Every English word would have a distinct sign—even parts of a word (morphemes) would have a sign—and these signs would follow the spoken English word order. He developed signs for morphemes—those small units of meaning for words, prefixes (re-, com-, anti-, etc.), roots (-sist, -vail-, etc.), and suffixes (-ed, -ing, -ment, -ness, etc.)—so that it was possible to distinguish among, for example, *play*, *plays*, *playing*, *played*, *player*, etc. In SEE, a single word could have more than one sign. Take *boyishly*, for example. That word would be broken down into the morphemes: "boy," "ish," and "ly," and three different signs would be used in sequence. To deaf adults accustomed to American Sign Language who would normally fingerspell that word or use the signs "idea same" and "boy," Anthony's approach looked awkward and silly. Many felt that he was messing up sign language. But Anthony believed that if deaf children were to learn the term "boyishly," they would have to see it and that "idea same boy" was not the way the word was spoken or written. Breaking a word up into signs made it easier to understand than did fingerspelling it. Further, Anthony explained, "idea same boy" takes three signs to render, as does "boy" "ish," "ly."

SEE also uses the same sign for a word with different meanings. So, regardless of whether you run out of gas, run for election, or just plain run, the same sign is used for all three different versions. Anthony believes that a deaf child can figure out which meaning of the word is being used from the context of the sentence.

The scene next shifts to California where Anthony joined the teaching staff of the Brookhurst Junior High School in Anaheim. There a core group was formed to further develop Anthony's ideas. On Anthony's recommendation the group changed the name of his system to Seeing Essential English to play down the emphasis on signing so that the system would appeal more to parents. The members of this core group, besides Anthony, included Gerilee Gustason, Donna Pfetzing, Esther Zawolkow, and Dennis Wampler, among others. Gustason was deaf, having lost her hearing at the age of five. Pfetzing was the mother of a deaf daughter, a rubella baby, and a disillusioned oral proponent. Zawolkow was the daughter of deaf parents; Wampler was the son of deaf parents. Like Anthony, Gustason and Wampler were teachers. Pfetzing and Zawolkow were interpreters at Anthony's school. This group solicited reaction and input from many other deaf and hearing adults, parents, teachers, and interested persons. They began using the new system at their respective schools, refining it and adding to it. All of them were convinced that they were on the right track toward developing a system that would provide deaf children with a better way to develop better skills in written English.

About this time the members of the group began to disagree on some basic principles. Anthony believed that whenever necessary a new sign should be created. He also believed that each part of a word should have its own consistent sign. The others favored retaining as many traditional signs as possible. They also felt that excessive breaking up of words with signs was not the way to go. This disagreement led to a split, and two other visual English systems emerged.

Dennis Wampler felt that the signs should be presented in the symbols Stokoe had developed as opposed to descriptions or drawings of the signs. At the Starr King School in Sacramento, he developed the Linguistics of Visual English (L.O.V.E.) system. He also believed that a word must be signed the same way regardless of meaning, and he attempted to relate

... a person can know and use English without being able to speak it.

—BARBARA KANNAPELL

a sign to speech, sound, and spelling. His system was published but little more has been heard of it since then.

The third group involved Gustason, Pfetzing, Zawolkow. They called their system Signing Exact English or SEE II.

All three groups retained the same basic objective: to ease the acquisition of English by deaf children. All established principles to govern their systems and attempted to retain or modify existing signs which were unambiguous. All three adhered to the sound/spelling/meaning criteria which Anthony had initially developed. They do not see their systems as a replacement for American Sign Language.

These visual English systems began to introduce many more initialized signs into our sign language. These initialized signs were formed by using the first letter of a word and a traditional sign, if one existed. Where no satisfactory sign existed, a new one was created. The use of initialized signs had been proposed earlier in the mid-1950s by Max N. Mossel, a mathematics teacher at the Missouri School for the Deaf, in a series of articles appearing in *The Silent Worker* entitled "Manually Speaking." Mossel proposed using the same sign and movement but changing the initialization. For example, the sign for "way" with the "r" letter became road, "s" became street,

This 1980 SEE II edition contains 455 pages of signs and descriptions.





Messages using signs or fingerspelling such as this one emerged during the 1970s.

© 1978 LUCE

"p" became path, "l" became lane, and so on. His ideas did not catch on until the visual English systems began using them.

At about this time, Dr. Harry Bornstein, Barbara Kannapell, and Lillian Hamilton were working on a series of Signed English books for preschool deaf children at Gallaudet College.

Meanwhile, other manually coded English sign systems emerged.

In 1971 Anthony produced the first *S.E.E. Manual*. It had approximately 3,000 signs. In 1980 *Seeing Essential English: Codebreaker* and *Seeing Essential English: Elementary Dictionary* appeared. Anthony is one of the co-authors of both books.

A manual on *Signing Exact English* by Gerilee Gustason, Donna Pfezling and Esther Zawolkow first appeared in 1972. It has since gone through many printings and three editions. Within four months of the appearance of the 1980 edition all 15,000 copies were sold out.

The proponents of these visual English systems believe their approach appeals to a larger number of parents of deaf children because it is easier for English speaking adults to learn to use signs following the spoken pattern of English than it is for them to learn American Sign Language. When visual English first appeared many deaf adults who lacked good English skills saw it as a wonderful opportunity for deaf children and regretted that it had arrived too late for them. But, in recent years, as it has been adopted by an increasing number of schools, an increasing resistance

and negative attitude towards it has grown. This could stem, in part from those who see visual English as a threat to American Sign Language, who do not understand it and who are concerned about it "tarnishing" the beauty of American Sign Language. Some visual English signs have already found their way into American Sign Language. But, unlike American Sign Language, which linguists have identified as the natural language of deaf American people, visual English is an artificial language. Linguists who have studied languages for many years do not see an artificial language as a threat to a natural language, as long as it is not imposed on people and communities.

And Interest Grows . . .

This interest in sign language grew beyond some deaf old timers' wildest expectations. ASL became a popular language in the United States. (It has been erroneously reported as the third most widely used language in the country but actually it ranks lower than that.) Dr. Ross Stuckless of the National Technical Institute for the Deaf reported that by the late 1970s more hearing than deaf people had learned it.

Once I learned that ASL is my native language, I developed a strong sense of identity as a deaf person and a more positive self-image.

—BARBARA KANNAPELL

"The Sign Language Store" opened on Yoland Street in Northridge, California. Another store, "The I Love You Gift, Co.," opened in Alexandria, Virginia. At these stores customers could buy wearing apparel, jewelry, school supplies, novelties, and miscellaneous other items with signs and fingerspelling or the I-Love-You symbol printed on them.

Posters and bumper stickers appeared in sign language or fingerspelling urging the public to "Stop Noise Pollution. Learn Sign Language," or "Let Your Fingers Do the Talkin'" or proclaiming "Total Communication—The right of every deaf child." Others advised: "I'm Not Ignoring You, I'm Deaf!" In response to the "Honk, if You Love Jesus" bumper sticker, another appeared with "Wave, if You Love Jesus."

"Keep Quiet," a crosswords cubes game with the manual alphabet on cubes, appeared on the market. Suzie L. Kirchner produced two books, *Play It By Sign* and *Signs for All Seasons: More Sign Language Games* which told how to play games in signs, pantomime, gestures, and fingerspelling. Pre-school readers, cookbooks, and song books in sign language and English came off the presses.

A song, "I Hear Your Hand," written by Mary Jane Rhodes, the mother of a deaf son, was signed on national television by Rita Corey. Deaf and hearing high school and college students and hearing interpreters formed sign-sing groups with such names as "Rock Gospel," "Deaf Awareness Troupe," "Singing Hands," "Breakthrough," "The Expressions," "Sing a Sign," "Vibrations," "Joyful Signs," and others and became popular local performing groups. Mitch Leigh's "The Impossible Dream," and Joe Brook's "You Light Up My Life," became two of the favorite songs used by deaf signers. The signed renditions of these songs touched the hearts of thousands.

Even chimpanzees and a gorilla got into the act. In 1966, Drs. R. Allen and Beatrice T. Gardner, a husband and wife research team at the University of Nevada, began teaching a young female chimp, named Washoe (signed "W" fanning the ear), sign language. The Gardners were interested in learning more about chimpanzees' behavior and capability to learn a human language. Since chimps do not possess the necessary vocal mechanisms to imitate human sound and since their hands closely resemble those of a human, the Gardners decided to experiment with signs. Washoe became the first chimp to converse with people in the language of signs. She learned 34 signs in 22 months and in four years knew 132.

Koko, the gorilla, learned enough signs to ask and respond to questions, to tell how she felt, and even to

tell a lie. Francine Patterson, Koko's trainer, and a doctoral candidate at Stanford University at the time, became interested in the project when she learned about the Gardners' work with Washoe. Koko eventually developed a working vocabulary of 375 signs although she was recorded using as many as 645. Koko was pictured on the cover—she took the picture herself—of the October 1978 issue of *National Geographic*. The magazine printed a story of Patterson and her work with Koko entitled, "Conversations With a Gorilla." This interest in teaching chimps and apes sign language, of course, led to some wisecracks with oral-manual overtones. One went: "Which would you prefer: to be able to talk like a parrot or sign like a monkey?" In the hallway of a pure oral school was hung a picture of Washoe signing; under the picture was a handwritten note: "Do you want to be like her?"

The I-Love-You symbol which dates as far back as 1905 was resurrected and became universally popular. The king and queen of Sweden used it when visiting a school for deaf children recently. President Gerald Ford learned it when he was visited at the White House by Miss 1972 Deaf America, Ann Billington Bahl, and Miss 1974 Deaf America, Pam Young. While running for president, Jimmy Carter learned it on the campaign trail in Kansas City, Missouri, when he met a group of deaf people at one of his rallies. A picture of him using the symbol appeared in the national press. Following his election, *Time* magazine printed a color picture of him using the symbol during his inauguration walk down Pennsylvania Avenue in response to greetings from a crowd of deaf well-wishers. (Vice President Walter Mondale, following in an open car, unfamiliar with the symbol, but gamely trying to respond to the same group, was seen innocently waving an obscene gesture!)

