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# Administrators' views of the status and future of schools for the deaf.

Bill G. Blevins

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ADMINISTRATORS' VIEWS OF THE STATUS  
AND FUTURE OF SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

A Dissertation Presented

By

BILL G. BLEVINS

Submitted to the Graduate School of the  
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

February 1981

Education



Bill G. Blevins

1981

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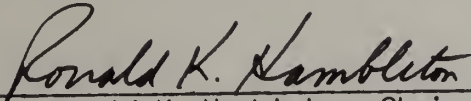
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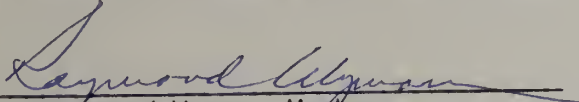
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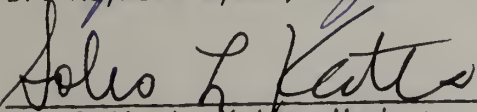
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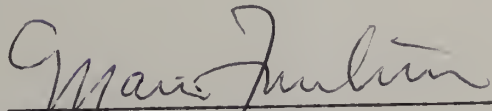
BILL G. BLEVINS

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Dedicated to my wife

Doris

for her patience and understanding,  
and for her encouragement and confidence,  
and to

Darla, Beth, and Kristin

who understood when their father was  
too busy to give them the time they  
deserved.

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## ABSTRACT

### ADMINISTRATORS' VIEWS OF THE STATUS AND FUTURE OF SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

(February 1981)

Bill G. Blevins, B.S., Appalachian State University  
M.Ed., Ed.D., University of Massachusetts

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Historically, residential and day schools have educated the large majority of deaf students in the United States. In the past several years, there has been a trend toward more day schools and regional programs for the deaf. Public Law 94-142 which became effective in September 1978 encourages this trend. It also requires an individualized education plan (IEP) and education in the least restrictive environment appropriate to meet the special needs of the child. Many school systems have interpreted this to mean that the deaf child should be educated in the local school with normal hearing children.

As a result of this law and the interpretations of it, fewer and fewer deaf children are attending special schools.

The author conducted a nationwide study to assess the present situation and learn what plans are being made for the future of these special schools.

The administrators of 114 day and residential schools for the deaf were sent questionnaires and 91 percent responded. Public, private, and parochial schools were surveyed as well as oral and total communication



programs. The questionnaire contained questions concerning enrollment, admissions, individual education plans, cooperation with local education agencies, residential enrollment, program changes, and future planning.

Results indicated that most schools have experienced a decline in enrollment during the past two years. The decrease was greatest in public residential programs. Those students being referred to the special schools are more severely handicapped than in the past and will require additional educational programs and support services.

The schools report that admissions are now remaining constant and they expect enrollment to stabilize in the near future. The data shows that young children are usually placed in local programs near their homes while older students are transferring to the special schools for their upper elementary and secondary education.

The relationship between the schools and the local education agencies appears to be good. Not as many students transferred from the special schools to the public schools as was anticipated, and most of them transferred at the request of their parents or on the recommendation of the special school rather than the LEA. Very few appeals cases resulted from these transfers and the wishes of the parents were upheld in 50 percent of those cases.

The administrators predict that the special schools will be needed in the future but they will serve a more severely handicapped student body than in the past. While residential enrollment will decrease, residential programs will continue to be needed for a significant number of hearing impaired students.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Educating the deaf in this country began in Hartford, Connecticut, in 1817 with the establishment of a school now known as the American School for the Deaf. This first school was residential. It accepted students from all over the country but it was soon apparent that more schools were needed and other states began building their own schools. Eventually almost all of the states developed schools of their own. These residential schools educated the vast majority of the deaf until recent times.

Throughout the history of the education of the deaf there has been controversy and frustration over our successes and failures. Many new techniques, approaches, and philosophies have been tried, none of which seems to be the panacea hoped for.

With the enactment of Public Law 94-142 which took effect in September 1978, and in some cases earlier state laws such as Massachusetts Chapter 766, a new era of educational practices was begun.

These laws are touted as a "right to education" for the handicapped and require that appropriate educational services be provided for all. This philosophy of equality of opportunity should be accepted by everyone. The means of attaining that equality are not so easily determined nor so universally agreed upon.

The major impact of the public law was to shift the responsibility for educating the handicapped from a state to a local responsibility. The local education officials are now charged with providing or arranging

for the provision of an appropriate educational plan for all its children. In addition, each child must have his/her own individualized education plan developed by a team of professionals and with the involvement of the parents. Specific rights are guaranteed to the student and to the parents. The program agreed upon must be free to the parents and provided in the least restrictive environment appropriate to meet the student's educational needs. The financial responsibility also is borne by the local school system with some help from the state and federal governments.

The interpretation and implementation of these laws have affected the special schools for the deaf.

### The Problem

How has the implementation of Public Law 94-142 affected the schools for the deaf? Two major effects seem to be obvious. One, the attempts of the public schools to provide local programs for the deaf (mainstreaming) will cause a decrease in enrollment and two, the type of student who is referred to the special schools will have more complex educational problems and physical needs (multihandicapped students) than the typical student in the past. These changes, if occurring, will have profound effects on the programming and staffing of the special schools.

On April 3, 1977, a large group of teachers, students, and employees of the Michigan School for the Deaf, along with parents, adult deaf, and friends of the school, gathered at the state capital to protest a proposal before the state legislature that would radically alter the goals and program of the Michigan School for the Deaf. After a lengthy hearing, the legislature rejected the proposal to mainstream all Michigan deaf

children and to convert the Michigan School into a facility for the multiply handicapped (Morrison, 1978).

Leonard Zwick (1978), superintendent of the Rochester School for the Deaf, said that at no time in the history of the school has it faced so many challenges as today. He listed three main factors: impact of the Federal Legislation (P.L. 94-142) and New York State legislation (Chapter 853); changes in etiological factors of deafness; and changes in enrollment patterns. He saw an increase in programs in the public sector due to the intricacies of the funding mechanisms and the push for mainstreaming.

Hoffmeyer (1978) pointed out the need for a variety of programs and said that the role of the school for the deaf cannot be duplicated in the near future. The low incidence of deafness does not provide the necessary population to make local programs feasible in most communities. He cited the problems facing the public schools and the resistance offered by LEAs, teacher unions, parents of normal children, and taxpayers. He urged the schools for the deaf to seek partial funding through Public Law 94-142 and to assume a greater advocacy role through public service announcements and parent education. Schools need to list all the comprehensive services offered at a well organized school for the deaf. He urged schools to change their image from reactionary to a multifaceted professional service role. Schools should strengthen their vocational and technical departments and develop programs for the multihandicapped because this group will be the first to fail mainstreaming. He predicted that there will be a cycle, perhaps ten years, before many deaf students begin returning to the organized schools for the deaf.

Brill (1975) discussed the future of the residential school by asking and answering four questions:

1. Will mainstreaming eliminate the residential school?
2. Will the concept of zero reject convert the schools into schools primarily for the multihandicapped?
3. Will the use of interpreters in public high schools, and possibly elementary schools, eliminate the use or function of residential schools?
4. If the three questions above do not eliminate the residential school, will the format and kinds of programs in the schools change?

Brill felt that the population of residential schools would change but the need for them would continue. He also felt that they would not be schools for the multihandicapped only, because eliminating rubella and other preventable causes would possibly lower the incidence of multihandicapped children. He predicted that the move to mainstreaming would not be the solution everyone expected because the programs would prove to be inadequate and pupils would start returning to special schools.

Zero reject should not change the schools into "dumping grounds" since educational institutions do not necessarily have to take responsibility for a person whose needs are for custody and training in the most elementary tasks. He cited the Case case in California as having set this precedent.

The use of manual interpreters in public school classes will not solve the problem. For this to be functional, the deaf child must have a mastery of the English language. This, of course, is not the case. The basic handicap of deafness is still language. When the interpreter doubles as a tutor and tries to reteach everything he signs, he faces an



impossible task and this does not solve the child's educational problem. The fundamental question is not where the education takes place. The fundamental question is the quality of the education provided.

A population base large enough to bring together enough children to have a school for the deaf is the basic reason we have residential schools. Brill concluded that the answers to his four questions are all negative--there will still be a need for the residential school. He hoped that we will extend and improve our programs.

Barry Griffing (1976), Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction and Assistant Director, Office of Special Education for the state of California, presented one plan for reshaping the state residential school. He saw the school in a period of evaluation and change, with some advocating the demise of the school. He suggested that the role of the state residential school for the deaf should comprise five components: (1) a comprehensive educational center; (2) child study/assessment services; (3) a learning resource center; (4) a demonstration school; and (5) a community/continuing education center.

This design for reshaping the role of the state school expands the role from just being a "school" to that of an educational resource center for deaf children, youth, and adults. He does not say how this can be accomplished without state cooperation and financial support, and a policy of schools for the deaf being a "least restrictive environment" for deaf children.

Denton (1978) carried this idea much further in describing a state plan for educating the hearing impaired. He made the state school the center of the educational system with more teachers leaving the campus to

work than might work on the campus.

His model would provide the greatest amount of educational support at the time of greatest need. The model would provide ever-increasing contact with hearing persons both in school and in other aspects of the community. This is a meaningful relationship between the degree of integration and the degree of personal and social skill. Denton feels there is a critical need for all responsible agencies and professionals to engage in comprehensive planning to ensure that every hearing impaired child is placed in a program that best suits his educational, social, and other human needs. The result can be improved educational services for hearing impaired children and a whole new era of cooperation among educators as well.

Maynard Reynolds (1978), well known in special education circles, said in Thoughts About the Future that

. . . private school enrollments will increase; sophisticated parents will use procedural "rights" to force more public money to support their children in private schools. Racial inequities in the rates of such referral will turn this trend into a major controversy (p. 3).

Gallaudet College has received a grant for \$1.3 million from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation to define a new role for the special school.

From the above we can see that there is a great deal of concern and a lot of suggestions being made. Outcomes are being predicted but we have seen no evidence to indicate trends for the future role of the school for the deaf.

Salem and Herward (1978, p. 524) conducted a survey of residential schools for the deaf to determine the impact of Public Law 94-142. Replies were received from almost 90 percent of the schools. Results

Indicated that Public Law 94-142 is producing a change in the role of the residential school. This change varies from positive to negative, depending upon the interpretation given to Public Law 94-142 by the individual state education agencies. The questionnaire was very short and attempted to assess the impact that Public Law 94-142 was having on enrollment, population composition, curriculum, educational planning, and parent attitudes. All the questions were multiple choice except one which required a written answer. The questionnaire was general in nature and sought only a broad overview of the situation. An important area not addressed in the survey was the degree of change which was occurring and the reasons for the change. The survey was limited in its scope and did not go into sufficient detail to arrive at any conclusions regarding development of mainstream programs and the changing student populations at the schools for the deaf. It was hoped that the results of this general survey might generate interest from other investigators. The results were mixed but did indicate some trends. A slight majority of the schools reported a decrease in enrollment.

Prickett and Hunt (1977) used the Delphi Technique to identify changes expected to occur in the education of the deaf in the next ten year period (1975-1985). The respondents who were considered experts in the education of the deaf were asked to evaluate each item on a questionnaire as to its likelihood of occurrence by 1985 and to evaluate each item according to the desirability of it actually occurring. Seventy-six items were on the questionnaire. There were seventeen categories of items including the multihandicapped deaf, changes in teacher education, school for the deaf population estimates, changes in postsecondary facilities,

changes in the academic program, parent/infant programs, parent/infant training, research in deafness, the hard of hearing, extra-academic personnel with the deaf, public awareness and acceptance of the deaf, improved services to the deaf community, changing role of the deaf adult, changes in the basic delivery of services model, methodology controversy, technological advances, vision, and improvement in academic achievement.

The report consisted primarily of the physical rankings of the items according to their likelihood of occurring and the desirability of their occurring. The most positive predictor of trends in education of the deaf over the next ten years was determined to be the list of items ranked likely and desirable. There were twenty-nine items listed. Most of them had to do with the functions of the schools, generally involving improving and expanding services. It was not until we got to item nineteen that there appeared a move away from the school. Item nineteen was "more integration of the deaf into the hearing community," and item twenty-six was "community-centered education for the deaf will increase." So out of twenty-nine likely and desirable items for change in the next ten years, only two, appearing as numbers nineteen and twenty-six, indicated a move away from the schools as the center for meeting the needs of the deaf.

A consensus seemed to be that there will be an increase in programs and services for the multihandicapped but it was felt only "somewhat likely" that the school for the deaf would offer these services. Changes in the residential school's role are not predicted nor are they deemed very desirable, while more programs at the local level are predicted and welcomed. Increased mainstreaming was listed as item twelve on the

likely-to-occur list but was viewed as only somewhat desirable. Changes in the residential school were seen as likely but not too desirable.

### Focus of Inquiry

Public Law 94-142 became effective in September 1978. Each state has now been operating under the law for at least one and one-half years. This study was conducted to assess the effects that the implementation of this law is having on schools for the deaf. The purpose of the study was to determine changes that have already occurred, are occurring, or are anticipated in the schools for the deaf due to Public Law 94-142.

In the previous section a case was made for the importance of a study of Public Law 94-142. There is an urgent need for Boards of Directors and administrators of these special schools to know what is predicted for the future in order for them to plan in an orderly fashion for curriculum changes and future staffing needs. The areas selected for study were chosen to provide information about the various components of a well organized and functioning school.

Salem and Herward's study was a start in this direction although it was a general survey and occurred prior to the full implementation of Public Law 94-142. The implementation of the law did not have enough history at the time of their study to accurately predict the extent of future changes. Their study did not cover as many areas nor go into as much depth as this study. It did not gather reasons for the predicted changes nor did it determine the degree to which any anticipated changes would occur.

Prickett and Hunt's study occurred before any impact of

Public Law 94-142 was felt. It seems obvious to the author that their study would not be valid today. The impact of the legislation has been much more dramatic and damaging to the schools and has caused many more changes than was predicted by Prickett and Hunt.

The areas surveyed in this study were centered on enrollment, population composition, curriculum changes, program deletions and additions, educational planning, cooperation with the public schools, major concerns or issues being faced, immediate changes anticipated, and long-range predictions for the future.

In addition to multiple choice questions, the survey instrument also included several open-ended questions which permitted respondents to express their comments and feelings in their own words.