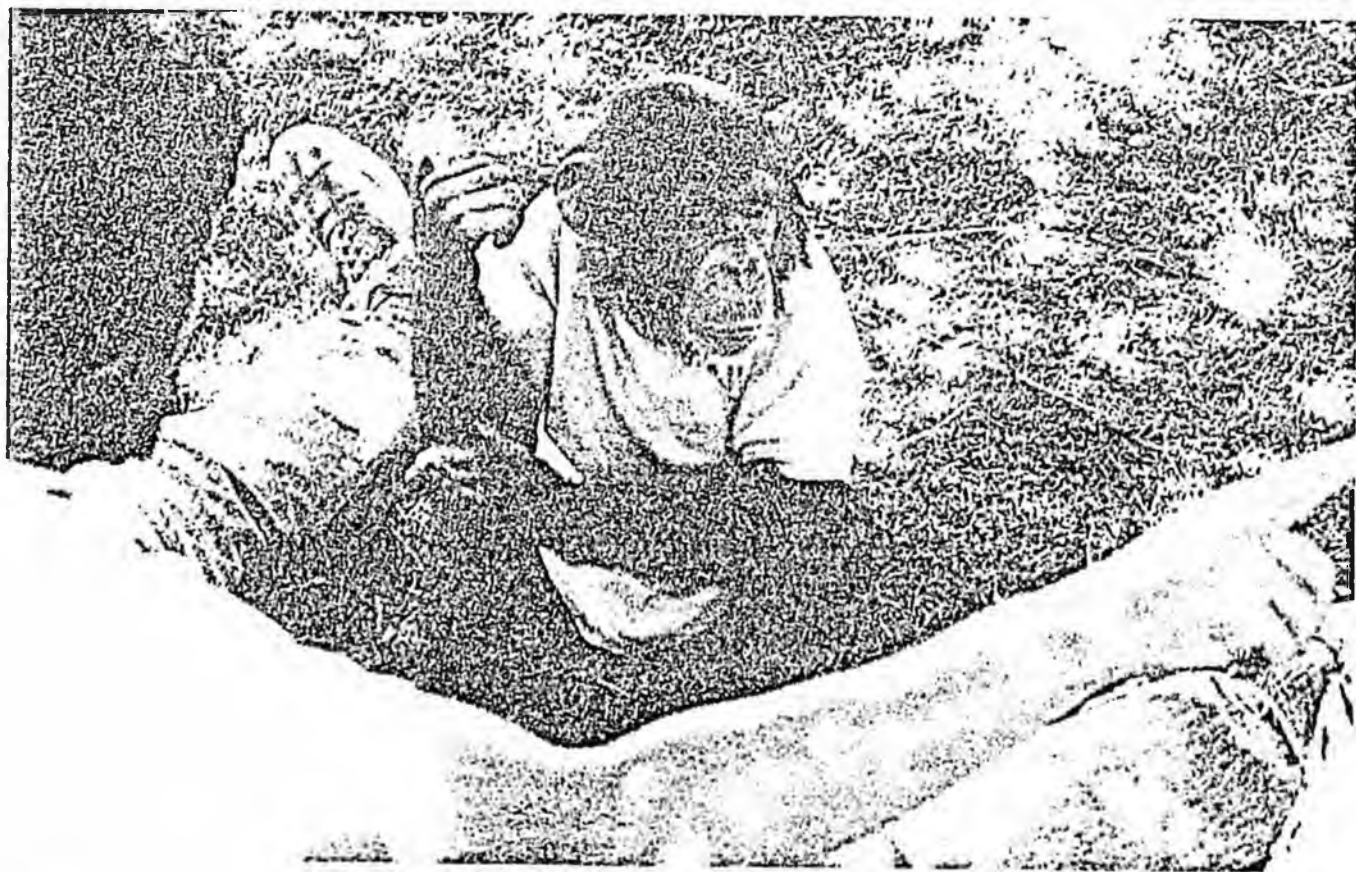
Sign language classes spread. Some congressmen took classes at Gallaudet College; others hired teachers for themselves and their staffs. During the Carter administration, members of the White House security staff learned sign language. Deaf tourists to the White House were surprised to be asked in sign language if they had any questions. More churches began offering interpreted services. Government agencies, private industry, museums, and dinner theaters began offering interpreter services or sign language classes. Many police and fire departments trained their firefighters in basic signs so they could deal effectively with deaf persons in emergencies. The U.S. Park Service added interpreters to some of their regional historical tour sites and hired deaf guides. Some television networks began brief interpreted news programs for their deaf viewers and a few others employed deaf newscasters.

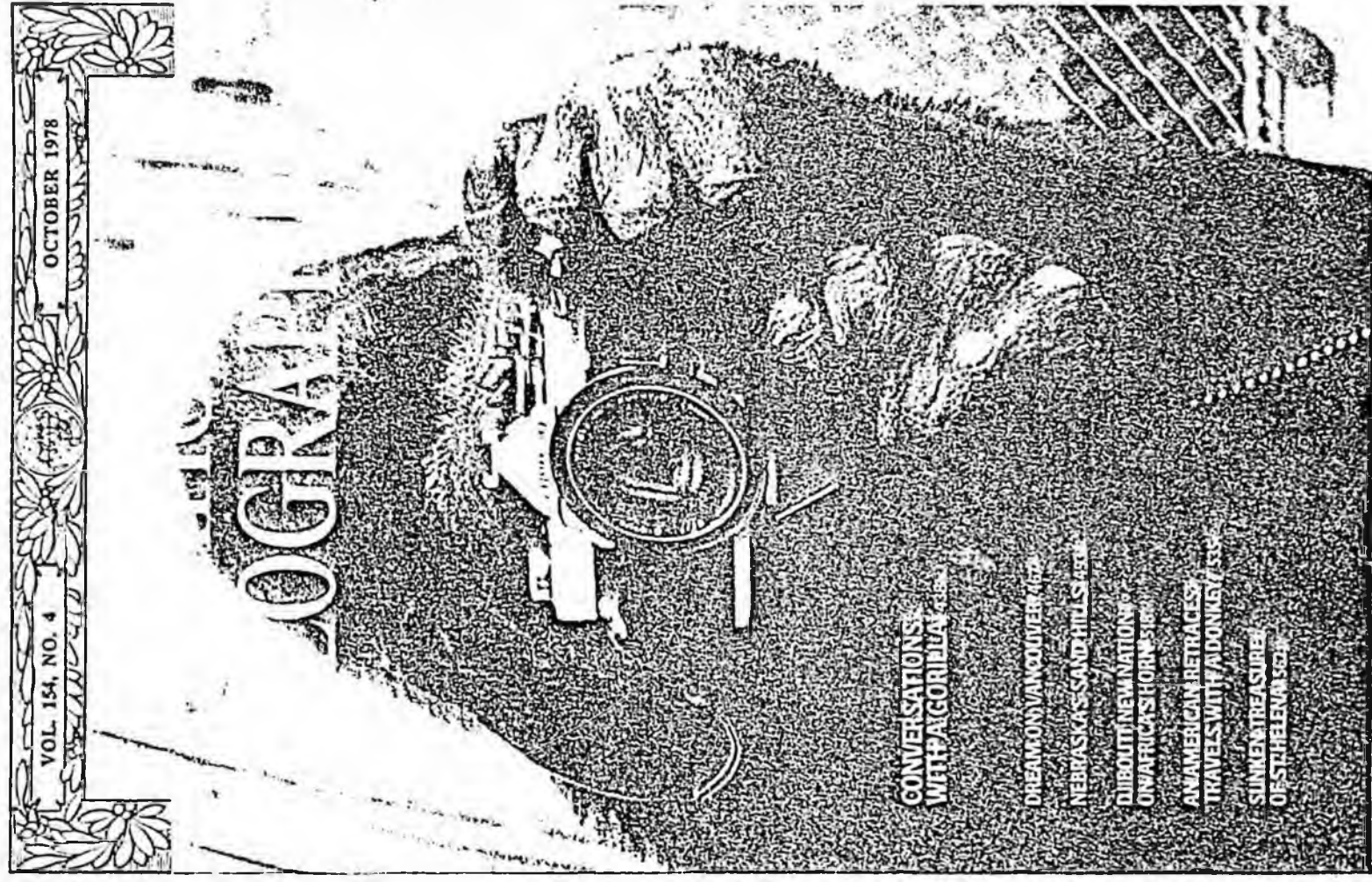


Washoe (above) is signing "sweet" for a lollipop and "hat" (right) for a woolen cap. Photos by R. A. and B. T. Gardner.



Moja, another chimp, signs "tree."





OCTOBER 1978

VOL. 154, NO. 4

GEOGRAPHIC

CONVERSATIONS
WITH A GORILLA

DREAM ON VANCOUVER

NEBRASKA'S SAND HILLS

DJIBOUTI: NEW NATION
ON AFRICA'S HORN

AN AMERICAN RETRACES
TRAVELS WITH A DONKEY

SUN IN TREASURE
OF ST. HELENA

OFFICIAL JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC SOCIETY WASHINGTON, D. C.

Koko, who knows 375 signs, is also a photographer. This self-portrait in a slightly wavy Plexiglass mirror appeared on the cover of the October, 1978 issue of National Geographic. The project to teach Koko sign language was partly funded by the National Geographic Society.

Political candidates began including interpreters with their television ads. Ex-Lax Pharmaceutical Company became one of the first to include an interpreter with their national television commercial. Among those who saw it was Alan Coren, editor of the British humor weekly *Punch*, who commented: "Just the other night in Boston, we saw an Ex-Lax ad for the deaf on the telly. Ah, thank God for America, where the deaf get constipated, too."