#### Rationale for the Inquiry

Due to Public Law 94-142, there are many changes occurring in the role and function of schools for the deaf. There is a move to "mainstream" children into the public schools and to redefine the role of the residential school. In some cases the need for the residential school is being questioned. A study of these changes and trends seems to be desirable and necessary so that the future of special schools can be planned for in an orderly and appropriate manner.

The author has a personal interest in the future of the residential school in that he is an administrator of the Clarke School for the Deaf and must find answers to questions regarding the future of its program. The Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf (CEASD) should be vitally interested in the results of this study since the

members represent the administrative heads of the schools for the deaf throughout the country and they, too, are grappling with the effects of Public Law 94-142 on their programs.

#### Mode of Inquiry

Questionnaires were sent to the administrative heads of the sixty-seven public and nine private residential schools and the seventy public and sixteen private day schools for the deaf throughout the country. It was expected that the administrators would be cooperative due to their concerns for their programs. The author personally knows most of these heads of schools, and since 90 percent of them responded to the Salem survey, a high return rate was expected.

A questionnaire was developed to gather information on the effects of Public Law 94-142 on the schools. For those not responding, a follow-up questionnaire was sent and personal contacts were made. A copy of the questionnaire can be found in the Appendix.

The draft of the questionnaire was reviewed by a doctoral student at the University of Massachusetts specializing in the field of developing and validating data-collecting instruments. After his suggestions were incorporated into the questionnaire, draft copies were submitted to a few administrators of special schools for the deaf for their criticisms and suggestions. A final draft of the questionnaire was submitted to the members of the dissertation committee for their recommendations and approval.

During this process, the procedures for tabulating and processing the data, and the methods to be used for reporting the findings, were

determined. Since several of the questions on the questionnaire were unstructured, the author read through all the answers and developed scales for reporting responses to open-ended questions. High percentages of similar responses and unique answers indicated the strength of a concern or a trend.

### Theoretical Underpinnings of the Inquiry

Historically, the majority of deaf students in the United States have been educated in special schools for the deaf. Large cities provided day schools but most other students attended a residential school.

Recent trends in enrollment have been away from residential schools to day schools and mainstream programs in the local communities. Public Law 94-142 encourages this trend and requires it whenever it is "appropriate to meet the child's needs."

This inquiry sought to determine the extent of these trends and their effects upon the special schools for the deaf. It sought to determine what enrollment patterns have emerged, what program changes have been made, what program changes are contemplated, what staffing problems have developed, and what role is predicted for the future of the special school.

A compilation of facts on what has occurred and a consensus of opinion on what is predicted by the present directors of these special schools should provide valid information.

It was expected that 90 percent of those questioned would respond and that a fairly clear picture would emerge as to the effects of Public Law 94-142 on the schools.



The professional status of the administrative heads of the special schools for the deaf should give a high degree of validity to the conclusions drawn from the study.

A limitation of the study is that the picture is constantly changing. New programs are being started and other programs are closing. There is a slow but constant turnover in the administration of schools and public officials, and the interpretation of appropriate programs change from one official to the next. Nevertheless, accurate and valuable information, based on data available at this time, will be presented.

CHAPTER II  
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

An Historical Overview of Day and Residential Schools  
for the Deaf in America

Before considering the development of educational programs for the deaf in America, we should get an understanding of what occurred in this field prior to the founding of the American colonies.

The development of an increasingly enlightened social attitude toward deafness is no exception to the general rule that man's struggle toward enlightenment is slow, faltering, and in many instances, haphazard (Davis and Silverman, 1978, p. 421).

In the pre-Christian era, Aristotle, and later Pliny the Elder, observed that there was some relationship between congenital deafness and dumbness, but neither one elaborated on the relationship. Aristotle (382-322 B.C.) said, "Those who are born deaf are in all cases dumb; that is to say, they can make vocal noises but they cannot speak. . . (Hodgson, 1954, pp. 61-62)."

The world's consciousness of the hearing-handicapped began with these thoughts from Aristotle (Giangreco, 1970, p. 3). Later Pliny the Elder (77 A.D.) in his History says, "When one is first of all denied hearing, he is also robbed of the power of talking, and there are no persons born deaf who are not also dumb (Farrar, 1923, pp. 1-2)." Aristotle's misconceptions held the fate of the deaf in its grasp for nearly 2,000 years.

Aristotle presumably believed that since the deaf could neither

give utterance to speech nor comprehend it from others, they were relatively incapable of instruction, and furthermore that the deaf were less capable of instruction than the blind (Davis and Silverman, p. 422). At any rate, Aristotle made no clear statement that dumbness is a consequence of deafness and that speech is an acquired skill whose patterns are learned through the ear. Although hearing is the normal channel through which speech is learned, we have also learned that it is possible for the deaf to acquire speech through touch, sight, and the sense of movement.

The deaf prior to 1500. Prior to 1500, the understanding of deafness was very limited. They were thought of as deaf-mutes, considered a burden to society, and were allowed very few privileges. It is probable that the handicap of deafness has been with man since he first walked the earth. For prehistoric man it presented far more than educational or social problems. At a time when survival often depended upon an individual being able to detect and react immediately to environmental dangers, the deaf were not able to use the only sense which can scan in all directions simultaneously. The implications are obvious (DiCarlo, 1964, pp. 10-11).

Early societies which were the cradle of western civilization could hardly be considered less cruel than nature itself. "In both Athens and Sparta, infants were examined by elders of the state before they were acknowledged by the family. If they showed signs of imperfection, they were exposed to the mountainside to die (Bender, 1970, p. 20)." In Rome, defective infants were fed to dogs in public squares. Because deafness is an invisible handicap, some deaf infants may have been spared at first,

but may have met a similar fate when their handicap was detected.

The earliest writings directly concerning the deaf are found in the Old Testament. Hebrew laws provided that the deaf and/or blind are children of God and therefore should not be persecuted. These laws also offered them the privilege of societal grouping. However, their rights were not without limitation. Deaf-mutes were given no legal rights for it was considered that "they aren't responsible for their actions (DiCarlo, 1964, p. 11)." However, there was an attempt made to differentiate among the types of handicapping conditions and to allocate privileges accordingly. The following classifications were established:

1. The deaf who had speech were allowed to transact business but not to own real estate
2. Those who were able to hear, but were mute, had no legal restrictions
3. Those who were both deaf and dumb could not own property, engage in business, or have the right to act as a witness. The deaf, as a group, were not permitted to marry in a ceremony conducted by signs. But all deaf people were protected from bodily harm because it was considered a crime to harm a deaf-mute (DiCarlo, 1964, p. 11)

In regard to education, no notice was taken of the hidden class of the deaf, but then, even the hearing members of the lower classes received no schooling.

In the years that followed, there were only a few scattered accounts concerning deaf individuals. The Bible noted the miracle cures performed by Christ, and Roman laws described some of the rights accorded the deaf in the post-Christian era (Giangreco, 1970, p. 4).

Generally, there is very little known about the deaf during this period. In fact, for eight successive centuries ending in the early

1500s there appears to be no mention of the deaf in any literature (DiCarlo, 1964, p. 13).

### Early beginnings of educating the deaf.

Sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. It was the middle of the sixteenth century before positive steps were taken to educate the deaf. There had been a reawakening to study. John Gutenberg's printing press, Columbus' discovery of America, and Magellan's trip around the world accelerated the spread of learning and encouraged the use of common languages for reading, writing, and speaking. Another development was the inclusion of girls as well as boys in the scheme of education (Bender, 1970, p. 31).

Leonardo da Vinci was one of the learned men of the time who took note of the deaf. He made the observation that some deaf-mutes were able to understand the conversations of others by watching gestures and movements taking place in the conversation.

I once saw in Florence a man who had become deaf, who could not understand you if you spoke to him loudly, while if you spoke softly without letting the voice utter any sound he understood you merely from the movement of the lips . . . (DiCarlo, 1964, p. 14; da Vinci, 1958, p. 902).

Consequently, man renewed his quest for knowledge. But the search for knowledge was not tempered by the desire to contribute to humanity. The deaf became associated with this educational movement because of the intellectual curiosity of a few men. These men were concerned about the oddity of deafness and dumbness. They began to probe the relationships between deaf-mutism, thought, and language.

A noted Dutch scholar, Rudolph Agricola, in his book De Inventione

Dialectica, commented that

I have seen an individual, deaf from the cradle, and by consequence mute, who had learned to understand all that was written by other persons, and who expressed by writing all his thoughts, as if he had the use of words (Bender, 1970, p. 32).

Girolamo Cardano (1501-1576), commonly known as Jerome Cardan, was a highly respected physician at the University of Padua, Italy. He had developed considerable knowledge of physiology, and was particularly concerned with the eyes, ears, mouth, and brain (Bender, 1970, p. 32). In his studies he read of Agricola's work and proposed a set of principles for the instruction of the deaf. He stated in essence that the deaf could be taught to comprehend written symbols or combinations of symbols by associating them with the object or picture of the object they were intending to represent. To this day, the association of meaningful language with experience is the keystone of techniques for teaching the deaf (Davis and Silverman, 1978, p. 423).

Cardan brought the communication problems of the deaf into proper focus. He insisted the "deaf and dumb" could learn to express themselves by reading and writing. Through the reading process, "mutes" could receive sensory impressions as the hearing do through the auditory process, and through writing they could express themselves; both of these methods developed reason and logic (DiCarlo, 1964, p. 14).

Jerome Cardan pointed out that learning was possible for the deaf since they could be taught to hear by reading and to speak by writing, and that ideas could be expressed by the language of signs (McClure in Griffith, 1969, p. 3). These remarks sowed the seeds for further development of the education of the deaf. Cardan's contribution lies in his

specific rejection of the notion that the deaf cannot be educated and consequently are doomed to social inadequacy. It would not be too extravagant to attribute to Cardan the concept of an educational Magna Carta for the deaf (Davis and Silverman, 1978, p. 423).

The other spark of light in the sixteenth century flickered in Spain; deaf children were born to some of the nobility. In order for these children to inherit their just rights as nobility, it was necessary for them to be educated. As early as 1555 we find instruction of deaf children of the nobility carried out by a Spanish monk, Pedro Ponce de Leon, in a convent in Valladolid. Francisco and Pedro Velasco, children of the constable of Castille, were taught by Ponce de Leon. Apparently de Leon was successful for the children were not forced to relinquish their legal rights. Records of de Leon's methods and accomplishments were destroyed in a monastery fire. It is generally agreed, however, that de Leon began his teaching with writing and progressed to speech (Giangreco, 1970, p. 7).

It was also in Spain that the first book was written exclusively about the deaf. It was by Juan Pablo Bonet and it appeared in 1620. Bonet's pupils were taught articulation and language, supplemented by a manual alphabet and the language of signs. Other works in many tongues, dealing with the educational, intellectual, and spiritual status of the deaf, appeared soon after. John Bulwer, John Wallis, William Holder, and George Dalgarno carried on the work in the British Isles, and at the same time work was going forward in Holland, Switzerland, France, Germany, and a host of other countries (Davis and Silverman, 1978, p. 424).

In contrast to Aristotle's views, comparing the intellectual

capabilities of the deaf and blind, the beginning of enlightenment is best typified by a quotation of Dalgarno in Didascalophus or The Deaf and Dumb Man's Tutor, published at Oxford in 1680.

Taking it for granted THAT Deaf People are equal in the faculties of apprehension, and memory, not only to the blind; but even to those that have all their senses: and having formerly shewn; that these faculties can as easily receive and retain, the images of things by the conveyance of Figures, thro the Eye as of sounds thro the Ear, it will follow, That, the Deaf Man is, not only is capable, but also as soon capable of instruction in Letters as the blind man and if we compare them as to their Intrinsic powers has the advantage of him too; insomuch as he has a more distinct and perfect perception of external Objects, then the other . . . I conceive, there might be successful addresses made to a Dumb child, even in his cradle . . . (Davis and Silverman, 1978, p. 425).

Note the emphasis on equality with others. The suggestion that the deaf could be taught even in early childhood.

In 1648, Dr. John Bulwar published the Deaf and Dumb Man's Friend, saying that it was possible to read lips by watching words as they were spoken. He rejected the old idea of a natural connection between the ear and tongue. He hoped for the creation of a special school for the deaf.

Bulwar's friend, John Wallis, seems to have been the first practical teacher in England, instructing at least two deaf persons by writing and speech and to a certain extent in sign. He is credited with writing the first textbook on English phonetics. Hodgson summarizes the seventeenth century very well when he says,

The century had opened with no more than a story of Agricola, a few remarks of Cardan, and the unique teaching of the Spanish priest, Ponce de Leon, but by the close, there was literature on the subject. Records of successful teaching in four countries and a widespread recognition of the possibilities of teaching speech and speechreading. Miracles had become practical; something to be accepted as quite within the bounds of human achievement. On this much stronger foundation the next century was to build (Hodgson, 1954, p. 106).



It should be noted, however, that while the education of deaf children had been proven feasible, it was still limited to affluent families at the close of the seventeenth century.

Eighteenth century. Systems of education for the common man began to develop in western Europe. A new social consciousness developed and the wealthy felt a need to aid the poor. In France authority for establishing an educational system was closely controlled by the state. The English aristocracy was reluctant to become involved with universal education fearing that it could threaten the entire structure of society. However, schools supported by the charity of the wealthy were established for the poor. In Germany publicly supported education became a reality. Support either came from the state or local governments. It was to be only a matter of time before moves were made to educate those who were handicapped. Until this happened, however, education of the deaf was carried on by a small group of dedicated teachers (Bender, 1970, p. 78).

One who was known as "the greatest teacher of them all" was Jacobo Rodriguez Perieria (1715-1780).

He employed a one-handed manual phonetic alphabet in which each finger position represented the requisite position of the speech mechanism. At first, representative signs were used until visual-tactual communication could be established. But auditory training proved the necessary techniques for speech sound discrimination. The sense of touch was also emphasized as an avenue thru which the vibrations of the voice could be illustrated (DiCarlo, 1964, p. 27).

He taught his sister successfully and as a result soon acquired several pupils. Additional successful work made him famous. He won acclaim from the French Academy of Science and was elected a member of the Royal Society. Perieria refused to divulge the secret of his success.

In fact, he swore his pupils to secrecy so that his methodology which provided his livelihood was not disseminated to others. His fees were extremely high, which limited his clients almost exclusively to wealthy families (Bender, 1970, pp. 73-76). It was his intention that his work be carried on by his son, but this failed and his method was lost.