Deaf customers around the country were pleased to note the increase in number of business establishments that had a person who could sign. Store clerks at a Washington, D.C., area store began wearing "I Sign" buttons. Fifteen Sears stores in Orange County, California, hired Santa Clauses who could sign for the benefit of deaf children. Macy's in New York City provided interpreters for its Puppet Theatre. Pan Am Airlines accepted sign language as meeting a foreign language requirement in their stewardess training program, and many stewardesses on that airline began using signs to serve their deaf passengers better.

Participants attending the National Association of the Deaf convention at the Olympic Hotel in Seattle, Washington, in 1974 were greeted with cheerful "Good morning" signs, or asked if they would like some coffee by waitresses using signs in the hotel restaurant. Larry Peterson had taught some 40 hotel employees basic signs prior to the convention.

So many people were using simultaneous communication that at times deaf people could not tell if the stranger signing and mouthing words was a deaf or hearing person. Perhaps the biggest surprise of all was the announcement that both oral and manual interpreters would be provided at the Alexander Graham Bell Association convention being held in St. Louis in the summer of 1978.

Community Theatres of the deaf using deaf and hearing actors became popular in the late 1970s. By 1980 there were over 50 such theatrical groups around the country.

In 1974, "Sign Me Alice," was written by Gilbert Fastman, a deaf playwright. It was the first play of its kind. It was a delightfully funny play in sign language, a comedy spoofing sign language and the various sign systems of the day. George Detmold called it "the most popular play ever shown at Gallaudet; it had the



A Quota International candidate for office caught the I-Love-You spirit with this cut-out campaign sticker.

Oh, Signs! What crimes are committed in thy name! Thou art kicked and browbeaten; thou art proscribed and outlawed. They have taken away thy birthright, and thou feedest upon husks and thistles. Wert thou not so inherently vital, so necessary to the complete happiness of the deaf, thou had'st long since been wrapped in thy winding sheet.

—GROVER C. FARQUHAR
1920s

longest run, the largest audience, the greatest critical acclaim."

"Tales from a Club Room," another original play, premiered at the National Association of the Deaf centennial convention in Cincinnati, Ohio, in 1980. Written by Eugene Bergman and Bernard Bragg, it was performed with heavy emphasis on American Sign Language.

But oralism was not without its influence. Times had changed. As more and more people learned more about American Sign Language many teachers of deaf children and deaf adults realized that what they had been using in everyday conversation was not pure ASL, as they had thought, but a combination of ASL and English. Some called it "Pidgin Signed English" and others, "Manual English." Signing in an English context, of course, was nothing new. It was the labels that changed. Signing in an English context, in the 1940s for example was referred to as using the "correct language of signs" and called "Straight English." G. Dewey Coats who coined the term, "Manual English" in 1948, called its users "the hallmark of the better educated deaf person."

There remained, of course, those who preferred "pure" American Sign Language. They believed that, since it was their natural language, they had the right to use ASL at all times. They believed that deaf children should be taught ASL before attempts were made to teach them English, their second language. They believed that deaf children should be introduced to deaf culture as early as possible. Said one ASL proponent: "ASL is very much a part of a deaf person. If you want to change ASL or take ASL away from that person, you are trying to take his or her identity away." Some ASL militants even went as far as to call post-lingual deaf persons who spoke well and used sign simultaneously, "hearing deaf persons."

Today an increasing number of deaf persons sign, fingerspell, and speak or mouth words simultaneously when talking in mixed crowds. Maintaining tightly closed lips is no longer in vogue. The old sign language masters would have winced at such a sight.

Outsiders Converge on School To Espouse Rights of the Deaf

By B. DRUMMOND AYRES Jr.

Special to The New York Times

WASHINGTON, March 8 — The stormy effort by students, faculty members and alumni to win appointment of a deaf president for the nation's only university for the hearing-impaired appeared today to be turning into an expression of the frustrations of deaf people all over the United States.

Representatives of national organizations for the deaf appeared on the campus of the school, Gallaudet University, and joined protesters in calling on Congress and civil rights groups to help reverse a decision by the Gallaudet board to name a president who is not deaf.

At campus rallies throughout the day, including one in which effigies of the president-elect and school officials were hanged and burned, protesters repeatedly cited the appointment last weekend as symbolic of the "oppression" that they contended is often experienced by the nation's deaf people.

The demonstrators contended that there were deaf and hearing-impaired people who were qualified to run Gallaudet, some of them trained by the university itself. But they said their concerns were larger than the appointment of the school's president. The

message was that, like the civil rights movement and the women's movement, theirs is a cause for reform.

"I'm not going to let my deaf rights get hurt," Eric Spanbauer, a 26-year-old student, told The Associated Press today. "I've been waiting too long, this is our time."

Among the outsiders who showed up, seemingly serving notice that the protest was becoming a national cause, was Gary W. Olsen, executive director of the National Association for the Deaf.

"The board doesn't understand the people it's governing," Mr. Olsen said, speaking in sign language that an interpreter put into speech. "The board is further behind on this issue than the population of the country in general. The school educates the deaf to lead, then won't give deaf people a chance to

Continued on Page 8, Column 1



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New York Times
3-9-88



The New York Times, Jan. 1978

Elisabeth Ann Zinser, who was appointed president of Gallaudet University in Washington. She is shown making the sign for the university.

Students' Protest Becomes Rallying Point for the Deaf

Continued From Page A1

lead. We're tired of oppression and we're going to fight this all the way and make the issue a torch of hope.

Classrooms at the university, a fully accredited institution with a broad curriculum and a competitive sports program, reopened this morning after being closed yesterday because of demonstrations. But it appeared that few of the university's 2,200 students and only a scattering of its faculty members showed up.

More protests and meetings were scheduled for Wednesday, including one faculty meeting that may provide a better reading on just how much opposition there is to the appointment in that crucial area. The student body seems almost as one in its opposition.

Board Stands by Decision

The protest began late Sunday night shortly after the Gallaudet board announced that it had chosen Elisabeth Ann Zinser, vice president of academic affairs and a professor at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, to be the seventh president of the 121-

National groups
join the call for a
deaf president at
the school.

continued

year-old university, whose 100-acre campus lies about a mile northeast of the Capitol. Two candidates for the position who had hearing impairments were passed over.

The protests have been almost non-stop since then. But the 18 members of the Gallaudet board, three of them deaf, have given no indication thus far that they intend to back off. "The board of trustees has made its decision, has announced it and stands by it," Jane Bassett Spilman, the board's chairwoman, said late this afternoon in a telephone interview from her home in Bassett, Va.

According to Mrs. Spilman, the board looked at the qualifications of 67 persons before deciding on Dr. Zinser. "I'm not saying there is no one out there who is hearing impaired who can do the job," Mrs. Spilman said. "I'm saying that the board found no one who was hearing impaired in the group of names that was brought forward who met the needed qualifications."

Late tonight, the university announced that Mrs. Spilman and Dr. Zinser would be in Washington tomorrow for a news conference. "They will explain the reasoning behind the board's decision," a school spokesman said.

Appointee Learning to Sign

The school has about 275 full-time faculty, about a third are deaf or hearing impaired. It has never had a president with serious hearing problems, according to school officials.

While many faculty and staff members have no hearing difficulties, all are required to learn sign language. School officials said Mrs. Zinser was learning to sign. Jerry C. Lee, who was the sixth president, left the university at the end of 1987 after three years as president to become vice president of a furniture company run by Mrs. Spilman's husband.

When it became known that Dr. Lee would be leaving Gallaudet, some students and faculty members began to press openly for appointment of a deaf or hearing impaired person as the next president. So fervent were their feelings on the issue that they underscored their demand with several campus marches prior to the board's weekend decision.

One of the leaders of the most recent protests, Jerry Covell, a 23-year-old senior from Bowie, Md., said that demonstrations would continue as long as it took to force the board to reverse its decision. "We will stay out of the classroom forever if we have to," he said, speaking, like most students, in sign language through an interpreter.

"We will be non-violent and will use civil disobedience. We are seeking outside help, including money and the support of other organizations."

Many of the protesters are looking to Congress for help. Gallaudet is a federally chartered school and receives more than three-fourths of its operating budget from Congress.

As of today, however, Congressional reaction had been limited.

During one rally in front of the main gates of the school today, protesters vowed not to end their demonstrations until four demands had been met. First and foremost, they said, the seventh president of Gallaudet would have to be hearing impaired. Then, they continued, Mrs. Spilman would have to resign from the university's board and a new board would have to be appointed with a membership more than one-half deaf. Finally, the protesters said, they want the school administration to promise that there would be no reprisals against any student or staff member involved in "our historical movement."

Among those who joined the protesters today was Gerald Burstein, the president of the Gallaudet University Alumni Association. "The Gallaudet University Board's decision to select a hearing president is a setback for deaf people everywhere," he said. "If Gallaudet does not exert leadership in this area, no one else will. Those members of the board who lack confidence in the abilities of deaf persons have no business serving on the board."

While Gallaudet is considered one of the foremost schools for the hearing impaired in the world, school officials, in lighter moments, like to point out that the school also should be given credit for one other notable achievement. It developed the football huddle in the 1890's to prevent opposing teams from seeing discussion of the next play.

3-14-88 New York Times

GALLAUDET PICKS

A DEAF PRESIDENT

Leader of Board Resigns and Reassessment Is Planned

By B. DRUMMOND AYRES JR.

Special to The New York Times

WASHINGTON, March 13 — The board of trustees of Gallaudet University, the nation's only institution of higher learning for the hearing impaired, moved tonight to end a week of unrest at the school by choosing a deaf person as its next president.

The 124-year-old university has never before had a deaf president.

At the same time, the board elected a new chairman, who also has a hearing impairment, and set up a study commission to study ways to restructure the board. The majority of the commission's members also have hearing problems.

The outgoing chairman, Jane Bassett Spilman of Bassett, Va., resigned, acknowledging that her leadership had become too controversial and that she needed to "remove the obstacle."