The first professional teacher of the deaf in England was Henry Baker. His clients, too, were from wealthy families and he also guarded the secrets of his method very carefully. A small amount of his work was revealed in the exercise books used by his pupils and his method was similar to Wallis', with some modification. Because of his secrecy, his work had little influence beyond his own pupils (Giangreco, 1970, p. 13).

A major breakthrough in the quest for universal education of the deaf occurred in the middle of the eighteenth century. Two individuals tower above all others in advancing the cause of the deaf. The Abbe' Charles Michel de L'Epée and Samuel Heinicke in Germany. de L'Epée founded the first public school for the deaf in Paris in 1775. Heinicke, his contemporary in Germany, founded the first public school for the deaf there. It was the first recognized by any government (Davis and Silverman, 1978, p. 425). A Catholic priest, de L'Epée (1712-1789) became interested in the education of deaf twin sisters in his parish. He wanted them to have the opportunity to participate in the sacraments. He established a program for them based upon the works of Bonet and Amman. As news of his work spread, an ever increasing number of deaf children were brought to him to receive an education. He supported his school almost completely with his own funds (Marvelli, 1973, p. 30).

de L'Epée published *La Beritable Maniere* in 1784 outlining his method for educating the deaf. He reported that teaching the deaf was not as difficult as one would expect. If the deaf could not learn through their ears, then it would be his purpose to instruct them through their eyes. He began teaching them a manual alphabet which they immediately put to use in identifying simple and familiar words. A word was written on the blackboard in large letters. They were shown the object which the word represented and were required to write it. He meticulously planned each lesson in great detail. In spite of the ingenuity of the method, gestures and signs proved to be its central vehicle. He spent his whole life refining and completing a total system for teaching the deaf.

Teaching speech to the deaf became an impossibility for de L'Epée because of the large number of pupils in each class. Many classes had as many as sixty pupils. Teaching speech requires skill, patience, knowledge, manpower, and also time. de L'Epée did not have the manpower nor the time. In his large school, numbers of eager pupils and one lone teacher precluded the individual instruction and optimum learning conditions under which Bonet, Ponce de Leon, Holder, and Wallis had taught. He fostered the notion that signs were as functional for the deaf as speech was for the hearing. There was some truth in this as long as the students remained with their signing community. However, there was almost no communication between de L'Epée's deaf-mutes and the speaking world (DiCarlo, 1964, pp. 24-25). For several reasons, de L'Epée deserves a place of honor in the history of education of the deaf. He was the first to conceive the idea of popular education for all deaf children--even the poorest. His work led to the establishment of the first state-supported

school for the deaf, the Institut National pour Sourd-Mutes, in Paris. He willingly shared his ideas with others so that education of the deaf might spread. He trained many teachers on an "in-service" basis, including Abbé Stork, who later returned to Vienna to found the first state school for the deaf there (Bender, 1970, pp. 79-84).

Following the death of de L'Epée in 1789, the school was directed by Abbé Roch Sicard, who had trained under de L'Epée. He published a two-volume dictionary of signs, Theorie des Signes, in which he refined and expanded de L'Epée's work (DiCarlo, 1964, p. 26). By the time Sicard died in 1822, the manual method of teaching the deaf had become known as the French method, and was well established (Bender, 1970, p. 93).

While de L'Epée's French method was becoming established, a rival system based upon the oral approach was developing in Germany. Samuel Heinicke (1729-1790) became known as the father of the German method (Bender, 1970, p. 101). He believed that education should be available to all children and he, too, included the training of teachers in his school in Leipzig. He believed that all deaf children should be taught to speak. His method emphasized speech development that progressed through a sequence of educational events: word study, syllable study, and finally individual sounds and letters. He also believed that language development should parallel the development of natural language in hearing children: sense impressions, functional words, and recognition of word components (DiCarlo, 1964, p. 26).

In a letter written by Heinicke to de L'Epée in 1782, he said, "In my method of instructing the deaf, the spoken language is the fundamental point from which everything turns (Farrar, 1923, p. 53)." Heinicke tended

to conceal his teaching methods as much as possible; consequently, not as much is known about them as those of de L'Epée. Walther, the German historian on the education of the deaf, has summarized the principles of Heinicke's method as follows (Farrar, 1923, p. 54):

1. A knowledge of a thing proceeds its meaning
2. Clear thought is possible only by speech and therefore the deaf ought to be taught to speak
3. Taste can be substituted for hearing and learning speech
4. Signs and pictures are confusing and indefinite so that ideas thus acquired are not enduring
5. They can receive ideas but these can only be retained by repetition.
6. The manual alphabet is useful but contrary to its ordinary use, it only serves to combine ideas
7. The deaf can understand the speech of another from the motions of the lips
8. As soon as they can speak, they should not use signs

Heinicke was thus diametrically opposed to de L'Epée on the all-important principle, on which he insisted, that spoken words not signs must be the exclusive vehicle of thought and instruction if the deaf are to be brought into direct relation with the world of ideas represented by spoken and written language (Farrar, 1923, p. 54). His ultimate goal was that educating the deaf would not segregate them but rather make them happy members of society at large. So widespread was the influence of these two men that the pattern of their controversy was reproduced subsequently in many countries including the United States. During this period, the simmering controversy concerning educational methodologies--oral versus manual--was kindled into a heated battle which has yet to be

settled. Heinicke and de L'Epée entered into a lengthy correspondence, each trying to prove the superiority of his method (Garnett, 1968, pp. 1-66). Ultimately, they submitted their methods to the Zurich Academy for evaluation. Based upon the evidence presented, the judgment was made that neither method was natural, but the manual method was considered better. This decision resulted, in part, from de L'Epée's willingness to fully describe his method, while Heinicke was reluctant to share specific information about his method with the judges (Bender, 1970, p. 106).

At this same time in Scotland, Thomas Braidwood (1715-1806) was drawing attention because of his success in teaching the deaf. Employing a system of lipreading and writing, he helped the child develop a vocabulary. He was a natural teacher who, like Heinicke, was secretive in his work (Giangreco, 1970, p. 17).

He established a school in Edinburgh and later moved to London. Because he could not enlist public support for his school, he established a family monopoly for teaching the deaf. He did not permit teachers to learn his system but swore them to secrecy (Bender, 1970, p. 112). In 1775, Dr. Samuel Johnson visited Braidwood's school and wrote the following.

There is one subject of philosophical curiosity to be found in Edinburgh, which no other city has to shew; a college of deaf and dumb, who are taught to speak, to read, to write and to practice arithmetic by a gentleman whose name is Braidwood . . . the improvement of Mr. Braidwood's pupils is wonderful . . . if he that speaks looks toward them and modifies his organs by distinct and full utterance, they know so well what is spoken that it is an expression scarcely figurative to say they hear with the eye (Johnson, S. A Journey to the Western Islands of Scotland. London, W. Strahn and T. Daddell, 1775; DiCarlo, 1964, p. 28).

Beginning of the asylum system. By the end of the eighteenth century, programs for educating the deaf were established in France, Germany, and England; from these were to develop their national systems for the education of the deaf. It began in reality under de L'Épée with his manual approach and with selected education along oral lines realized under both Heinicke and Braidwood (Giangreco, 1970, p. 18). When Braidwood moved his school to London, he hoped to secure public finances, but he received no public encouragement. His influence was strong enough to persuade others to seek the aid of the public, however, and a committee for the education of the deaf was organized and he succeeded in opening a school for the deaf with Joseph Watson, a nephew of Braidwood, as the teacher. This marked the beginning of the "asylum system." Asylums were organized in recognition of the principle of sheltering the weak and oppressed from the cruelties and competition of a hostile world. Although such principles and practices in retrospect may appear to have interfered with educational progress, they seem to have had sufficient justification at the time of their inception. Thus, the cornerstone of the asylum system was laid with compassion and a new charity for the deaf (DiCarlo, 1964, p. 29). Joseph Watson (1765-1829) set the pace of headmasters of asylums for the deaf. Headmasters were, from the beginning, men of assured income and social position. They saw little of their children. The assistants who lived with and taught the children were their charges year in and year out and certainly must have been dedicated people (Giangreco, 1970, p. 20).

## Development of education of the deaf in America.

The first schools. Education of the deaf spread to the United States early in the nineteenth century. Prior to that time deaf children in America were sent abroad, usually to England, to be educated. The first attempts at establishing a school for the deaf in the United States were not successful. Francis Green of Massachusetts and Colonel William Bolling of Virginia, both fathers of deaf children, attempted to start schools. Francis Green had a son, Charles, who went to Edinburgh in 1780. Green accompanied his son to the school on several occasions, after which he wrote Vox Oculis Subjects (1783) in which he described Braidwood's methods. It is through this account that much about Braidwood's techniques are known. This book also served as a plea for public support in England and America (DiCarlo, 1964, p. 29; Bender, 1970, p. 116). He sowed the seeds to the needs of the deaf in America. He made the first American survey of the problem, concluding that there were about five hundred deaf children in the United States. But when he died in 1809, nothing more had been accomplished. The very next year, however, in 1810, the Reverend John Stanford was shocked at the condition of the deaf children whom he found existing but untaught in the city slum houses of New York. He set to work at once to help these children, but realizing he lacked the proper training, he soon gave it up (Hodgson, 1954, p. 181).

Two years later, in 1812, John Braidwood, a grandson of the Braidwood who founded England's schools, came to America to set up a school in Baltimore. Colonel William Bolling furnished the necessary funds for the establishment of this school. He had three deaf brothers who went to Braidwood's school in Edinburgh and was the father of deaf



children. Braidwood soon squandered the money and left, and this attempt to start a school was unsuccessful. Between 1812 and 1818, Braidwood tried and failed several times to educate the deaf. In 1819, he became a bartender in Manchester, Virginia. He died in 1820, a victim of alcoholism. Thus ended the first attempt to establish oralism in America (Bell, 1918, pp. 58-60).

Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet (1787-1851) of Hartford, Connecticut, must be given credit for the establishment of the first successful school for the deaf in America (Bender, 1970, pp. 122-123). Events leading to this milestone can be traced back to 1807 when two-year-old Alice Cogswell became deafened by meningitis. When Alice was nine, Cogswell met Gallaudet, a divinity student at Yale, and enlisted his services to teach her. Encouraged by Gallaudet's work, Dr. Cogswell began campaigning for educational provisions for deaf children in the United States. Based upon a census of school-age deaf children in his state, Cogswell estimated that there were up to two thousand deaf children in the country.

With the assistance of a group of businessmen, neighbors, and educators, Cogswell raised enough money to send a teacher to Europe to study methods of educating the deaf. Gallaudet was selected to make the trip and was sent to England in 1815 to study the oral system of the Braidwoods. On arriving in England, Gallaudet was disappointed at the help he received from the Braidwoods, who were said to be obtaining good results using the oral approach with deaf children but who were secretive about their methods. As noted earlier, the Braidwoods held a virtual monopoly on this field. They were especially reluctant to assist Gallaudet, as he noted in a letter to Cogswell on September 22, 1815:

The reason for this which Mr. Braidwood assigned is that his brother, Mr. John Braidwood, is in our country--the same gentleman of whom we heard as being in Virginia. The truth is he left this place a few years since in disgrace. He was solicited to undertake the superintendence of a public school for the deaf and dumb. He conducted so badly and contracted so many debts that he was obliged to abscond. What dependence can be placed on such a character (Bell, 1918, p. 61).

That John's presence in America did indeed cause the Braidwoods to refuse to help Gallaudet can be seen in the following paragraph taken from a letter to John Braidwood from his mother, dated October 5, 1815:

We were very much surprised and rather alarmed lately by the application of a Mr. Gallaudet from Connecticut, he informed your brother that he had been sent over by some gentlemen who wished to form an institution for deaf and dumb, and he wished to receive instruction in our Art. Having flattered ourselves that you were long ere this established, we have felt much at a loss to account for this event, and trusting that you are in life and in the practise of your profession we have judged it proper to have no concern with him, but we have recommended his making application to you (Bell, 1900, p. 396).

A report probably written by Gallaudet himself accounts for events which took place from that point:

Not meeting with a satisfactory reception at the London Asylum he went to Edinburgh. Here new obstacles arose from an obligation which had been imposed upon the Institution in that city not to instruct teachers in the Art for a term of years, thus rendering unavailing the friendly desires of its benevolent instructor and the kind wishes of its generous patrons (Bell, 1918, p. 62).

After these repeated disappointments and discouragements, Mr. Gallaudet then went to France where he was cordially received by Abbé Sicard, who had succeeded de L'Epée, and spent a year observing their methods of teaching the deaf. When Gallaudet sailed for America in 1816 he brought with him not only all that he had been able to learn from Sicard, but also M. Laurent Clerc, Sicard's ablest pupil, to assist him. Clerc was deaf himself and hence was the first deaf teacher of the deaf in

the United States. Gallaudet was converted to the French doctrines with the result that on his return to Connecticut he became a leader in the campaign for a state school and implemented the French system of signing in his school. Thus it was that the silent method was established as the American method, due, in part, to an unfortunate mixture of alcohol and secrecy (Marvelli, 1973, p. 38). Gallaudet and his friends convinced the State of Connecticut to appropriate \$5,000 to establish the first school for the deaf in the United States. This sum, together with \$12,000 of public subscription, enabled Gallaudet to open the doors of the Connecticut Asylum at Hartford for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb on April 15, 1817. Seven pupils were enrolled the first year and thirty-three the second. In 1819 the Hartford school received a federal grant of 23,000 acres of land, and subsequently changed its name to the American Asylum (Hodgson, 1954, p. 183). It is known today as The American School for the Deaf.

In New York, after several years of campaigning for public assistance, the New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb was established in 1818 (Brill, 1974, p. 4). It was supported by a grant and a guaranteed tax-based income (Bender, 1970, p. 120).

The Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and the Dumb was established in Philadelphia in 1820. These schools were started as private schools and raising funds to keep them going was an important part of the work of the leaders. The Kentucky School in Danville, the fourth to be established, was a step forward in educating the deaf. The state legislature started this school, which opened on April 11, 1823 with three pupils present. There was no teacher to receive them, however. Reverend

John R. Kerr and his wife were appointed to be in charge, boarding them, and having "oversight" of them when not in the schoolroom. By the end of November there were seventeen pupils present, even though it was not until the first of October that the Board succeeded in securing a teacher (Beauchamp, 1973, p. 3). The Ohio School was founded in 1829. The Indiana School marked yet another important step forward in the education of the deaf. The school was originally established as a private project by Mr. William Willard, a deaf man. In 1844 the Indiana legislature assumed responsibility for the school. Heretofore, all schools had been free to indigent children only. Indiana was the first state to provide free education for all deaf children (McClure in Griffith, 1969, p. 7).