National Rights Movement

By its actions, the board appeared to meet most of the demands of a coalition of Gallaudet students, faculty and alumni that had shut down the school and sparked a national movement for rights for the deaf after the board attempted to install a president who had no hearing problems. The coalition argued that Gallaudet could not be run effectively except by a deaf person because only a deaf person could truly understand the institution.

Meeting in special session much of today, the board picked I. King Jordan, dean of the Gallaudet college of arts and sciences, to be the eighth president

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THE NEW YORK TIMES NATIONAL MONDAY, MARCH 14, 1988

Meeting Demands, Gallaudet Picks Deaf President

Continued From Page 1

of the 2,200-student institution. Dr. Jordan was one of two hearing impaired candidates passed over by the Gallaudet board a week ago when it chose an educator with no hearing problems, Dr. Elisabeth Ann Zinser, to be Gallaudet's seventh president, and the first woman in the post. That choice set off a vehement round of campus protests that shut down classes and led to Dr. Zinser's resignation on Friday.

In announcing the appointment of Dr. Jordan, the new president of the board, Philip W. Bravin, International Business Machines Corporation executive from New York, said the 44-year-old dean had told him earlier in the evening "he is really pleased and ready to work." During the protests, Dr. Jordan initially backed Dr. Zinser but later, after a majority of the Gallaudet faculty had come out in opposition to her, sided with the protesters.

Protesters' Demands

Mr. Bravin said he also had been in touch with the leaders of the Gallaudet protest and they had promised him that the unrest would end, "not tomorrow but now."

In the weeklong impasse at Gallaudet, a federally chartered and supported institution situated on a 100-acre campus about a mile northeast of Capi-

tol Hill, the coalition of protesters had demanded not only that Dr. Zinser be replaced by a hearing-impaired president but also that Mrs. Spilman be replaced and that the board be restructured so that at least half of its members are hearing-impaired. Only four of the 21 trustees have hearing problems.

Mrs. Spilman said initially that she would not resign unless asked to do so by the board. Tonight she said she went "willingly" but did not elaborate except to say her departure was "in the best interest of the university" because she had become so controversial.

She had contended throughout the

protest period that a person who is not deaf could run an institution for the deaf effectively. But she acknowledged she was surprised by the outburst the Zinser appointment caused. She also promised that no reprisals would be taken against any protesters, which was initially one of the coalition's major concerns.

Protesters Praise Zinser

Dr. Zinser resigned the president's post after being on the job for only five days and never being able to set foot on the campus. She returned to her previous position as vice president of academic affairs at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, saying the Gallaudet protest was a "civil rights movement" whose time had come.

This morning, the protesters released a copy of a letter they sent to Dr. Zinser in which they praised her for a "graceful exit" and wished her "great success in future endeavors."

"History as it evolves is often difficult to grasp, but this time is the time for a 'revolution,'" the letter said. "You were, of course, an innocent victim and an unfortunate target of our collective anger. We will continue to fight for our cause until our demands are met. We will have our day in the sun."

New York Times 3-14-88

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CORRECTION

**THIS DOCUMENT
HAS BEEN REPHOTOGRAPHED
TO ASSURE LEGIBILITY**

3-14-88 New York Times

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New York Times 3-14-88

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Fairbanks Daily News-Miner, Fairbanks, Alaska



NEW PRESIDENT—I. King Jordan is cheered by students Sunday as he talks to the media following his appointment as president of Gallaudet University in Washington, D.C. Jordan is the first deaf president in the 124-year history of the university for the hearing-impaired.

Associated Press

National

Monday, March 14, 1988—15

University head proclaims win for deaf

WASHINGTON (AP)—I. King Jordan said today his appointment as the first hearing-impaired president of Gallaudet University, the nation's only liberal arts college for the deaf, is a victory for students and the deaf community across the country.

"What it means to the students, it means to the deaf community at large and that's—it opens up new horizons for deaf people," Jordan said on ABC-TV's "Good Morning America."

Jordan, dean of the school's college of arts and sciences, was selected by Gallaudet trustees on Sunday after what began as an isolated campus protest last week turned into an international forum on deaf rights.

Students had sought a deaf leader to serve as the school's eighth president, but last week the board of trustees selected Elisabeth Ann Zinser, a hearing woman who did not know sign language.

A week of protests shut down the campus as students called for the appointment of a deaf president and the resignation of board of trustees Chairwoman Jane Bassett Spilman, who had come under fire for her handling of the crisis. Sunday night, seven days after their

protest began, the students were victorious on both counts.

Officials announced the appointment of Jordan, 44, to replace Zinser, who resigned Friday, and the resignation of Spilman, who also hears normally and had chaired the board for six years.

She will be replaced by Philip W. Bravin, one of four deaf members of the board.

"I took this step willingly," Spilman said. "In the minds of some, I've become an obstacle to the future of the university. I am removing that obstacle."

Jordan, who had endorsed Zinser's presidency at mid-week but later retracted his backing, today praised the students' efforts.

"I think that they really honestly believe that they were motivated in a positive way to do positive things, and the outcome has been very positive," said the new president. "It's our responsibility now as administrators, me and Phil Bravin, to make sure we channel that

energy in a positive way."

Jordan, who also appeared on "CBS This Morning," said the students realize "this was something very special. There's not going to be an opportunity for this kind of movement again."

"The battle cry was, 'deaf president now;' it has become, 'deaf president forever,'" he said.

Student protest leader Jerry Coveil said Sunday that the demonstrators' actions mark "the first time we've ever shown the world what we want, and that we can get it."

"God made the world in seven days and we have changed it in seven days," said Charles A. Gian-santi, a deaf chemistry professor, after the decision was announced.

Bravin said the board would form a task force to study its own composition in response to student demands that deaf people comprise a majority of the 20 member panel. There also will be no reprisals

against student protesters, Bravin said.

Gallaudet, which offers undergraduate and graduate degrees in 30 fields, receives 75 percent of its \$76 million budget in federal funds. A House Education and Labor subcommittee plans to conduct hearings Tuesday into the school's bylaws governing presidential selection and composition of the board.

Zinser resigned two days after Rep. David Bonior., D-Mich. and a member of the university's board, hinted that the federal aid could be in jeopardy unless a deaf president were named.

Deaf groups and schools around the country had supported the students' demands, as had a majority of the Gallaudet faculty.

Jordan, 44, was a finalist for the position when Zinser was selected last Sunday. Before becoming dean in 1986 of Gallaudet's largest undergraduate department, Jordan

served as a psychology professor at the school.

After students learned of Jordan's appointment, they attempted to put into perspective a struggle that had captured worldwide attention.

"This is not the end; this is the beginning," said Bridgetta Bourne, a protest leader.

"This is where we start from now. We have gained this, and we will never have deafness work against us again," she said.

Deaf Fairbanksans want to assure voices heard

By KELLY BOSTIAN
Staff Writer

Deaf people in Fairbanks heard the news of protesters' triumph on what has been called the "quietest college campus in the United States." Now they want to make sure those who can hear are listening as well.

Students and faculty shut down Gallaudet College last week to protest the appointment of a hearing president. Elisabeth Ann Zinser, who is not deaf and does not know sign language, gave in to mounting pressure for a deaf president and stepped down Friday.

Gallaudet University's board of trustees on Sunday chose the dean of the school's college of arts and sciences to become the first deaf president in the 124-year history of the school for the hearing impaired. Nearly all the protesters' demands were met before the weekend was out.

Members of the Farthest North Club of the Deaf plan to demonstrate their support for the Washington, D.C. students Tuesday at noon with a rally at Bicentennial Park at Cushman and 7th Avenue.

Noel Walker, a member of the Fairbanks club, explained at a meeting Friday night why the appointment of a deaf president

New president of Gallaudet College proclaims victory for the deaf. Page 15.

was so important. "Gallaudet College is the only deaf college in the country," she spoke and signed in unison. "And like on TV, as the student body president said, it's a place where deaf people look to for role models, for people who succeed in their jobs. If they did it, I can do it."

Walker added that the school is not only a college, but also a community within a nationwide deaf community and culture that has close, emotional ties.

"I think that deaf people are ready to break away from what they call authority figures," she signed. "I think deaf people are ready to say, 'No, we want to run our own things. We want to tell you about ourselves. You don't really know us. We know us, and we want to tell you about us. We're breaking away from authority figures who think they know about us.'"

Emma Morgan signed her opinion with force. Her voice was loud, though the words were garbled. It emphasized the emotion in her hand signals. "I am so

proud of what happened," she signed. "I am really proud to say that we can stick together and solve our own problems."

William Weis, president of the club, said he liked what presidential candidate Jesse Jackson had said, "It's not that the deaf people can't hear, it's that hearing people don't listen."

"I like that," Weis signed. "Black people have fought for their rights and I think the deaf people are doing the same," Walker added. "They're fighting for their rights to do things that they are capable of doing and that hearing people say they're not capable of."

The oppression of the deaf may not be as clearly visible as discrimination on account of race or religion, but to the deaf it is both obvious and painful.

Candis Shannon, who works as a bookkeeper for Laborers Union Local 942, once could hear, and was a musician with the Fairbanks Symphony Orchestra. She lost her hearing to illness and learned of the prejudice firsthand.

She spoke in slow, careful words, "This world right now, where we live, has an unspoken acceptance that people who are different are not as good . . . I am deaf, and I am ready for a



SHOWING SUPPORT—Noel Walker and William Weis, president of the Farthest North Club of the Deaf, paint picket signs Saturday for a rally in support of students at Gallaudet College. The rally will take place Tuesday at Bicentennial Park.
Kelly Bostian News-Miner

world where, hearing group, deaf group, it doesn't matter. It's not a group categorized as 'hearing is higher, deaf is lower.'

"People don't think about it, but people, hearing people, inside, think deaf people are not capable. I know because I became deaf, I was hearing before.