The education of the deaf was the first type of special education to begin in the United States, commencing more than 160 years ago. There were already five schools for the deaf when the Perkins Institute for the Blind was opened in Watertown, Massachusetts, in 1837. The first program for the education of the mentally retarded was undertaken at Barre, Massachusetts, in 1848 (Brill, 1974, p. 4).

Schools for the deaf in the United States spread rapidly from one state to another. Some were begun as small private schools, and were later taken over by the public school system. Many had been instituted as benevolent asylums and were given state support. Many were created by the state at the beginning. These were all residential schools and followed the manual system of education established by Gallaudet at Hartford (Bender, 1970, p. 148).

The Virginia School was the first to have both the deaf and blind in the same institution (Moore, 1978, p. 53). Twenty-four such schools were

established in the next fifty years, when oral education appeared on the scene and there were forty-eight schools by 1900 (McClure in Griffith, 1969, p. 6).

Because American education of the deaf was based almost from the very beginning upon public funding, it was not necessary for the system to develop in secrecy. Educators could share their ideas freely without fear of personal economic disaster. This openness brought new dignity to the profession and, combined with public funding, improved chances for children to receive an education.

The rapid spread of American education of the deaf via the manual method did not take place without opposition being voiced, but for nearly fifty years it was the only organized system in this country. Two prominent individuals who seriously questioned the advisability of using the manual method were Horace Mann (1796-1859) and Samuel Howe (1801-1876). Mann, a noted educator and secretary of the First Massachusetts School Board, and Howe, director of the Massachusetts School for the Blind, traveled to Europe in 1843 to investigate schools for the deaf and returned most impressed with what they saw in German oral schools. Mann published a report which aroused the interest of many parents in the possibilities of a similar system in America (Bender, 1970, pp. 148-149).

The beginning of oral education in America. For two decades no significant action was taken; then in 1862, the first of a series of events which were to change the history of education of the deaf took place. Four-year-old Mabel Hubbard, daughter of the Honorable Gardiner G. Hubbard of Cambridge, Massachusetts, lost her hearing due to an attack of scarlet fever. Determined that she was not going to lose her

speech, her parents worked relentlessly to maintain her oral capabilities. They were distressed to learn that there were no facilities in America from which they could receive assistance in their efforts. Despite this, they were able to prevent Mabel from becoming a deaf-mute. During his search for an appropriate program for Mabel, Mr. Hubbard turned to Horace Mann and Dr. Howe for help. They encouraged the Hubbards to talk as much as possible to Mabel and to teach her to read the spoken words from the movements of the lips and vocal organs. Although the family knew no formal signs whatever, they were warned not to use any signs and never to accept a single sign from Mabel (Numbers, 1974, p. 6).

The Hubbards joined forces with the Lippitts of Rhode Island in trying to establish an oral school for the deaf. The Lippitts, too, had a deaf daughter whom they had taught successfully. In 1864 the Massachusetts legislature was petitioned to establish an articulation school, but the measure was defeated partly as a result of tremendous pressure from the Hartford school.

Undaunted, Hubbard pushed on. Together with other interested parents, he enlisted the services of Miss Harriet B. Rogers, a skillful teacher of hearing children, raised private funds, and opened a school in Chelmsford, Massachusetts, in June 1866. Miss Rogers' success prompted Hubbard to approach the Massachusetts legislature once again in 1867. On this occasion his application was viewed more favorably. Coincidentally, Massachusetts Governor Bullock had received a communication from John Clarke of Northampton who, himself, was losing his hearing, offering to provide \$50,000 for the establishment of a school for the deaf, if it should be located in Northampton. This combination of events led to the

passage of Hubbard's bill and the establishment of the Clarke School for the Deaf, an oral school, which opened its doors on October 1, 1867. Finally, parents of deaf children in America had a choice (Bell, 1918, pp. 63-69). In the years that followed, a number of oral schools were established throughout the country and have played a vital role in the education of the deaf since that time. The Horace Mann School for the Deaf, founded in Boston in 1869, was the first day school. The first parochial school for the deaf was established by the Sisters of Saint Joseph of Carondelet in Saint Louis, Missouri, in 1837 (McClure in Griffith, 1969, p. 7).

The nineteenth century educators expressed concern for the technical/vocational education of the deaf and it was reported at a meeting of the Eleventh Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf in 1886 that "The high honor of establishing the first schools in the country where any persistent attempt was made to teach trades belongs to the institution of the deaf (Moores, 1978, p. 262)."

The present status of schools. Today it is reported that there are sixty-seven public and nine private residential schools, seventy public and sixteen private day schools, and four hundred twenty public and thirty-one private day classes for the deaf. There are also thirty-one programs for the multihandicapped only (American Annals, Vol. 123, April 1978, p. 197). These figures are somewhat misleading, however, since a number of public school districts do not submit reports on their programs. In a study conducted by the Office of Demographic Studies, Washington, D.C., one-fourth of the identified public school programs providing services to hearing impaired children did not respond (American Annals, Vol. 123,

April 1978, p. 100).

In 1900 there were 112 public and private day and residential schools educating about 12,000 deaf students. Over 90 percent of these students were in residential schools. In 1973 these figures showed 807 programs educating about 50,000 students. The total number of schools increased by 54. The number of residential schools increased by only 5 during that period while the number of day schools nearly doubled. The greatest difference occurred in the number of public school programs. None was listed in 1900, while there were about 560 day classes in 1973. In 1973 about 50 percent of the students were in day schools or day classes (Brill, 1974, pp. 5-6).

A study conducted by Rawlings and Trybus (American Annals, Vol. 123, April 1978, p. 100) reported a student enrollment in 1974-75 of 60,231. Making allowances for enrollment data of the programs not reporting, it was determined that the probable national enrollment in special education programs for hearing impaired children was about 69,000. The reported data showed about 20,000, or 32 percent of the students in residential programs, and about 25,000, or 40 percent in school districts offering part-time classes and services. Considering the unreported data, these percentages decrease and increase respectively.

The April 1978 Directory Issue of the American Annals of the Deaf (p. 197) reports only 47,324 students being served. It shows a decrease of about 2,000 in residential schools in the three years hence. The large difference in reported total students from 1975 (60,231) and 1978 (47,324) must be accredited to the public school sector which has absorbed



these students and not reported them. What programs are being provided these students, how effective they are, and the reasons for the uncooperative attitude of these school systems in making data available are concerns for our profession.

Trybus commented that these statistics shift almost daily as programs begin operation, close down, merge, or change type; that the "total number" must be regarded as the best available estimate rather than an absolute count (American Annals, Vol. 123, April 1978, p. 100).

Postsecondary programs for the deaf. Higher education for the deaf must be briefly mentioned. The National Deaf-Mute College was established by federal charter in Washington, D.C., in 1864. This was one of many attempts by the Congress, in the midst of a civil war, to keep the nation together. The college was an outgrowth of the Columbia Institution for the Deaf. Dr. Edward Miner Gallaudet was appointed its head and the name was later changed to Gallaudet College in honor of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, founder of the American School at Hartford and father of Edward Miner Gallaudet (Moores, 1978, p. 262). President Abraham Lincoln signed its charter.

Gallaudet College is the only liberal arts college for the deaf in the world. It provides a full college program for deaf persons who need special facilities to compensate for their loss of hearing (Gallaudet College Catalogue). It is the only college which presents diplomas signed by the President of the United States (Brill, 1974, p. 196). Gallaudet had a student body of about 1,220 in the 1978 school year (American Annals, Vol. 123, April 1978, p. 213).

The National Technical Institute for the Deaf (NTID) was created by Public Law 89-36 and signed into law by President Lyndon B. Johnson in June 1965. NTID affiliated with the Rochester Institute of Technology to provide vocational/technical education to the deaf at the college level. In the 1978 school year there were about 850 students enrolled (American Annals, Vol. 123, April 1978, p. 216). This program has expanded the employment opportunities of the deaf significantly.

A number of other colleges across the country have developed programs for the deaf. In addition to the 2,070 students at Gallaudet and NTID, the April 1978 issue of the American Annals of the Deaf lists fifty-seven additional postsecondary education programs for the deaf in twenty-seven states. A total of 2,645 students are being served in these programs by 845 professional and supportive staff (American Annals, Vol. 123, April 1978, pp. 212-217). Many of these programs are small and are located in junior and religious colleges. A majority of the staff consists of support personnel, most of whom are interpreters.

What about the future. The education of the deaf is undergoing rapid upheaval. The traditional system of day and residential schools is yielding to a rapid transition of students from these schools into programs being provided by the public schools. Impetus for this shift has been Chapter 766 in Massachusetts and Public Law 94-142 which has placed the responsibility for educating children with special needs on the shoulders of the local school. In addition to being financially responsible, the public schools are now required to provide special needs children with access to the public schools and to develop appropriate programs for them

when feasible. The interpretation of these laws and the implementation of them are undoubtedly causing concern for the public schools, the special schools, and for the parents of these children.

Much good has been accomplished, even though much remains to be done, but there is great concern that many children will suffer due to the well-intentioned but inappropriate decisions being made for them.

Summary. In a little over two hundred years, we have progressed in the education of the deaf from a few isolated cases to universal education for all, even through the college level. The educators of the deaf developed the most advanced organization of any handicapped group and set standards and developed teaching techniques for even the public schools to follow. We now stand on the threshold of a new approach, that of "mainstreaming" our hearing impaired students. Where will this lead us? A new history is now being written.

#### Trends and Issues in the Education of the Deaf

It has often been said and written that the deaf child is an ordinary child who cannot hear. Fair enough. We all know what is meant and we accept, one hopes, the message. The statement does, however, merit a little more consideration. In fact, the deaf child is not an ordinary child who cannot hear, because an ordinary child remains ordinary unless something exceptional happens. The deaf child will not develop into an ordinary child unless something exceptional happens. Even in this day and age, with all our knowledge, experience and advanced technology, the deaf child who becomes ordinary is exceptional. Undoubtedly and wonderfully, there is a growing number of "ordinary" young men and women who have mastered a severe or profound hearing loss. They are super people who have shown courage, self-discipline, initiative and humour far beyond the usual (Bloom, 1978, p. 2).

Predicting who will become "ordinary" or successful is beyond our ability at this time. Many factors come into play: the degree of the

handicap, additional handicaps, native intelligence, personality, parental support, and educational opportunities. Appropriate programs are difficult to determine. Even when the needs are fairly well known, there may not be a suitable program available.

Far too many children still do not have the opportunities at home and in their communities to overcome the effects of their hearing loss. As time goes by, the achievement gaps between them and ordinary children increase. They lag behind because they do not hear.

How to decide on educational programs, which methods to use, what kind of staff is necessary, what settings are best; these questions and many more have been issues in educating the deaf from the early beginning. A few new problems have arisen from time to time but the basic ones are still with us.

In the next several pages we will take a look at some of the issues and trends in the education of the deaf. Many of them are not controversial; such as summer programs, continuing education programs, parent programs, vocational training, and others too numerous to list. Everyone agrees that all services needed by the normal student and available to him should also be provided for the deaf student. In addition, much more is needed.

Some issues, which are more basic, such as how the deaf should be educated, by what methods, and in what settings, are very controversial. Should the deaf child be taught through the oral method or with total communication? Should the child be educated in special schools with his peers or should education take place in the "mainstream" of public education? Should children be sent away to residential schools? Anytime a

group concerned with educating the deaf gets together, whether they be the deaf themselves, parents, teachers, administrators, or state officials, there are disagreements. It should be obvious that different children require and benefit from different approaches; yet, while people can agree with that statement, in theory they continue to try to force children into the mode of their preference or the mode most readily available.

In the scheme of things today, the residential school for the deaf is near the bottom of a list of appropriate placements. From the author's perspective, that hierarchy of placements is wrong.

The issues discussed here are the most important ones, as the author sees them. They are the oral/manual controversy, day and residential placements, declining enrollments, and "mainstreaming."

Just as general education has experienced trends, issues, innovations, and disappointments, so has the education of the deaf. Many of these issues have occurred in parallel to each other. In many instances the education of the deaf has been the leader in introducing new techniques.

In searching through the proceedings of the professional meetings over the last century, you find that many of the concerns and issues keep recurring, and some of them are still problems today.

In a report to the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf in 1938, Dr. Elbert A. Gruver, its president, discussed "Stands and Trends in the Education of the Deaf (Gruver, 1938, pp. 621-626)."

The early pioneers were earnest men; they pursued their work with vigor and skill and used the best means available. After the two differ-

ent approaches to teaching the deaf were established, the inquiring American mind raised questions about the effectiveness of their methods. Issues were raised, practices were questioned and discussed. Present day practices and theories are undergoing similar scrutiny and criticism.

Gruver felt it was impossible for enthusiastic educators of the deaf to live and work in complete harmony. To do so would lead to stagnation. Differences of opinion enrich thought, create interest, and spur activity. He felt, however, that we must have a most sensitive respect for each other's opinions.

Gruver felt we should always keep our purpose clearly in mind. He expressed that in a single sentence, "to make and keep the deaf child as nearly normal as possible (p. 621)." He said that when the process of education is carried out properly by skilled and experienced persons, the results approximate the purpose very closely. He warned, however, that "when pursued unintelligently by untrained and inexperienced persons the results are very disappointing (p. 621)."

Dr. Gruver presented what he considered the most significant and important trends at that time (1938). It is interesting to note how current some of them sound:

#### Present Trends: Forward and Backward

First, the far-reaching effect of the increasing use of hearing aids. With audiometric tests becoming more prevalent yearly in the public schools, hearing aids are coming into use more and more. How to use them most effectively is the great question.

Second, the aroused interest in industrial instruction. The transition of industrial instruction from the workshop to the classroom is changing the type of work and the kind of instruction, breaking down the long-time prejudice between industrial and academic teachers.

Third, the establishment of permanent summer schools and training schools for teachers of the deaf in colleges and universities.

Fourth, the tendency to place all education of the deaf under Boards of Education and the interest manifested by the Federal Office of Education in all types of handicapped children.

Fifth, the noticeable tendency in the public day schools toward the congregation of all types of physically handicapped children in union schools. This may be viewed as a throwback rather than a step forward for deaf children. To make the deaf child as nearly normal as possible, we should have him at all times and in all places associate with the normal as much as possible.

Sixth, examinations, surveys, experiments, and tests of all kinds, in and out of schools, are going on constantly. They are interesting and time-consuming, but not always convincing or conclusive. There seems to be no accurate measure for some of these efforts. The deductions are loosely drawn at times from insufficient data by persons with little knowledge and experience, deluding the credulous, but not the experienced.

Seventh, the placing of preschool children in existing residential schools and the acceptance of children of very tender ages in day schools. We have some very disappointing experiences in this type of instruction. Only schools with specially trained teachers and facilities particularly adapted to very small children should attempt to care for and instruct deaf children of preschool age. To legislate them into schools where these facilities are not available, as some enthusiasts advocate, does not seem to be the proper approach to the subject.

Eighth, the tendency to place persons in charge of schools for the deaf who are not versed in the technique of the education of the deaf, nor interested in the deaf and their problems. The baneful effects of this practice are noticeable in some localities.

Ninth, the New York Trend. A new departure in the public education of deaf children, involving sex separation, vocational selection, and religious adaptation. The beginning is auspicious and progress will be watched with keen interest.

Tenth, a tendency to draw too close distinction between the deaf and the hard of hearing. This tends to confuse rather than simplify the problem of the adult deaf and hard of hearing. In the layman's mind, persons who cannot hear are deaf. The public seems to disregard fine distinctions in physical disability and mental adaptability in the deaf (Gruver, 1938, p. 623).

In 1944, Dr. Christine Ingram wrote about trends in Special Education (Ingram, 1944, p. 197). She summarized the three trends in special education as:

1. Education for participation of normal life experiences
2. Service by professional organizations
3. Extension and improvement of special education through informed leadership in state departments of education and in the U.S. Office of Education (p. 254)

O'Connor discussed some modern trends in the education of the deaf on the occasion of the Horace Mann School for the Deaf's seventy-fifth anniversary (O'Connor, 1945). He mentioned that preschool training, increased interest in speech and hearing aids, more emphasis on vocational training, a new interest in the slow-learning deaf, and social trends are seen. Under social trends he mentioned parent education, the deinstitutionalization of schools, research, and teacher-training as having very positive momentum.

He mentioned one other trend which he felt was highly undesirable. That was the slow but gradual movement toward the establishment of isolated special day classes for the deaf within the public school system, wherein pupils of widely divergent ages and grades may be educated together and often by an untrained teacher (p. 250).

Pugh (1947) pointed out that there was a trend toward the lowering of the admission age, with six schools admitting children at the age of three. She also noted a trend to much more elaborate testing programs, from hearing tests to achievement and I.Q. tests. She noted that there was a strong tendency toward differentiating between programs for the deaf and the hard of hearing and that more and more special programs were being



used. She detected a trend from special textbooks toward the use of regular educational materials (pp. 261-302).

Owsley (1964), in a paper on issues in the education of the deaf, listed eight issues which confronted educators of the deaf. Among the eight were large numbers of untrained teachers, lack of well-developed organized curriculum, lack of adequate evaluation and accreditation, relatively low achievement levels, and lack of research in educational methodology. He suggested that these issues be brought to the conference table and that they be resolved on a national basis.

Streng (1967) noted that the developments which have had the greatest influence on our schools for the deaf include:

1. Advances in basic sciences and their application to medicine
2. Burgeoning technological developments
3. Rapid urbanization
4. Expanding federal welfare programs (p. 95)

The development of vaccines against the childhood diseases of diphtheria, mumps, measles, and recently rubella has largely eliminated them as causes of deafness. Medical science has also lessened the chance of children suffering deafness as a result of Rh incompatibility, and diseases such as meningitis and other viral diseases.

Urbanization has increased the concentration of deaf children in metropolitan areas so that day schools and classes are now educating a majority of the children. In the first half of the twentieth century, children who seemed unable to succeed academically in oral day schools were frequently referred to the state schools. There, different kinds of provisions were made for their education. However, the current philosophy

of local responsibility for educating all of the children keeps many, if not most, of the complex children in day schools and classes. Teachers in these schools are frustrated by lack of success and, as a result, day schools and day classes have introduced fingerspelling and signs in their programs. In fact, manualism is becoming rather widespread as the accepted means of communication by the children in these schools. We may well ask if the pendulum has begun its backward swing (p. 99).

Streng says now is the time to reset the clock and to start the pendulum in the right direction. Federal aid to education of the deaf will undoubtedly prove to be the greatest stimulus to change that the profession has experienced in the last one hundred years.

Lowell (1967) also said undoubtedly the most significant influence on the education of the deaf in the past few years has been the growing interest on the part of the federal government in the problems of the deaf. This interest began with the funding of teacher education programs in 1962 and has led to the passing of Public Law 94-142 in 1975.

The next major trend is the rapid development of technology relating to the deaf. This led to the establishment of several regional centers. The Northeast Regional Media Center was established at the University of Massachusetts under the very able leadership of Dr. Raymond Wyman.

Lowell also noted an increased interaction between the fields of linguistics and the education of the deaf, and his last trend was toward the eradication of rubella as a cause of deafness.

Mecham (1967) predicted a move toward the placement of deaf children in schools for the normally hearing.

Bruce (1976) reported on changes that have taken place in the past

decade. He noted that our profession has been in the midst of rather dramatic changes. All schools have been affected and challenges abound as to modes of communication, types of amplification, location of classes, degrees of mainstreaming, language formats, educational recommendations, and teacher preparation. He saw a number of trends which are limiting our effectiveness and several that will strengthen our performances in the classroom.

Discouraging trends were attitudes toward speech, particularly as it pertains to the profoundly deaf child. There is a creeping acceptance of a belief that it will be the exceptional child who will acquire functional speech. A second trend relates to the hard of hearing. They are being educated in programs with the profoundly deaf where total communication is being used and are therefore beginning to function more as deaf children than hard of hearing. A third concern is about the dearth of supervisory personnel in the smaller day schools and classes and the lack of understanding for the need and, therefore, the reluctance of public programs to fund the positions.

A fourth concern touches upon mainstreaming. Whether by court order, administrative edict, parental persuasion, or professional conviction, the hearing impaired child is being plunged into the mainstream of American education. Often the necessary support is not available and the result is an increasing number of "mainstream failures" being sent to the day and residential schools.

An additional concern relates to the preparation of teachers. Before federal aid to training programs, only eleven colleges and universities offered training to teachers of the deaf. After aid became

available and at the insistence of the government, we now have over fifty college and university centered programs (Streng, 1967, p. 99). Bruce's concerns are that many of these programs do not meet the Council on Education of the Deaf standards, admit far too many students, do not have adequate practicum centers, and try to cover too many concepts and skills in too few semesters of work.

Bruce also saw some optimistic trends: an acceptance that one educational program cannot be all things to all children, individualized instruction taking hold, better communication among the various professionals, and a new move to better educate the multihandicapped.

The oral/manual controversy. More has been written on this issue than any other in the education of the deaf. Today, it is still a very important issue but "mainstreaming" has now taken its place as the number one issue.

The education of the deaf began in Paris in 1775. Prior to this, there had been isolated instances of individuals being taught but it was the Abbé Charles Michel de L'Epée who started the first school. He developed the manual system in his school. He did not consider teaching his pupils to speak because he did not have the knowledge or time. At this same time Samuel Heinicke was establishing a school in Germany using the oral method. These two men disagreed about the merits of "signs" and "oralism" as methods of instruction. So widespread was the influence of these two men that the pattern of their controversy still persists in the world and it was reproduced here in America. The history of the establishment of these two schools and the establishment of the first schools in America was discussed in the previous section. The issue remains the

same but the techniques, arguments, and refinements of the two systems have become much more sophisticated. There is no one definition of the oral method or the manual method since each has undergone refinements and changes.

In de L'Épée's school, the pupils lived isolated lives and relied on "signs" for learning and communicating with their peers. The school was shelter and haven for the students. In Heinicke's school many children lived at home, and speech and speechreading were used in their daily activities as well as for their education.

In America, the first schools used the manual method patterned after de L'Épée and later, with the establishment of the Clarke School and other private schools, the oral method used by Heinicke was begun. Educators, therefore, supported the philosophy of their schools, and the role of signs and speech became an issue.

Jones (1918) summarized the situation as follows:

The educators of the deaf, therefore, fell into two groups: one known as the oralists, headed by the Clarke School, ably led by its Principal, Dr. Caroline A. Yale, and by Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, and the other as the advocates of the combined system, led with equal ability and persistence by Dr. Edward Miner Gallaudet, President of Gallaudet College. It is proper to say here that there never was any difference of opinion among the friends of these two sets of schools as to the wisdom and justice of teaching speech and lip-reading to the deaf. Their differences arose only as to what proportion of the deaf could be benefited by speech instruction and under what conditions such instruction should be given. The oralists contended that speech and lip-reading can be made very effective with a large percentage of deaf children when properly taught in a speech environment; but that speech taught in connection with the sign language and finger spelling naturally fails for want of practice. The friends of the combined system maintained that a large proportion of deaf pupils cannot be successfully taught speech and lip-reading even under the above favorable conditions; that the sign language and finger spelling are of the greatest aid in the mental development of the deaf, in equipping them for the battle of life, and in securing to them the

greatest happiness.

But out of this controversy came better teaching of speech and lip-reading, both in the oral and the combined-system schools. Teachers were better trained and in the latter schools more encouragement was given to the teaching of speech (Jones, 1918, p. 18).

Oral communication, in the context of education of the deaf, refers to expressive communication through speech and receptive communication through speechreading or lipreading. In most educational programs the term "pure oral" describes a system which does not allow any manual communication. The term "oral education" sometimes means the use of oral communication exclusively in classes but may not prohibit manual communications outside the classroom (Brill, 1974).

The fundamental position of the oralist is that training in speech and speechreading gives an easier adjustment to the world in which speech is the chief medium of communication (Davis and Silverman, 1960, p. 420).

The strong oralist believes that every deaf child of normal intelligence can learn speech and lipreading, and because the deaf child must be motivated to use speech and speechreading constantly, any use of manual communication will interfere with the acquisition of speech. For this reason, the strong oralist takes the position that:

1. Deaf children should be taught lipreading and speech from the beginning
2. Deaf children must be in an exclusively oral environment
3. Systematic signing must be eliminated during the crucial period of speech and language development (DiCarlo, 1964)

The oral method can be expanded into what is called the "Auditory Global Method." The principal features of this "method" are that the primary, though not always exclusive, channel for speech and language

development is auditory and the input is fluent, connected speech. The terms "auditory-oral," "aural-oral," "acoupedic," "natural," and "uni-sensory" are conventional synonyms for this "method" (Davis and Silverman, 1978, p. 442). The method stresses maximum use of the auditory channel.

The combined method mentioned earlier resulted from using both de L'Epée's and Heinicke's systems together. This later was referred to as the simultaneous method, meaning speaking and signing at the same time, and today all methods using any components of signing and fingerspelling are lumped together as "Total Communication" with the exception of the "Rochester Method or Visible English." These methods use speech and fingerspelling simultaneously but do not use signs. Cued speech is another system which is speech-supported by manual cues to assist with lipreading. It is not considered to be a part of Total Communication.

Total Communication, then, involves all modes of communication from the beginning (Davis and Silverman, 1978, p. 443). Total Communication advocates stress the sole reliance on the oral method results in ambiguous or deficient communication which retards cognitive development. They see this method as being more beneficial to deaf persons, its opportunities for social expression being preferred to a goal of "Integration" into "hearing society." As of now there is no universal agreement on what constitutes Total Communication (p. 443).

Garretson (1976) writes that in recent years a number of efforts have been made to reach consensus on an acceptable definition of total communication. There is general agreement in these assumptions:

1. That the concept is a philosophy rather than a method
2. A combining of aural/oral-manual modes according to the needs

of the individuals

3. The moral right of the hearing impaired, as with normally hearing bilinguals, to maximum input in order to attain optimal comprehension and total understanding in the communication situation (p. 89).

From the foregoing rationale, it may be perceived that total communication is neither a method nor a prescribed system of instruction. It is a philosophical approach that encourages a climate of communication flexibility for the deaf person free of ambiguity, guesswork, and stress. It acknowledges the fact that the hearing impaired require a totality of visual support. A basic premise of total communication is that the strengths in one mode compensate for the weaknesses in another mode--that they are mutually reinforcing (p. 90).

Oralism has been defined as a way of life.

It is not a subject to be taught for a few minutes a day; it is a philosophy of education that moves with the child in the classroom, the playground, the dormitory, the home, and the place of worship. It is not an academic exercise. It is a way of life (Miller, 1970, p. 215).

Haycock (1945) gave a similar definition for oralism.

Personally, I conceive oralism to be an attitude of mind, rather than a method. True oralism penetrates behind the child's speech, and seeks to inspire in the mind of the child a feeling of identity with his neighbor, an urge to break down the barrier which would deprive him not only of normal communication with his kind, but also of a ready acceptance of himself by the world at large, on equal terms with hearing men and women of similar capabilities (pp. 245-246).

So whether these are philosophies, methods, means of communication, techniques, or "languages," there are differences of opinion about how each should be used. So the question might be, how effective are these methods?

This question has been asked many times. Back in the days of



de L'Epée and Heinicke, the Zurich Academy attempted to evaluate the two methods and decide which was superior. Heinicke and de L'Epée had entered into a lengthy correspondence, each trying to prove his method superior. Each submitted his methods to the Zurich Academy for evaluation. Based upon the evidence presented, the judgment was made that neither method was natural, but the manual method was considered better. This decision resulted, in part, from de L'Epée's willingness to fully describe his method, while Heinicke was reluctant to share specific information about his method with the judges (Bender, 1970, p. 106).

Since that time, advocates of each method have put forward their arguments and evidence to indicate their superiority. At the time of the establishment of the Clarke School, the oral/manual issue was hotly debated in the Massachusetts legislature. Gardiner Greene Hubbard and his supporters for establishing an oral school in Massachusetts were defeated by the supporters of the manual method at the American School in Hartford. This was in 1864 when oralism was just an idea and those with fifty years of experience prevailed. Hubbard was not to be outdone, so he hired a teacher, Miss Harriet B. Rogers, and collected a class of deaf children. Two years later they demonstrated to the legislature that the oral system was worthy of a trial. The school's charter was granted and the Clarke School opened in 1867, the first oral school in America.