I watched myself tell myself that 'I'm not good anymore,' and that's not true. And I'm ready for a world where deaf and hearing are equal."

ENABLING ACT

Thirty-Eighth Congress of the
United States of America

AT THE FIRST SESSION

Began and held at the City of Washington, on Monday, the seventh
day of December, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three.

An Act

To authorize the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb
and the Blind, to confer degrees.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives
of the United States of America in Congress assembled.

That the Board of Directors of the Columbia Institution for
the instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, and the Blind be, and
they are hereby authorized and empowered to grant and
confirm such degrees in the liberal arts and sciences to such
pupils of the Institution, or others, who by their proficiency
in learning, or other meritorious distinction they shall think
entitled to them, as are usually granted and conferred in
Colleges; and to grant to such graduates diplomas or cer-
nificates, sealed and signed in such manner as said Board of
Directors may determine, to authenticate and perpetuate the
memory of such graduation.

(Signed) SCHUYLER COLFAX
Speaker of the House of Representatives

(Signed) H. HAMLIN
Vice-President of the United States
and President of the Senate

Approved, April 8, 1864

(Signed) ABRAHAM LINCOLN

The charter establishing Gallaudet College.



PROMOTING THE RIGHT OF PERSONS WHO EXPERIENCE A DISABILITY TO LIVE INDEPENDENTLY

MAY 9 1988

WINTER 1988

Toll Free: (800) 478-4488

optional; which ones are really the priorities, and then review whether those goals fit into the available time, energy, and money...

Try to balance activities for the family as a whole with individual needs. Find out what each member is willing to do toward meeting family goals... This may be the time to be assertive if someone else wants to do something but seems unwilling to help with preparations.

Plan who is to do what by when. Use calendar and checklist if these will be helpful. Frequent review of how things are going may be essential so that no one gets left out or over extended or resentful.

(Remember to review in January how the past holiday season has gone... this is the opportunity for evaluation, feedback, and writing down some ideas for next year...)

Being with others can be fun and offer chance to share good wishes... is there someone who might otherwise be alone who might be included in your family?

If you are likely to be lonely, could you invite other individuals or other families to join you in meals, crafts, or other activities?

Try scheduling two parties on consecutive days which may allow you to prepare in quantity and have table and serving pieces set up for use.

Also think about cooking double recipes of family favorites... one to eat and the other to freeze for a later busy day.

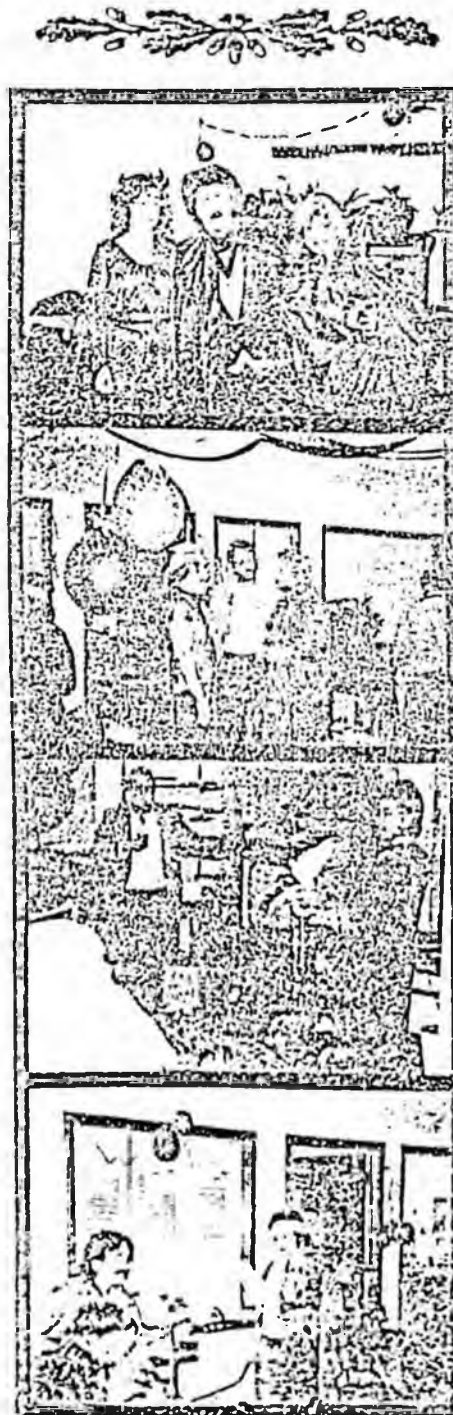
If finances are tight, think snacks and beverages rather than a big, sit-down dinner. Or arrange a potluck where each member of a group makes and brings a dish to share... less work for one person.

Let small get-togethers be a time to accomplish things as well as to visit... craft projects, decorate the tree, help someone in need, etc... work plus refreshments plus conversation can equal fun!

Remember to think "dual purpose"... could make a centerpiece and present it to a guest to take home... or use pomsettias as decorations and gifts to give... or make candles and offer one to each person or family when they leave... use your imagination.

Rhoda Vander Voort,
Happier Holidays Workshops

Lynnette Angell



DEAF AND BLIND PERSONS NOW ELIGIBLE FOR JURY SERVICE

As a result of a change in state law, deaf and blind persons are now eligible to serve as jurors in state courts. This law took effect on September 10, 1987.

Prior to this change in the law, the names of persons who returned jury questionnaires indicating that they were blind or deaf were *permanently removed* from the master jury list.

If you are blind or deaf, and if you returned a jury questionnaire in past years indicating that you were disabled, your name WILL NOT appear on the master jury list *unless you notify the Alaska Court System that you want your name reinstated on the list.*

To request reinstatement on the master jury list, send your full name, address, phone number, social security number and date of birth to:

Richard Delaplain
Manager, Technical Operations
Alaska Court System
303 K Street
Anchorage, Alaska 99501

The Other Side of Silence

Arden Neisser

1983

Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet was born in Philadelphia in 1787. He graduated from Yale in 1805, and taught there for several years before going to the Andover Theological Seminary. He had just become a Congregational minister when he met Alice Cogswell, and was twenty-seven years old when he made the trip to Europe. Accounts of the trip give the impression that he went somewhat reluctantly and did not plan to stay long. He still had hopes of spending the rest of his life as a minister. He was gone for more than a year.

In England, his first stop, he encountered the Thomas Braidwood family, proprietors of several schools teaching an oral method. He spent almost two-thirds of the year negotiating with various members of the family about enrolling at one of their schools as a student teacher. Control of the schools amounted to a profitable monopoly that the Braidwoods aimed to keep. One member of the family, John, was in America at the time of Gallaudet's arrival trying to set up an oral school in Virginia. John's trip was only partly business; the other part was exile and rehabilitation—he drank—and the family did not have high expectations. When John failed, the Braidwoods attempted to come to terms with Gallaudet. They offered to open a school in Connecticut and run it exactly as they ran the other schools, as a franchise. They tried to extract an oath of secrecy from Gallaudet before offering him training, and refused to release any of their teachers from similar oaths of secrecy.

Exasperated, Gallaudet got in touch with Sicard and was invited to Paris to learn the *signes méthodiques*. Three months later, he returned to America accompanied by Laurent Clerc, a

former deaf pupil of Sicard and a teacher at the Paris school. Clerc accompanied Gallaudet on speaking tours and demonstrations; he lobbied state legislatures as well as Congress in his already excellent written English (he is described as carrying a small slate and chalk), and was received at the White House by President Monroe. He helped Gallaudet establish the first school in this hemisphere, the American Asylum in Hartford, and became the first deaf teacher of the deaf in America. Together, Gallaudet and Clerc adapted the French method to English.

Pedagogy being what it is, the two teachers tinkered with the language, trying to make it more efficient, inventing and adding new signs. The methodological signs, originally intended to make written grammar easier, made signed grammar more difficult as more signs represented English words rather than meanings. (These signs required a double translation: from sign to word to meaning. Natural signs go directly from sign to meaning.) The situation was further complicated by the fact that since there were deaf individuals on the American continent, there was also an indigenous natural sign language. Historians call it Old American Sign Language.

Within a rather short time the methodological signs proved too unwieldy, and except for the signs already absorbed into the language, it was abandoned for a more natural system: a merger of the Old American signs and the French signs of Clerc that evolved into American Sign Language.

Clerc not only instructed children, he trained teachers—many of whom were also deaf. Teachers skilled in ASL spread the language throughout an expanding network of schools and taught it for more than sixty years before oralism forced it underground (there are deaf people living today who were educated by students of Clerc). Despite its suppression, ASL is the language used by the deaf throughout the United States and Canada. It is probably the most widely known and used sign language in the world. Deaf Europeans are tremendously impressed at the nationwide use of ASL and express envy that deaf

persons from all over North America can understand each other, whereas in Europe, people from neighboring cities often cannot.

People with normal hearing learn spoken language by hearing it, and by hearing the sound of their own voices. The deaf, who can't hear and get no auditory feedback, cannot learn spoken language naturally. The inability to hear and to acquire speech is the only serious consequence of deafness; in comparison, all other sounds in the environment are trivial. For centuries the link between hearing and speaking was poorly understood. No functional relationship was considered. There was thought to be some deficiency in the brain, or a single obstruction that stopped both ears and vocal cords. Language itself had mystical qualities, a gift of God, bestowed.

Deaf individuals being taught to speak have been noted only rarely in the past. There were one or two in the sixteenth century, around the time that the manual alphabet was developed, and a few in the seventeenth. Most of the stories emphasized the miraculous powers of the teacher while giving few details regarding the pupil. Some teachers made distinctions about degree of hearing loss in their students, and some did not. Many used manual alphabets and signs, and reports of speech ability varied widely.

Beginning in the eighteenth century, and erupting in the nineteenth, a real battle began for nothing less than the identity of deaf human beings. It is called the oral/manual controversy, as inaccurate a term as the mind/body split which it also reflects. It added an unbearable dilemma to a crushing handicap.

Oralism became not only a teaching method but a philosophy of life, a model for deaf behavior, and a strong religious belief. As speech was God-given, that which separated man from beast, it was a sin to permit the deaf to remain silent. Gestures were like tools of the devil. The oralists maintained and still maintain that because signing is easier for deaf children to learn,

it inhibits the acquisition of speech, that children who learn sign language lose the will to speak. Critics of oralism have called it a denial of deafness. The method is built around artificial speech production and substitute hearing: lipreading.

A great deal of mystery surrounds lipreading. It seems uncorrelated with intelligence, unaffected by motivation. "It's a talent," more than one teacher has told me. "Some kids just have it. Like perfect pitch." Most speech sounds are not made at the lips at all; only 40 percent of English phonemes are visible. Four words out of an average eleven-word sentence is considered good. The rest is gathering meaning from context, from facial expression, and from guessing. A few are remarkably good at it.

Occasionally, deaf persons will become skilled at reading the speech of certain family members and no one else; or they may be successful only under ideal conditions: face to face, and one on one. Oral interpreters are now being trained for those deaf persons who do not use sign language, though the entire rationale for oral education should make this sort of service unnecessary.

Hearing people with one practice session do just as well on lipreading tests as deaf people who have had years of training. Lipreading is not a good way to learn English, but a thorough knowledge of English appears to be necessary in learning to lipread. Adults who already know English and who are losing their hearing benefit considerably from lipreading instruction. It is also a valuable skill for persons with moderate hearing loss. Modern hearing aids often pick up enough additional information to make lipreading possible and efficient.

Speech is a different problem. There have always been two populations of deaf: those born without hearing, the congenitally deaf, and those who lose their hearing later in life, sometimes called the adventitious deaf. Modern physicians and language experts prefer to call them pre-lingually and post-lingually deaf: those who lost their hearing before or after the acquisition of language.

Estimates of the incidence of deafness in the United States range from 2 million deaf, to 14 million with some kind of hearing impairment. The most recent census, published in 1974, *The Deaf Population of the United States*, reported a total of 1.8 million deaf persons. Almost a million of those had lost their hearing after the age of fifty. The target population sought by the census was called the pre-vocational deaf: "those who had lost, or never had the ability to hear and understand speech before the age of nineteen." There were about 420,000 people in this group. Most of them had become deaf before they were three: they had grown up deaf.

The demographers identified the pre-vocationally deaf as the population receiving the maximum number of services—educational, medical, vocational—and by implication, recognized them as a cultural and political entity. The age range (birth through adolescence) is exactly the period when human beings learn and develop language skills. The size of the population corresponds closely to the estimated number of ASL signers in the country: nearly 500,000. During the years when language learning is natural and easy, deaf youngsters, whether they master English or not, learn ASL.

How children acquire language, all language, all over the world, and under every possible condition of life, is not precisely understood. All children seem to be born with the ability. It's not quite imitation and it's not exactly learning. "There are none so depraved," said Descartes, "that they cannot arrange different words together, forming of them a statement by which they make known their thoughts."

Children acquiring spoken language not only hear the words, they also notice the arrangement, the syntax. By the time children are five years old, most of them have learned the syntax of their native language. They know how to order words, and they know that words in different arrangements mean different things. This aspect of spoken language is particularly inaccessible to deaf children, especially those born deaf. They cannot

hear the rhythms of spoken utterances, and develop little feeling for English syntax. Deaf children have no difficulty understanding the syntax of ASL, and pick up the rhythms of sign as spontaneously as hearing children pick up English.

S B

4 4 4

HOUSE STATE AFFAIRS COMMITTEE

NEXT COMMITTEE: JUDICIARY

BILL: SB 444

CURRENT VERSION: CS SB 444 (FIN)

SCHEDULED: APRIL 27, 1988

SPONSOR: HENSLEY

PHONE NO: 3862

CONTACT FILE: _____

BILL SUBJECT: ELIGIBILITY FOR PERMANENT FUND DIVIDENDS AND PROVIDING CIVIL PENALTIES FOR CERTAIN CONDUCT

SPONSOR BACKUP: IN FILES

AFFECTED AGENCIES:

<u>DEPARTMENT</u>	<u>CONTACT/PHONE</u>	<u>COMMENT</u>
REVENUE	ROYCE WELLER/2303	
REVENUE	CLIFF GROH	

FISCAL NOTES

<u>AGENCY</u>	<u>REQUESTED</u>	<u>DATED</u>	<u>FY 88 AMT</u>	<u>FY 89 AMT</u>
REVENUE/PFD DIVISION		4/12/88	-0-	-0-

ACTION

<u>DATE</u>	<u>COMMENT</u>
4/25/88	HEARING: HELD FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION
4/27/88	ADDITIONAL TESTIMONY; HCS ADOPTED AND PASSED FROM COMMITTEE

HOUSE COMMITTEE REPORT

(7)

Date referred: 4/15/88

FURTHER REFERRALS: Judiciary

DATE: 4-27-88

The State Affairs Committee has considered CSSB 444(Fin)

"An Act relating to eligibility for permanent fund dividends and providing civil penalties for certain conduct involving permanent fund dividends; and providing for an effective date."

RECOMMENDS:

- replace with HCS CS SB 444(SA) the same title
- attached amendment(s) a new title
- do pass
- do not pass
- no recommendation
- individual recommendations
- additional referral to the _____ Committee

ADOPTS: _____ letter of intent

ATTACHES NEW FISCAL NOTE(S):

- fiscal impact same as previous fiscal note published _____
- zero fiscal note same as previous zero fiscal note published 4/12/88
- zero with analysis

SIGNING DO PASS:

W.A. Brucher (as amend)
David J. Jolley
Mark [unclear]
[unclear]
[unclear]

SIGNING OTHER RECOMMENDATIONS:

Terry Martin - needs amendment to protect military residents

[Signature]
 Chairman's signature

Original sponsors: Hensley, Kerttula,
Abood and Eliason

1 IN THE SENATE

BY THE STATE AFFAIRS COMMITTEE

2 HOUSE CS FOR CS FOR SENATE BILL NO. 444 (State Affairs)

3 IN THE LEGISLATURE OF THE STATE OF ALASKA

4 FIFTEENTH LEGISLATURE - SECOND SESSION

5 A BILL

6 For an Act entitled: "An Act relating to eligibility for permanent fund
7 dividends and providing civil penalties for certain
8 conduct involving permanent fund dividends; and
9 providing for an effective date."

10 BE IT ENACTED BY THE LEGISLATURE OF THE STATE OF ALASKA:

11 * Section 1. AS 43.23.005(a) is amended to read:

12 (a) An individual is eligible to receive one permanent fund
13 dividend each year in an amount to be determined under AS 43.23.025 if
14 the individual applies to the department, and if

15 (1) on the date of application the individual is a state
16 resident; [AND]

17 (2) the individual was a state resident for a period of at
18 least six consecutive months immediately preceding April 1 of the
19 current dividend year; and

20 (3) the individual has been physically present in the state
21 at some time during the period beginning July 1 two years before the
22 date of application and ending on the date of application; in this
23 paragraph "physically present" means being physically present in the
24 state, or, if not physically present, absent only for service in
25 Congress or service as a staff person to a member of the Alaska dele-
26 gation to Congress.

27 * Sec. 2. AS 43.23.015(b) is amended to read:

28 (b) The department shall prescribe and furnish an application
29 form for claiming a permanent fund dividend. The application must

1 contain a statement of eligibility and a certification of residency in
2 substantially the following form:

3 I certify that

4 () I am a state resident on the date of this ap-
5 plication, [AND] I have been a state resident for at
6 least six months immediately preceding April 1 of the
7 current dividend year, and I have been physically
8 present as defined in AS 43.23.005(a)(3) at some time
9 during the period beginning July 1 two years before
10 the date of application and ending on the date of
11 this application; or

12 () (name), the individual on whose behalf I am
13 applying, is a state resident on the date of this
14 application, [AND] has been a state resident for at
15 least six months immediately preceding April 1 of
16 the current dividend year, and has been physically
17 present as defined in AS 43.23.005(a)(3) at some time
18 during the period beginning July 1 two years before
19 the date of application and ending on the date of
20 this application.

21 I understand that a false claim of eligibility
22 [RESIDENCY] to obtain a permanent fund dividend for
23 myself or for another is a criminal offense, [AND]
24 that if convicted I will forfeit future [PERMANENT
25 FUND] dividends, and that I must repay all [PERMA-
26 NENT FUND] dividends that have been paid to me. I
27 understand that if I wilfully misrepresent, exer-
28 cise gross negligence, or recklessly disregard a
29 material fact regarding my eligibility for a perma-

AMENDMENT 1-B

Include in new section with Definition section:

"physically present" means being physically present in the state, or, if not physically present, absent only for service in Congress, service on the staff of a Member of Congress, service on the staff of the Governor in Washington, D.C., or service on the staff of the Alaska Legislature in Washington, D.C."

Employee is present - A. Per,
member

STATE OF ALASKA
THE LEGISLATURE

POUCH V - STATE CAPITOL
JUNEAU, ALASKA 99811
907-465-3800

LEGISLATIVE AFFAIRS AGENCY

LEGISLATIVE REFERENCE LIBRARY

May, 1988

Copies of minutes listed below were originally included in this file. The minutes are available on the STAIRS database CMPR. In order to save space copies of minutes have not been left in the files.

Mary Van Nimwegen

HSA	4-27-88	3:00p.m.
HSA	4-25-88	3:00p.m.

AMENDMENT 1-A

Include in section with Definitions section:

"physically present" means being physically present in the state, or, if not physically present, absent only for service in Congress or on the staff of a Member of Congress"

On page 1, lines 22, delete "application." and insert "application; or"

On page 1, line 23, insert a new subsection to read:

"(4) the individual has been working in ~~Washington, D.C.~~ ^[Outside the state] for a Member of Alaska's Congressional delegation or the Governor of Alaska, at some time during the current dividend year; or is the spouse or dependent of such individual.