The leader of the opposition from Hartford and a member of the Massachusetts legislature was Mr. Lewis J. Dudley, father of a deaf daughter. After seeing and hearing the oral pupils demonstrate their abilities, he and his wife and daughter visited Miss Rogers' little school. Mr. Dudley was skeptical, but Mrs. Dudley and Theresa stayed at

the school for a few days. While there, Miss Byam, Miss Rogers' assistant, taught Theresa several words which she spoke to her father upon their return home. Mr. Dudley was immediately converted and led the fight in the legislature for the Clarke School charter. Mr. Dudley was one of the founding Corporators and served the school for many years (Numbers, 1974, pp. 13-20).

So in 1866, the oral method passed the test in the Massachusetts legislature. After the school had been in existence only a couple of years, the Conference of Principals of the Schools for the Deaf convened in Washington, D.C. Fourteen of the twenty-eight schools in existence at that time sent representatives. They passed resolutions approving of the teaching of speech and lipreading in their schools and urged boards of directors to provide funds for implementing these new programs. One resolution stated that this method was for the semideaf and not appropriate for the profoundly deaf (Gordon, 1892, xxxi).

Another attempt to decide which of the two methods was best was made at an International Congress of Teachers of the Deaf at Milan, Italy, in 1880. After considerable debate of both sides of the oral/manual controversy, the Congress almost unanimously (160-4) passed the following resolution:

Considering the incontestable superiority of speech over signs in restoring the deaf mute to society, and in giving him a more perfect knowledge of language, (the Congress) Declares: That the oral method ought to be preferred to that of signs for the education and instruction of the deaf and dumb (Bender, 1970, pp. 164-165).

It was not until federal funds became available around 1965 that much research was done.

In 1975, Nix did a review of seventeen studies most widely quoted in support of the value of total communication and as evidence of the ineffectiveness of the oral approach. He noted that the studies were not designed to address the question of method superiority. Many studies were used as evidence of the ineffectiveness of the oral approach when such application of the findings is inappropriate and inaccurate.

Eight of the studies were descriptive in nature and they presented data through the use of descriptive statistics without the application of statistical tests of significance. Most of the subjects in these studies were from residential schools which were basically not oral schools. He pointed out that less than half of the subjects wore hearing aids and, noting other weaknesses, concluded that these studies were not reliable indicators of the effectiveness of the auditory/oral approach.

A second group of studies was called ex post facto, or "after the fact" studies. Rather than being true experimental studies, they matched groups of subjects on the basis of preintervention after the intervention has occurred. He says these experiments are "judged to be unsatisfactory at their very best (p. 480)."

In pointing out the limitations of these studies to support the superiority of total communication, Nix says that deaf children who use auditory/oral communication as their exclusive mode of communication were not used in the samples in the instances where instruction in the classroom was oral, the out-of-school environment was not, and there was no effective way to control variables which could affect the final results (p. 490).

Nix concluded that the seventeen research studies frequently used to

support total communication have been misinterpreted and inappropriately generalized, even though some of the investigators specifically cautioned against this (p. 493). The task facing the profession today is not to find a panacea for all children, but rather to work toward development of quality programming which includes alternative approaches and improved diagnostic procedures for selecting the "best" educational alternative for each individual hearing impaired child (p. 494).

At the 1972 National Convention of the Alexander Graham Bell Association meeting in Chicago, there was a "debate" on the oral/manual controversy. A panel moderated by Dr. Edwin Martin, Associate Commissioner, Bureau of Education of the Handicapped, presented arguments for "oralism" and "total communication." Dr. Audrey Ann Simmons-Martin, Dr. Daniel Ling, and Dr. Joseph Rosenstein spoke in support of the oral approach. Dr. McCay Vernon, Dr. Eugene Mindel, and Ms. Patricia Shearer spoke in support of total communication. Vernon and Simmons-Martin were the principal speakers, and both gave their best efforts. Vernon cited all the research previously downplayed by Nix as evidence of the efficacy of the manual system. This panel presentation was the most highly developed attempt to bring advocates of the two sides together and actually debate the issue. There was a packed house and much excitement. Probably everyone felt good, each one assuming that his side emerged the winner. In actuality, very little has changed. There is still a basic philosophical difference of opinion as to which method is best for deaf children.

Dr. Edwin Martin perhaps summarized it best in his introduction.

This kind of debate suggests that we lose track from time to time of what those of us who have worked as clinicians with hearing impaired people know to be true at the service level: there are no

final answers in this area. No one has developed a program that can meet the needs of deaf youngsters universally, without regard to who they are, whom they work for, what they endure, what kinds of abilities they have, and what kinds of family backgrounds they come from (Martin, 1972, p. 528).

Day and residential schools. Why are day and residential schools an issue? If you are a supporter of day and residential schools, you see no issue. If you are a supporter of the integration or mainstreaming of deaf children, you also see no issue. Each side sees only their point of view. At least the author fears that is becoming the case, and thus it is an issue.

Some definitions are in order. Educational programs have been grouped into four broad types. Residential schools for the deaf need little more definition than the term itself, except to indicate that not all students in such programs actually live at the school. Between 15 percent and 20 percent of the students in residential schools attend on a day basis and live at home. Day schools for the deaf are those facilities which are specifically for deaf children, but which provide no residential accommodations; most of them have "School for the Deaf" or comparable words in their official name. Full-time classes refer to situations in which essentially all of the deaf child's school time is spent in a class consisting only of hearing impaired children, the class itself being located in a local school which is not limited to hearing impaired children. Integrated or "mainstream" is taken to mean situations in which the hearing impaired child spends all or part of the school day in classes with hearing children (Karchmer and Trybus, 1977, p. 1).

Karchmer and Trybus (1977) attempted to describe the current reali-

ties of the field of education of the deaf as to placement of deaf children. Their report was based on data collected during the 1975-76 school year. They found that residential schools serve the largest single group although that group is now a decided minority in the overall picture. The "integrated" programs together served 19 percent of the population. The program types served somewhat different age groups. While half of the residential school children are age fifteen or above, less than one in five children in full-time classes have reached that age.

The most important difference among the program types was degree of hearing loss. Nearly two-thirds of the children in residential schools are profoundly deaf, while only 18 percent of those in integrated programs have profound losses. As the severity of the hearing loss increases, the proportion enrolled in integrated programs declines rapidly.

Mainstream programs enroll two to three times as many postlingually deaf children as do the other programs. The impact of the postlingual onset of deafness on the educational needs little elaboration.

Karchmer and Trybus also found that the integrated group had a somewhat higher proportion of white children and that the day schools served a predominantly nonwhite population. The integrated programs also had a high proportion of children from high income and highly educated families, and the day schools showed the opposite pattern.

That was the status of mainstreaming in 1975. The changes that occur in this picture over the next few years as a result of Public Law 94-142 will be interesting and of crucial importance to the schools for the deaf.

As was pointed out earlier, the first schools in America, beginning

In 1817, were residential schools. The first public day school for the deaf was established in Boston in 1869. In 1900, 90 percent of the children who were deaf were receiving their education in public residential schools (Brill, 1974, p. 261). By 1974, public school enrollment represented the largest single category, with slightly over 50 percent of the pupils. Of those pupils enrolled in residential schools, 25 percent were day pupils, and thus overall, almost 70 percent of deaf pupils were day students (Moores, 1978, p. 8).

Three important advantages of day schools and day classes were given by Griffith (1969, pp. 160-161). First of all, it costs much less to operate a class for deaf children in a day school or day class situation than it does in a residential school. The cost of housing, food, and medical care for day students is borne by the parents. Second, the parent has the desire and the right to have this child at home with him when the child is out of school. Last, but certainly not least, the child has the right to grow up in his family with siblings and relatives, acquiring from them the personality, temperament, and other attributes that can come only from a warm, friendly home situation. If the day school or day class provides the educational opportunities and facilities for well-rounded educational development, it may have an advantage over the residential school.

Griffith continues by saying that many communities do not have enough deaf children to offer even a class for the deaf, so it is practical to bring the children together into a central school where educational facilities will be adapted to their needs. This may require residential facilities. The residential school provides a necessary part of the total

educational system with respect to deaf children. The residential school of average or larger size provides adequate opportunity for homogeneous groupings in classes. It also provides social, extracurricular, and leisure time activities, geared to the needs of the students.

Another difficult but subtle problem is solved by the residential school. All too often parents of deaf children reject them, either consciously or subconsciously. Frequently this rejection carries over to the siblings. Naturally, the degree of rejection varies from case to case. However, the deaf child, rejected or not, finds warmth, affection, and acceptance in the well-regulated residential school (p. 161).

The residential school also provides an environment in which the deaf child tends to be adequate. He is not always pitted against hearing children as often occurs in day classes and public schools. Last but not least, the residential school usually provides a vocational training program geared to the child's needs.

Brill (1974) discussed some of the criticisms of the residential schools. Formerly, residential schools discouraged their children from going home on weekends. In recent years, residential schools have changed their outlook and now encourage pupils to go home as often as possible. They have upgraded the residential environment, and for many children it may be better than the one at home.

A major criticism of residential schools was that enrollment in a school did not prepare the deaf child for life in a hearing world. Essentially, this is the criticism of segregation. The proponents of the residential school take the position that segregation is a matter of communication rather than a matter of physical placement. If a deaf child is living at home but has little or no communication with his family, even at the dining room table, and has little communication with his neighbors, he is, in actuality, segregated. If in a residential school he has



easy communication with all of the other children with whom he is living and with the adults with whom he comes in contact, he may be deemed an integrated member of that society. More of the psychological problems that result from segregation may occur to a child who is living at home but is not assimilated by his society than will occur to a child who is living away from home but in a society in which he is accepted (p. 264).

A major study of the effect of institutionalization on children was conducted by Quigley and Frisina (1961, p. 47).

In conclusion, the study revealed no evidence that living in residential schools is generally detrimental to the development of deaf children. The results indicate that residential school living is not identical to the type of environment which has been termed institutionalization.

Residential schools are aware of these problems and make efforts to counter the effects of separation from family.

Bates (1969) tried to establish that there is a place and a need for residential schools and will be in the foreseeable future. In his opinion, the question was, "Should the children be collected into centers where there are experts, or should the experts be taken to the children?" He acknowledged the complexity of this question. He felt that for the foreseeable future, residential schools might be required for children whose homes were not the best places from an educational viewpoint. He referred to the fact that in 40 percent of marriages there was infidelity, that 10 percent of the people (parents) are illiterate, and that the single-parent home is commonplace. He strongly believed that the residential schools can and do provide a much better environment than many children's own homes. The best answer to the problem would be to improve the home, but that is beyond our power at the moment.

Reeves (1969), at the same meeting with Bates, discussed the day school. He said there are two main reasons for believing in a day school;

first, a day school epitomizes normality and we all want the hearing impaired to be as normal as possible, and second, it provides the opportunity to educate the child within the family. He then discussed some of the problems found in this approach.

Hoffmeyer (1976) says residential schools have been unwisely tolerant of the criticism heaped upon them by the self-acclaimed experts in special education circles. They fix the label of "institution" to the residential schools and prejudice parents in not sending their children "off" to these institutions. These "institutions for the deaf" include the most prestigious schools for the deaf in the United States, and not only state schools but world-renowned private oral schools such as Clarke School for the Deaf and Central Institute for the Deaf.

Is it not contradictory, then, not to classify such exclusive boarding schools as Deerfield Academy, Hotchkiss School, and Philips Exeter as "institutions"? Are affluent parents who send their son or daughter to these schools made to feel they are neglecting their child by sending them "off" to institutions?

Garretson (1977), in testimony before the Michigan legislature, supported the attendance at the Michigan School for the Deaf of "normal" deaf children. The state plan wanted to limit attendance to those multi-handicapped deaf students. Garretson discussed the unwritten curriculum. He said it was never the intent of Public Law 94-142 to discriminate against any specific handicapped group. The law provides for a variety of school settings which include public residential schools. Because the educative process in regular public schools is primarily auditory-based, the residential school frequently is the most conducive to an appropriate

educational program for the deaf child and therefore his least restrictive alternative (p. 19).

Garretson pointed out that the average child spends more time watching TV than in school; more time sleeping than in school; more time eating than in school; more time in miscellaneous activities than in school. In fact, the child spends eleven times more hours outside of school than in school. One conclusion we can reach is that the average hearing child receives the bulk of his educational or learning experience during the 92 percent of the time he is not in school. This conclusion is rarely true for the deaf child unless a number of extremely vital conditions are met, understood, and planned for--this he called the unwritten curriculum. The unwritten curriculum, then, refers to all the incidental learning that takes place outside of school.

The hearing child's total education, both the written and unwritten curriculum, is readily accessible. Professor Henry Steele Commager, addressing the 1974 Atlantic City Convention of the American Association of School Administrators, made the observation that "it is, after all, the community which performs the major job of education, not the schools."

So, for the deaf child, where is the community? Garretson says the residential school provides the best answer. While it cannot provide the 92 percent of the unwritten curriculum available to the hearing child, it comes closest.

Garretson reported that the Maryland School for the Deaf has been admitting more and more children ten years of age and older who have developed learning and emotional problems in regular public schools. The school is saddled with the formidable task of remediation, counseling, and

redirection of these children. In 1971, 31 percent of the Maryland School's admissions were transfers from public schools. The figure had risen to 61 percent in 1976. The blame for these educational failures must be placed on an initial inappropriate educational placement.

Garretson pleaded for the school for the deaf to continue to be a desirable option for the normal deaf children of the state.

Because the first schools for the deaf in Europe and the United States were residential, most educators mistakenly assume that mainstreaming is a new concept. This is untrue.

Heinicke, in establishing the first public school for the deaf in Germany, used the oral method and attempted to mainstream his pupils when they were capable of succeeding. The same is true of the Braidwood schools in England. Success with young children was ruled out, however. It is not well known that many of the first residential schools were established originally as day programs. Two of the first three schools for the deaf in the United States, the New York School and the Pennsylvania School, started out this way. There has been at least some interest expressed in the concept of having deaf and hearing children learn together for over one hundred fifty years (Moore, 1978).

Gordon (1885) reviewed attempts to educate the deaf in public schools. By 1823, six day programs had been established and instruction of the deaf was endorsed enthusiastically as a part of the public school system, with one of the major motivations being economy of cost.

The German Ministry of Education in 1828 predicted that in ten years all the deaf would be "mainstreamed." Gordon reported that the experiment failed and by 1854 no one was speaking of educating the deaf and hearing

in the same classes.

Similar experiments were tried in Prussia, France, and several other countries, but apparently all failed (Moore, 1978, pp. 12-14).

Mainstreaming was attempted in the Soviet Union following the revolution with negligible results. The system was abandoned and replaced by segregated educational facilities that placed greater emphasis upon the development of a curriculum specifically designed for use with deaf children (Gallagher and Martin, 1974).