Ancendment

F-
Adel?
Hansen
suggestion

On page 2, line 7 insert a new paragraph to read:

"() I am a state resident on the date of this application; I have been a state resident for at least six months immediately preceding April 1 of the current dividend year; and I have been ~~working in Washington, D.C.~~ for a Member of Alaska's Congressional delegation or the Governor of Alaska, at some time during the current dividend year, or am a spouse or dependent of such individual.

On page 2, line 14, delete "application." and insert "application; or"

On page 2, line 15, insert a new paragraph to read:

"() (name), the individual on whose behalf I am applying; is a state resident on the date of this application, has been a state resident for at least six months immediately preceding April 1 of the current dividend year; and has been working in Washington, D.C. for a Member of Alaska's Congressional delegation or the Governor of Alaska, at some time during the current dividend year, is the spouse or dependent of such individual.

[Amendment adopted]

Senator Stevens currently has 19 Alaskans on his staff who qualify for the Alaska Permanent Fund Dividend including:

1. Andrew Lundquist Fairbanks
2. Carol White + 2 children Juneau
3. Greg Chapados Fairbanks
4. Kathie Bridenbaugh Anchorage
5. Lisa Sutherland + husband Aniak
6. Louise Johnson Fairbanks
7. Mara Rabinowitz Fairbanks
8. Mary Louise Faunce Anchorage
9. Michelle Stone Anchorage
10. Shannon Pusich + husband Juneau
11. Susan Stengl Juneau
12. Suzanne Palmer + husband Anchorage
13. Svend Brandt-Erichsen Anchorage
14. Valerie Belon Anchorage
15. Wally Burnett Fairbanks
16. Earl Comstock Anchorage
17. Allan Engstrom Juneau
18. Wayne Schley Fairbanks
19. Jeff Landry Anchorage

Senator Frank Murkowski has 15 Alaskans on his staff who qualify for the Dividend including:

1. Jamie Boucher Anchorage
2. Susan Cole Fairbanks
3. Doris Elerding Ketchikan
4. Carol Elliott Juneau
5. Sarah Emard Ketchikan
6. Dennis Fradley + wife
and 2 children Anchorage
7. Jessica Gavora Fairbanks
8. Midori Gellert Anchorage
9. Randall Moen Juneau
10. Greg Renkes Palmer
11. Tom Roberts Fairbanks
12. Elizabeth Stolpe Anchorage
13. Todd Tweedy Fairbanks
14. Kelly Wein Fairbanks
15. Bill Wolf Juneau

Memo to File

Date: 4/22/88

RE: CSCSSB 444 Eligibility for permanent fund dividends
Call from Lisa Southerland, Sen. Stevens office
(202) 224-1024 4/22 10:50 a.m. (917) 586-9545

Lisa called asking the current status and form of above bill. I told her that the allowable exemptions remain the same as the current statute however they will be required to be physically present in Alaska once in a two year period.

She said that would be difficult for many staff. The salaries in their office average approximately \$20,000. They can't afford to fly back to Alaska even in that time period. Also the federal budget is being cut back and so is their office's travel budget. Those staff who do get to fly back to the state on government business are only the few top aides -- who are paid substantially more. She thinks this measure is very unfair to those who are Alaskans, and working daily to serve the state.

She asked for a telecopy of the bill which I sent at noon, 4/22.

1. List of staff affected
of which
2. Submit as amendment

Original sponsors: Hensley, Kerttula,
Abood and Eliason

1 IN THE SENATE BY THE FINANCE COMMITTEE
2 CS FOR SENATE BILL NO. 444 (Finance)
3 IN THE LEGISLATURE OF THE STATE OF ALASKA
4 FIFTEENTH LEGISLATURE - SECOND SESSION
5 A BILL

6 For an Act entitled: "An Act relating to eligibility for permanent fund
7 dividends and providing civil penalties for certain
8 conduct involving permanent fund dividends; and
9 providing for an effective date."

10 BE IT ENACTED BY THE LEGISLATURE OF THE STATE OF ALASKA:

11 * Section 1. AS 43.23.005(a) is amended to read:

12 (a) An individual is eligible to receive one permanent fund
13 dividend each year in an amount to be determined under AS 43.23.025 if
14 the individual applies to the department, and if

15 (1) on the date of application the individual is a state
16 resident; [AND]

17 (2) the individual was a state resident for a period of at
18 least six consecutive months immediately preceding April 1 of the
19 current dividend year; and

20 (3) on the date of application the individual is physically

21 present in the state. *at some time since July 1 two*
years previous.

22 * Sec. 2. AS 43.23.015(b) is amended to read:

23 (b) The department shall prescribe and furnish an application
24 form for claiming a permanent fund dividend. The application must
25 contain a statement of eligibility and a certification of residency in
26 substantially the following form:

27 I certify that

28 () I am a state resident on the date of this ap-
29 plication, [AND] I have been a state resident for at

1 least six months immediately preceding April 1 of the
2 current dividend year, and I am ^{have been physically} physically present as present
3 defined in AS 43.23.095 on the date of this applica-
4 tion; or

5 () (name), the individual on whose behalf I am
6 applying, is a state resident on the date of this
7 application, [AND] has been a state resident for at
8 least six months immediately preceding April 1 of the
9 current dividend year, and ^{have been physically} is physically present as present
10 defined in AS 43.23.095 on the date of this applica-
11 tion.

12 I understand that a false claim of eligibility
13 [RESIDENCY] to obtain a permanent fund dividend for
14 myself or for another is a criminal offense, [AND]
15 that if convicted I will forfeit future [PERMANENT
16 FUND] dividends, and that I must repay all [PERMA-
17 NENT FUND] dividends that have been paid to me. I
18 understand that if I wilfully misrepresent, exer-
19 cise gross negligence, or recklessly disregard a
20 material fact regarding my eligibility for a perma-
21 nent fund dividend I will forfeit the dividend, be
22 subject to a civil fine of up to \$5,000, and lose
23 my eligibility for the next five dividends. I un-
24 derstand that these penalties are [THIS PENALTY IS]
25 in addition to any criminal penalties imposed.

26 _____
27 (signature of individual,
28 parent, guardian, or other
29 authorized representative)

1 * Sec. 3. AS 43.23.035 is amended by adding a new subsection to read:

2 (c) An individual who, in claiming a permanent fund dividend, or
3 *an individual who certifies another person's eligibility,*
4 wilfully misrepresents, exercises gross negligence, or recklessly
5 disregards a material fact pertaining to eligibility forfeits the
6 dividend, is subject to a civil fine of up to \$5,000, and loses eli-
7 gibility to receive the next five dividends following the forfeited
8 dividends. The commissioner may commence proceedings in court to
9 enforce this subsection.

** Sec. 4. This Act takes effect January 1, 1989.*
* Sec. 4. AS 43.23.095 is amended to read:

10 Sec. 43.23.095. DEFINITIONS. In this chapter,

11 (1) "Alaska permanent fund" means the fund established by
12 art. IX, sec. 15 of the state constitution;

13 (2) "commissioner" means the commissioner of revenue;

14 (3) "department" means the Department of Revenue;

15 (4) "dividend fund" means the fund established by AS 43.-
16 23.045;

17 (5) "individual" means a natural person;

18 (6) "permanent fund dividend" means a right to receive a
19 payment from the dividend fund;

20 (7) "physically present" means being physically present in
21 the state, or, if not physically present, absent only for

22 (A) medical treatment that is not available in the
23 state;

24 (B) service in Congress;

25 (C) military service;

26 (D) full-time secondary, postsecondary, or vocational
27 education; or

28 (E) other reasons that the commissioner may establish
29 by regulation;

1 (8) "state resident" means an individual who is physically
2 present [IN THE STATE] with the intent to remain permanently in the
3 state or, if the individual is not physically present [IN THE STATE],
4 intends to return to the state and

5 (A) is absent only for any of the following reasons:

6 (i) medical treatment that is not available in
7 the state;

8 (ii) service in the Congress; or

9 (iii) to accompany, as a spouse or dependent, an
10 individual who is eligible for a permanent fund dividend under
11 (i) or (ii) of this subparagraph; or

12 (B) has not been absent during the six months immedi-
13 ately preceding April 1 for more than five consecutive years and
14 is absent only for any of the following reasons:

15 (i) [(A)] vocational, professional, or other spe-
16 cific education for which a comparable program was not
17 reasonably available in the state;

18 (ii) [(B)] secondary or postsecondary education;

19 (iii) [(C)] military service;

20 [(D)] MEDICAL TREATMENT;

21 [(E)] SERVICE IN CONGRESS;]

22 (iv) [(F)] other reasons that [WHICH] the commis-
23 sioner may establish by regulation; or

24 (v) [(G)] service in the Peace Corps;

25 (9) [(8)] "year" means a calendar year.

26 * Sec. 5. This Act takes effect January 1, 1989.

CS SB444 (Finance)

Four Groups of Allowable Absences

- A. People who have to come back one day each spring but do not have to move back every 5 years to spend the winter.
 - 1. Congressional spouses and dependents.
 - 2. Medical cases' spouses and dependents.

- B. People who have to come back every sixth winter to spend the winter but don't have to fly back for one day in the spring.
 - 1. Active duty military members.
 - 2. Students.
 - 3. Other folks the Commissioner may let in by regulation.

- C. People who don't have to do either.
 - 1. Medical cases.
 - 2. Members of Congress.

- D. Everybody else has to do both.

LETTER OF INTENT

for HCS SB 444 (State Affairs)

It is the intent of the Legislature that the Department of Revenue scrutinize with particular care all applications for Permanent Fund Dividends from those who claim allowable absences for more than five consecutive years. It is the further intent of the Legislature that the burden of proof shall rest on such an applicant to prove he or she is still a state resident.

How many PFD s were paid?

1986- 532,000 1987- 530,000

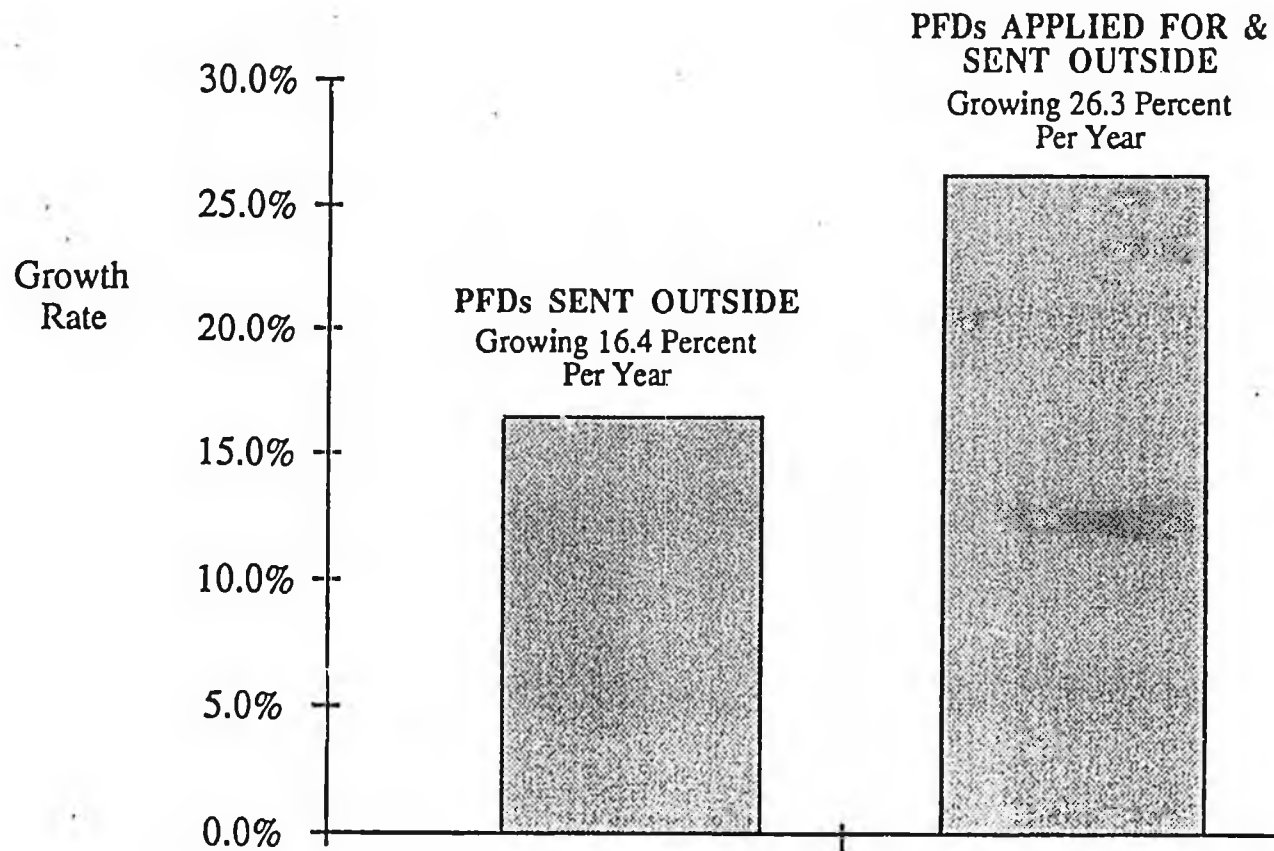
*How many of these PFDs were
paid to out-of-state addresses?*

1986- 19,500 1987- 22,700

*Of these PFDs,
how many were paid
to persons who also
applied from out-of-state?*

1986- 9,900 1987- 12,500

Changes In Permanent Fund Dividends: 1986-87



CS SB 444 (Finance) (passed the Senate)
Four Classes of Allowable Absences

- A. People who have to come back one day each spring but do not have to move back every 5 years to spend the winter.
 - 1. Congressional spouses and dependents.
 - 2. Medical cases' spouses and dependents.

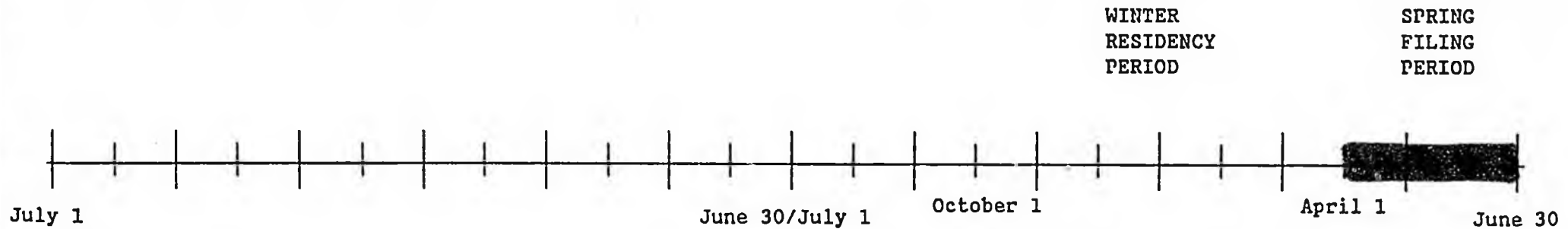
- B. People who have to come back every sixth winter to spend the winter but don't have to fly back for one day in the spring.
 - 1. Active duty military members.
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 - 3. Other folks the Commissioner may let in by regulation.

- C. People who don't have to do either.
 - 1. Medical cases.
 - 2. Members of Congress.

- D. Everybody else has to do both.

HCS SB 444 (State Affairs)
TIGHTENING UP ON ELIGIBILITY REQUIREMENTS
FOR PERMANENT FUND DIVIDENDS

THE PERMANENT FUND DIVIDEND YEAR



Requirements for PFD eligibility

CURRENT
LAW

1. Timely application.
2. Intent to make Alaska a permanent home.
3. Physical presence for more than half of the winter or an allowable absence.

SB 444:
ADDITIONAL
REQUIREMENTS

Requires physical presence at some time since July 1 of the year two years previous to the date of application.

HCS SB 444

- * Adds requirement of physical presence at some time between date of application and July 1 of the year two years previous to the date of application. This requirement would in effect apply only to applicants with allowable absences, because all other applicants physically live in Alaska during the winter residency period.

- * Establishes civil penalties for misconduct in application for both applicant and certifying witnesses (intentional fraud still a criminal offense).

- * Adds at least \$8 million to Alaska economy in 1989.

- * Increases 1989 Permanent Fund Dividend by \$15 or more.

- * Effective date: January 1, 1989.

LETTER OF INTENT

for HCS SB 444 (State Affairs)

It is the intent of the Legislature that the Department of Revenue scrutinize with particular care all applications for Permanent Fund Dividends from those who claim allowable absences for more than five consecutive years. It is the further intent of the Legislature that the burden of proof shall rest on such an applicant to prove he or she is still a state resident.



Alaska State Legislature

House

Official Business

Pouch V
State Capitol
Juneau, Alaska 99811

M E M O R A N D U M

TO: House State Affairs Committee

FROM: Representative Fran Ulmer, Chair
House State Affairs

DATE: April 25, 1988

RE: House Committee Substitute for SB 444(SA) Work Draft

The proposed State Affairs Committee Substitute for SB 444 accomplishes the following according to the Department of Revenue:

Permanent Fund Dividend Eligibility

- Requires that an applicant be physically present at some time in the two years before application. Individuals would have to indicate their intention of making Alaska their permanent home and have an allowable absence.
- Imposes civil penalties on reckless certifying of witnesses. Intentional fraud will remain a criminal offense.

Advantages

- Administratively simpler and more stable.
- Dividend amount increases.

DEPARTMENT OF REVENUE
POSITION PAPER ON
SB 444

Introduction

The Department of Revenue supports SB 444. This bill tightens up the rules on Permanent Fund Dividend eligibility and makes those rules easier to enforce. The bill would raise the annual dividend by at least \$15, and carries a zero fiscal note.

SB 444 would go a long way to reverse a trend allowed by current law. Both the state population and the number of people receiving Permanent Fund Dividends are falling. But the number of people receiving Permanent Fund Dividends who apply from out of state is rapidly increasing.

More than 12,000 dividends are now going to people who give out-of-state addresses when they file. This is more than two percent of all 1987 Permanent Fund Dividends, and represents a 25 percent increase over the figure for 1986. The Department of Revenue estimates that a minimum of two-thirds of this group -- at least 8,000 people -- are gone from the state for more than a year by the time they receive a dividend. Approximately 300 people are receiving 1986 and 1987 Permanent Fund Dividends who have not physically touched Alaska in more than five years.

Loopholes in the Eligibility Requirements for Permanent Fund Dividends

The substantial and growing number of people receiving Permanent Fund Dividends who apply from outside of Alaska is the product of some loopholes in the eligibility requirements for Permanent Fund Dividends.

Under current law, there are three requirements for someone to receive a Permanent Fund Dividend. First, the person must file an application between April 1 and June 30. Second, the person applying has to be a resident of Alaska for at least the six consecutive months between October 1 and March 31. Third, a person must be a state resident on the date of application. Thus, to get a dividend, someone must be a state resident for most of the fall and winter and still claim to be a resident for one day in the spring (AS 43.23.005 and 15 AAC 23.625).

There are two requirements for someone to be a state resident. First, the person must have an intent to remain permanently if that person is physically present in the state, and must have an intent to return and remain permanently if the person is absent (AS 43.23.095 and 15 AAC 23.665(k)). Second, the person either must be physically present in Alaska for 90 days or more between October 1 and March 31 or be absent for an allowable reason (called an "allowable absence"). The law also requires someone to have an allowable absence if he or she is absent more than 60 consecutive days from the state between October 1 and March 31.