Research related to integration is quite limited and of questionable generalization. This is especially true of those employing such "new" ideas as using sign language in integrated classes. Overall, it appears that the process is continuing on a rational basis and there does not appear to be any strong movement to abandon deaf children to the tender mercies of mainstream classes without support services (Moore, 1978, p. 14).

Until we have more evidence to support the points of view of either mainstreaming, day schools, or the residential school, we must study each child's situation thoroughly to determine what educational placement is likely to be most fruitful for him/her (Davis and Silverman, 1978).

This points up the crucial need for early identification, diagnosis, and careful assessment. In addition to information about a child's hearing, other significant points to be considered are the etiology of the deafness, the child's age at onset, his physical development, his behavioral development, his social maturity, his home environment, and the insight of his parents.

Major concerns today are: the implementation of Public Law 94-142,

especially in regard to the interpretation of "least restrictive environment;" the position state and local officials take in regard to the role of the private sector; the utilization of the various program prototypes, including the residential schools; and training programs for parents to help them learn their child's rights, and their rights and responsibilities in securing an appropriate education for their child.

Declining enrollments. Another issue to be faced by all schools is the prospect of fewer pupils being enrolled. The phenomenon of declining enrollments will most likely have a greater impact on education in the next decade than any other foreseeable trend (Abramowitz and Rosenfeld, 1978, p. xiii).

Demographers tell us that by the mid-1980s elementary school enrollments may have declined by as much as 18 percent since 1970. Secondary enrollments may have declined as much as 25 percent through the 1980s. In the last eighteen years, the number of births in the United States has declined 28 percent, resulting in a 10 percent decrease in elementary enrollment already (Abramowitz and Rosenfeld, 1978, p. 8).

From all indications, this trend of declining enrollments will continue through the 1980s; it would be negligent of anyone involved in the educational process not to take note of their findings, for they have implications for all programs at all levels in all areas of the country.

Twenty years ago we had a rapidly expanding student population and school system. Today we find that student population has declined very drastically, creating problems not even dreamed of twenty years ago: closing of school buildings, laying off of personnel, cutting back

services to the bare bones, and placing a drain on the funds available.

Societal values have shifted: growing demands for equal rights, the women's movement, population and birth control, abortion, and a resurgence of independence and individuality have all contributed to the rapid decrease in the birth rate.

But fiscal problems and population decline are not the only troubles educators have. The value of schooling itself is being seriously questioned. Beginning with the Coleman Report in 1966, its subsequent reanalyses, and Jenck's inequality study, research has failed to show that more schooling or more resources, in themselves, have measurable benefits (Abramowitz and Rosenfeld, 1978, pp. 7-8).

Approximately half of the school districts' funds come from the state and federal governments and are distributed either directly or indirectly according to student enrollment. Decline thus means less money with which to operate, and at the same time, many of the fixed and semi-fixed expenses cannot be reduced proportionately.

Voters are looking long and hard at new bond issues and budget increases for public services. Bond issues that might have easily passed a few years ago are now being defeated. In 1964, 25 percent of bond issues put to the voters failed; in 1974, 54 percent were rejected. Taxpayer revolts have even closed the schools, sometimes for months at a time, in Oregon, Ohio, and Connecticut (Abramowitz and Rosenfeld, 1978, p. 8).

Three-fourths of all the states have experienced overall student enrollment declines between 1970 and 1975, with a national loss of over 1.2 million students, or 3 percent (Abramowitz and Rosenfeld, 1978, p. 205).

Although Massachusetts public school enrollments peaked two years later than national enrollments, the state trends follow national ones. After reaching a peak of 1.21 million in 1973-74, enrollments in the Commonwealth dropped to 1.18 million in 1975-76 and are projected to fall to 1.07 million by 1980. Thus, national public school enrollments will decrease by 9.5 percent between 1973-74 and 1980-81, while Massachusetts enrollments will drop by 10.9 percent during the same period (Johnson, 1978, p. 4).

Between 1955 and 1976, the birth rate in Massachusetts dropped from 22.6 to 11.7 per thousand population (Johnson, 1978, p. 5). Regardless of the reasons for this dramatic drop, the results are clearly evident. In 1976, there were 50,271, or 44 percent fewer births in Massachusetts than there were in 1957, the peak birth year in the state. Birth rates in Massachusetts, down by 40 percent since 1965, currently are the third lowest in the nation (p. 5).

While some states, helped by immigration, are growing, Massachusetts is not. The net change in the Commonwealth's resident population from 1970 to 1976 was a decline of 0.1 percent. During this time, the "sunbelt" states gained and the "snowbelt" states lost population.

There is a trend toward a slightly higher birth rate in Massachusetts and nationwide. It appears that the low point was reached in 1976.

The National Center for Health Statistics reported a gradual increase in birth and fertility rates that began in September 1976 and for the next four months showed a 6 percent higher fertility rate than for the same period one year earlier. A continuation of this rate would produce 200,000 more babies during 1977 than had been anticipated at the previous



birth rate (p. 6).

Whether or not this can be considered a trend is impossible to tell. If it is a trend and continues, this very slight increase will not be dramatic and Massachusetts school administrators should not anticipate any sudden change in current enrollment trends. Even if the recent figures do reflect the beginning of a long-term gradual increase in births, that increase will not begin to affect elementary school enrollments until 1981-82.

With the exception of the Catholic schools, the nonpublic schools have not been affected by enrollment declines to as great an extent as the public schools (Abramowitz and Rosenfeld, 1978, p. 11).

There are several reasons given for this maintenance of enrollment levels. Most of them can be lumped under the heading "dissatisfaction with public schools." Approximately 12 percent of the total school population attend nonpublic schools and, in summary, the author of a study of nonpublic schools stated that it is quite obvious the public and private sectors in education both possess unique capabilities to contribute to the education of the young (p. 93).

Enrollments and deafness. In the case of special schools, such as schools for the deaf, the numbers game becomes even more of a concern. Historically, it could be expected that one child in a thousand would be born deaf (Moores, 1978, p. 7). This incidence of one-tenth of 1 percent has been quite reliable for a long period of time. Assuming that it holds for the foreseeable future, the number of deaf children would be tied directly to the number of live births. This year, as noted earlier, Massachusetts has

an elementary and secondary school population of about 1.2 million and there are approximately 1,200 deaf children being educated in the state. That number is expected to drop in the near future and that, coupled with the fact that the public sector is expanding programs for the hearing impaired, creates a real crisis for special schools.

The 1978 Directory Issue of the American Annals of the Deaf reports that of the approximately 1,200 deaf students in Massachusetts, 616 are in the five day and residential schools. An additional 72 are in two high school programs for the hearing impaired. One hundred thirty-three more children are in public day classes located in twelve of the large public school systems. There are 132 children in three schools for the multi-handicapped and about 25 children in two nursery school programs (American Annals, Vol. 123, April 1978, pp. 157-158).

Those programs reporting account for 975 deaf children in Massachusetts. The balance of about 200 are unaccounted for. A third high school program has about 50 of them. The author believes the other 150 children, or about 12-1/2 percent, are scattered across the state and are either fully mainstreamed or in programs too small to report. This large number of unknown children is of concern to those in our profession. In a demographic study of deaf children in Massachusetts, Thompson (1973) found approximately 1,300 deaf children in the state. Forty-four percent of the state's 351 cities and towns had fewer than five deaf children. Only fifteen cities had 15 or more deaf children and only three had more than 30. In surveying the age distribution by community, it should be noted that there is rarely more than one or two at any one age level except for the three largest cities. Many towns had only one deaf child and 122

towns had no deaf children within their towns.

Deafness is a low incidence handicap. Due to this low incidence factor, it should be obvious that there must be a large population base to have a sufficient number of deaf children to permit the establishment of appropriate education programs.

Deaf children require the best possible education from their earliest years. History suggests that deaf students who do not have the benefit of specialized programs from the start end up as educational cripples and all too often are referred to bonafide schools for the deaf too late for the school and its expert professional staff to overcome the great injustice perpetrated on the child in his younger years because he did not have the benefit of an appropriate program (Brill et al, 1973, p. 18).

The Advisory Council for the Deaf in A Comprehensive Plan for the Education of Hearing Impaired Children and Youth in Massachusetts warned the Associate Commissioner for Special Education that,

Strong state leadership will be a necessity to prevent the establishment of "one room, little red schoolhouses" during the first years of Chapter 766. There are not enough deaf children in most communities to allow a quality education in their hometown. Even now the spirit and intention of Chapter 766 is being misinterpreted for economic reasons by too many communities. Instead of paying the tuition and transportation costs to a regional center where appropriate services are available, some communities are ignoring their responsibilities to provide a quality education and choosing to hire a teacher and start a "little red schoolhouse" (A Comprehensive Plan, 1975, p. 5).

In the February 9, 1979 issue of MTA Today, Massachusetts Teachers Association President Richard E. Maxwell stated that, "We lead the nation in the number of formerly limited or nonschool students who have been mainstreamed into a total school program (p. 2)."

In a 1978 United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare Progress Report to Congress on the implementation of Public Law 94-142, it was stated that,

In contrast to most other handicapped categories, only eight percent of schoolage deaf children in these thirty states reporting received their education in regular classroom environments. Since education of deaf children has historically occurred in special facilities, this is not a surprising finding (An Interim Report, 1978, p. 13).

Sixty-eight percent of all handicapped children were placed in regular classrooms in the 1976-77 school year.

So declining enrollments will affect all schools and programs, but in addition to that, nonpublic or special schools have additional problems to overcome. Perhaps the greatest impediment to the continuation of special schools is the interpretation of the terms "least restrictive environment" and "mainstreaming" in the new special education laws.

Public Law 94-142 and mainstreaming. In November of 1975, Congress passed the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (Public Law 94-142) which established the goal of finding all schoolaged handicapped children in the United States and of providing them with a free, appropriate public education by September 1978. When the law was passed, it was recognized as a landmark piece of legislation which could give handicapped children the education they deserve and to which they have a right.

The Act specifies a number of activities that schools must engage in to ensure that handicapped children receive a free, appropriate public education. For example, it requires specialists to evaluate the needs of the child and determine the most appropriate educational environment for the child; it requires that an individualized educational program be developed for each child identified as needing special education or related services; it requires schools to notify parents, to include them in the decision-making process, and to provide them with an opportunity for a

hearing if they are dissatisfied with the decision. Further, the Act asks that, to the extent possible, each handicapped child be educated with non-handicapped children (An Interim Report, 1978, p. 1).

The law, more than any that has preceded it, gives parents the right and responsibility to be actively involved in the planning and implementation of their child's education (Kidd, 1977, pp. 275-280).

A tremendously important outcome of Public Law 94-142 is the change in attitude implied toward handicapped people. An appropriate education is considered to be their right. The law is emphatic in demanding a free, appropriate public education. It requires an individualized education plan and due process procedures if parents disagree with the plan. The law is quite specific and detailed as to implementation. It is a giant step forward for the education of children with special needs. The law might be thought of as having the same significance for the education of handicapped children as the Civil Rights Act of 1964 had for racial and ethnic minorities (Nix, 1977, p. 264).

What is the least restrictive environment? As regards the deaf, this is a very troublesome aspect of the law. The law requires that,

To the maximum extent appropriate, handicapped children are to be educated with children who are not handicapped, and that removal of handicapped children from the regular educational environment occurs only when the nature of severity of the handicap is such that education in regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily (Act. Sec. 612, 5, b).

This least restrictive environment provision of the law has frightened a lot of people concerned with educating the handicapped. Parents fear that their handicapped children will be thrown indiscriminately into

classes with regular students. Teachers fear the attention required by severely handicapped children will disturb the regular classroom procedure. Residential school authorities fear that student populations will decline.

It is obviously the Intent of Public Law 94-142 to place each child as close as possible to the regular classroom setting. On the other hand, according to designers of the law, there is no reason for a child to be denied attendance at a residential school, if that is deemed the most appropriate placement (Kidd, 1977, p. 279). The desired result should be that residential schools and local educational agencies will work together to provide specialized programs which will allow the child to mingle as much as possible with his nonhandicapped peers. The key word, which is all too frequently overlooked, is "appropriate."

The Council for Exceptional Children approved the following statement on mainstreaming in April 1976.

Mainstreaming is a belief which involves an educational placement procedure and process for exceptional children, based on the conviction that each such child should be educated in the least restrictive environment in which his educational and related need can be satisfactorily provided (p. 3).

The American Federation of Teachers resolved to support and encourage the concept of mainstreaming for handicapped children to the degree recommended by a professional team. However, Albert Shanker, AFT president, expressed his opinion that "teachers must be guaranteed adequate support personnel and a reduction in class size in the case of a least restrictive educational environment (The American Teacher, 1977, p. 29)."

The National Education Association, in approving a policy on mainstreaming, placed seven qualifiers on the procedures, maintenance, and

monitoring of the children (pp. 21-22).

The Council on Education of the Deaf (CED) approved a resolution that in part states,

That CED hereby signifies its commitment to the initiation, expansion, and improvement of educational options in order to serve every hearing impaired child of school age with an appropriate individualized educational program including such aspects as: The educational setting, ranging from partial or full-time regular classroom placement to partial or full-time educational programs offered in special classes in public/private day schools or public/private residential schools (p. 302).

In a "Statement on Least Restrictive Placements for Deaf Students," The Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf listed four priorities for alternative placements. The fourth priority

. . . accepted the concept that specialized services, especially in urban areas, can be brought to most deaf persons in a variety of settings. However, should a decision have to be made between providing adequate services and "least restrictive environment," the choice should be made to use those facilities which provide a full service component: individualized instructional planning; appropriately certified teachers; qualified supervision of instruction; periodic audiological and psychological assessment; appropriate and functional amplification; satisfactory family contacts; and the counseling services of personnel trained to work with deaf persons. Placing a child in a professionally isolated setting with inadequate support cannot be condoned. However, movement toward less segregated settings may become possible for many deaf pupils as they gain from early auditory intervention, parental involvement and intensive language emphasis within approved specialized settings (Craig, 1977, pp. 1-2).

Incidentally, the terms "least restrictive environment" and "mainstreaming" are used interchangeably throughout the literature and by the special education community.

Garretson (1977), a professional educator of the deaf and deaf himself, interprets the concept of least restrictive environment as

The doctrine of the "least restrictive alternative" which permeates the law. Public Law 94-142 tends to suggest a hierarchy in terms of school settings which discriminate against the deaf

child by leaving the impression that special classes, day schools, or public residential programs may be a sort of "last resort" or "point of no return."

The other side of the coin shows some professionals and parents to be reluctant to place children in these special programs even when the needs of the child are so intensive and specialized as to require it. They view the child as "making it" if he is in a regular classroom and "not making it" if he is in a specialized setting. The misinformed may equate "success" with regular placement and "failure" as placement in special settings (Nix, 1977, p. 293).

The most successful and desirable placement is the one that maximizes the child's learning rate for academic and social skills, and it should not translate into any particular setting. Budgetary considerations will pressure some administrators into the indiscriminate "dumping" of hearing impaired children into regular classrooms. This inappropriate placement is a disservice to all children involved (Nix, 1977, p. 294).

The keystone to success lies in the flexibility to move a child from a restrictive setting to a less restrictive placement and vice versa in order to make "appropriate to the child's needs" more than just a cliché.

Dr. William J. Marshall, deaf and director of the Model Secondary School for the Deaf in Washington, D.C., gave his understanding of "least restrictive environment" in testimony before the Senate Subcommittee on Oversight Hearings in February 1977. He stated,

The term "least restrictive environment" is used frequently in a discussion of both the philosophy and implementation of the educational concept of mainstreaming. Unfortunately, those three words are frequently lifted out of context and universally applied to all forms of special education. Not only is this contrary to the practice of knowledgeable professionals in the field, but it also appears to be in disagreement with the intent of the funda-



mental legislation itself. Mainstreaming is the placement of exceptional children into the regular class. It is the assimilation of the deaf student into a group of hearing students. Mainstreaming is, however, but a single programming option out of numerous possible alternatives that may be considered appropriate in terms of educational placement. Mainstreaming is not, however, and must never be considered as the equivalent to a "least restrictive environment" for all hearing impaired children. Assimilated hearing impaired children may not perceive themselves, nor even be perceived by the teacher or the hearing students, as truly belonging to the class. Many hearing impaired children, and especially those with multiple handicaps, are no more assimilated in these classrooms than you or I are assimilated by the crowds around us at National Airport (Marshall, 1977, p. 2).

In a memorandum dated March 13, 1979, The Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf (CEASD) issued a policy statement regarding the least restrictive environment. It stated:

P.L. 94-142, Section 121,500 provides that to the maximum extent appropriate, handicapped children, including children in public or private institutions or other care facilities, are educated with children who are not handicapped.

This concept of "Least Restrictive Environment" has been interpreted to mean that the optimal placement for handicapped students is in regular classes. Experience in the education of hearing-impaired children indicates that such placements may represent a most restrictive environment because of limited communication opportunities and social isolation. Additionally, requiring or indicating preference for the placement of all hearing-impaired children with nonhandicapped students can have an adverse impact on their self-esteem and could prove psychologically damaging. The limitation of freedom of a hearing-impaired child to have meaningful associations with his/her peers both handicapped and nonhandicapped is unacceptable and inconsistent with the freedom of association experienced by other people.

It is the position of CEASD that such an interpretation of least restrictive environment could be at variance and negate the central concept of provision of an appropriate education program.

CEASD supports all efforts which will promote a reduction in continued misinterpretation of the term "Least Restrictive Environment" and proposes that specific wording in the law and regulations emphasize "appropriate education" in lieu of "Least Restrictive" Environment (CEASD memo, March 13, 1979, section 4).

Dr. Richard Hehir, Chief, Bureau of Physically Handicapped Children for the State of New York, said that:

Mainstreaming is a concept--it is not a program. If mainstreaming is to be successful, there must be a recognition that there are a number of variables to be considered. These variables include such things as the facilities available; the staff qualifications; the attitudes of the regular teachers and students; the nature and degree of the handicapping condition of the child; the personality characteristics of the child; the funding provisions available for support services; the support of the school administrator, particularly the building principal; and the support of the parents of the child.

The mainstreaming concept operates on several assumptions. One is that the handicapped child is better educated with the nonhandicapped child for both academic and social development. A second assumption is that the handicapped child is more alike than different from the nonhandicapped child. It is claimed that in a regular environment the handicapped child is less stigmatized and can develop greater self-image. He will approach normalcy better than in a segregated situation. A third assumption is that through mainstreaming, the abilities of the child are recognized and not the disabilities, since there is no institutionalization of the label in a mainstreamed environment that takes place in a segregated environment. Our task is to determine if these assumptions have more validity in certain circumstances than in others and with some categories of handicapped children and not others (Hehir, 1975, pp. 96-97).

The Regents of New York State, although they support the concept of mainstreaming, nevertheless recognize the existence and contribution which special schools for the handicapped have made and will continue to make. The Regents paper refers to the desirability of handicapped children receiving appropriate services within the local district but acknowledges that adequate service should be contracted by local districts with Cooperative Boards, private agencies or provided locally in larger school districts. New York State Education Law provides that the services to deaf and blind children may be in special state-supported private schools also. There is recognition, therefore, that alternative educational placements must be made available (Hehir, 1975, p. 99).

Dr. Jack Birch, in his book Hearing Impaired Children in the Main-Stream of Education, discusses the issue of mainstreaming from two points of view. In a paper delivered to the Conference of Executives of American

Schools for the Deaf at Greensboro, North Carolina, he summarized these viewpoints.

The goal of preparing exceptional children to be part of life's mainstream is not a new one. Educators of deaf and hard of hearing pupils have always been guided by the desire to help their students attain full personal, social and vocational membership in human society on equal terms with all other persons. Success in reaching the goal has been spotty, but that has not deterred responsible leaders from continuing the effort.

Until recently the only accepted way of trying to bring hearing handicapped persons into the mainstream was to start them young and supply intensive special education in special schools or classes through the preschool and elementary years. Then, during the secondary, technical school and college years, some of the deaf and hard of hearing youth were encouraged to attempt to attend schools with hearing students.

It is different now. The contemporary educational plan called mainstreaming has that same goal, but in a quite different way. It starts from the premise that deaf and hard of hearing children (and most other exceptional children) can be educated from the outset in the school's mainstream and that they should be part of the school's mainstream, socially and personally, from the preschool years all the way through the formal education years. Thus, deaf and hard of hearing children are expected to be educated from the start in the mainstream of life. They are educated to function from the very beginning as a part of the regular school like all other children, rather than begin on the outside and try to win their way into an educational and social setting where all the other children already are.

Thus, among educators who want to have hearing impaired pupils join the hearing world there are two distinct ways of thinking about how it should be accomplished. The first is mainstreaming from the start. The second approaches mainstreaming as a long-range goal.

It is plain that the end goal for the two ways of thinking is the same: total assimilation in regular educational programs. But, it is also plain that there are fundamental differences in the means to that end. The first point of view begins with the idea that the child is already a full member of a group of peers who are acknowledged to have many individual differences, some of which are educationally significant. The second starts from the premise that some children are so different in educationally significant ways that they should be considered outsiders. Then those who are able, through the help of special educators, slowly learn their way into membership in the broader society.

The first point of view maintains that separation is neither necessary nor desirable. The second point of view holds that initial separation is essential for the good of both the main group and the exceptional individual and that only under that condition can appropriate special education be supplied. This second position furnished the basis for what has been the classic definition of special education.

Adherents of one point of view often see little merit in the other. Sometimes they react as though the other approach simply does not exist. That is unfortunate. Any even-handed description of today's education for hearing impaired children and youth must attend to the two extremes, to the many gradations which spread between them, and to the direction of today's trends (Birch, 1975, pp. 72-73).

Several articles have appeared in the press and in the schools for the deaf publications. These articles have urged caution in mainstreaming deaf children into the public schools and supported the continued use of special schools and programs.

Dr. McCay Vernon, a psychologist and educator of the deaf and editor of the American Annals of the Deaf, wrote in the Hearing Aid Journal (Oct. 1978, p. 14) that the "Mainstreaming Law Endangers Deaf Children." He says Public Law 94-142 is the most controversial legislation in the history of special education and that it will have a devastating influence on many of the lives of an entire generation of deaf children. He cited as an example a class in a Maryland Public School:

Mrs. Peggy Denton will have 30 to 32 youngsters in her third grade class. In years past these would have all been basically "normal" children. However, this year under PL 94-142, there will be one youngster with a serious heart condition requiring an adult to be with him full time. Thus, Mrs. Denton will have to leave her entire class unsupervised and accompany this student to the restroom and elsewhere when he has to leave the class. In the same room will be a cerebral palsied youngster who requires a typewriter and extensive extra supervision. Another student is deaf. Mrs. Denton is expected to give this deaf youngster the intensive individual attention necessary to provide him a third grade education despite the handicap of congenital profound hearing loss. Among the other class members is one who is hyperactive and on

medication.

Obviously the deaf child and the others in the class with severe handicaps need unique specialized programs and skills which a third grade teacher and a regular school cannot provide without huge unrealistic sums of money being invested. For example, expensive clinical type medical and educational equipment, years of professional education for the teacher, and funds for consultants and aids would be required for the deaf child alone if his basic needs are to be met. The only available teacher's aide must be shared equally with five other teachers (p. 6).

Prior to the law, the deaf student would typically have been in a class with five to ten other deaf classmates in a special day or residential school. There his/her classroom would have been acoustically treated, specially equipped with amplification equipment, had specialized educational materials, and a teacher with extensive professional training.

Mrs. Denton's deaf child now sits in classes all day in which he/she cannot understand what the teacher or classmates are saying. In essence, his/her situation is educationally and socially hopeless.

Vernon says that the law feeds psychological needs to "make deaf students normal" while at the same time mandating programs which will magnify abnormality. He feels Public Law 94-142 is grossly underfunded, is based on the naive assumption that mainstreaming is both feasible and desirable for the overwhelming majority of handicapped children, creates unbelievably large amounts of paper work, and is often a cruel deception to parents and handicapped youth. It pledges that which it cannot deliver and for which it will not pay. The intent and the reality as far as Public Law 94-142 is concerned are living proof of the adage about the road to hell being paved with good intentions (Vernon, 1978, p. 913).

Other authors have come forward with their words of caution, many

telling their own stories of being mainstreamed. Muriel Horton, a member of the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, writing in "Mainstreaming for Deaf Children: A Step Forward?," asserts that for many handicapped children this signifies a great leap forward but that for some deaf children it may not. Deaf children may well be isolated islands in the mainstream--physically present, but intellectually absent (The Oregon Outlook, Vol. 86, Jan. 1978).

Writing in the February 1978 issue of The Deaf American, Esther Cohen wrote of her personal experiences as a deaf student in a mainstream situation. She said that "instead of becoming 'normal' which is the whole point of mainstreaming, my personality changed for the worse. I hated school; I hated all those who ridiculed me. All I wanted was to escape." She did quit school and three years later "discovered" the New Jersey School for the Deaf where she has since graduated (Cohen, 1978).

Joanne Greenberg, author of I Never Promised You a Rose Garden and In This Sign, and Glen Doolittle wrote an article which appeared in the New York Times Magazine, December 11, 1977, in which they asked, "Can Schools Speak the Language of the Deaf?" They said the law promised the dream of equality and social acceptance. The fact is that nine out of ten deaf children will receive neither. For some, mainstreaming may be catastrophic. Regarding socialization, the feeling they got from parents contradicted the glowing hopes of theoreticians. Except for the stories about the few whose handicaps are negligible or correctable with hearing aids and who have good speech and outgoing personalities and were physically attractive, the picture was one of consistent loneliness, isolation, and social loss. While educators of the deaf and parents were very

pessimistic about the success of mainstreaming, the students at the Colorado School for the Deaf had more positive feelings about integration than their parents or teachers. The authors asked Dr. Fred Schreiber, executive director of the National Association of the Deaf, why the kids might feel this way. He laughed.

Everyone knows that the hearing world is where it's at. There is a mountain of false expectation in young deaf people. What magic, what power, what glory there is in that other country. The kid knows too that in hearing schools he can get away with murder, can be lazy or aggressive or a clown and be tolerated because there are no other deaf people to call his bluff. Because he is handicapped.

Several other articles have appeared by well-known educators of the deaf cautioning against a pell-mell rush to mainstreaming (Alber, 1976; Brill, 1976; Bischoff, 1978; Garretson, 1978; Golf, 1977; Holcomb, 1977; Lang, 1978; Salem, 1977; Zwick, 1977). These authors are from both the oral and total communication camps. They all fear that deaf children will be "mainstreamed" too rapidly and for inappropriate reasons, and that the best interests of the child will not really be the first consideration.

Of course, there are others who support mainstreaming (Bitter and Mears, 1973; Dale, 1978; Nix, 1976; Northcott, 1973). They usually establish conditions necessary for making it work. Individual cases of success are cited. In almost all cases, the subjects were mainstreamed after having some special training.

The fear is that young deaf children will be mainstreamed without that foundation so necessary for any kind of success.

In June 1965, the National Technical Institute for the Deaf was created by Public Law 89-36 and signed into law by President Lyndon Johnson. It became affiliated with the Rochester Institute of Technology and

opened its doors to students in September 1967 (Brill, 1974, pp. 198-202). The program concept of the NTID was one of mainstreaming. Eventually there were about one thousand deaf students. Massive efforts were made to educate the hearing students, the RIT faculty, and the community to the problems of deafness and to their educational needs. Ample funding has been available to initiate programs and services. By almost any measure you choose to use, this program has been successful in preparing deaf students for the world of work. The goal of social mainstreaming has not been nearly as successful, however. The deaf, as a group, are not "lost" in the normal student body. They prefer to do things socially with other deaf people. Remember--these students are probably in the top 10 percent of the deaf in the country. A majority of them have graduated from public high schools. They are very capable and manage their lives quite well. Mainstreaming does not seem to be a high priority for many of them.

Dr. William Castle, head of the NTID, recently spoke on mainstreaming at a conference sponsored by the Massachusetts Office of Deafness (Mass. Office of Deafness, First Annual Convention, Boston/Somerville, Oct. 26-27, 1978). Given the ideal conditions created by NTID for this social and educational mainstreaming, the results are somewhat disappointing.

Dr. Castle issued a number of cautions summarized as:

1. Not all deaf persons wish to be mainstreamed
2. Not all deaf persons can be mainstreamed during every aspect of their education, employment and community living; and some can never be mainstreamed. By illustration he pointed out that 25 percent of today's NTID students go only to classes which are exclusively for deaf students; nearly 50 percent more have most of their classes with deaf students only; and nearly all of the remaining 25 percent have some classes which are for deaf students only



3. For deaf students to be successful, they do not have to be mainstreamed
4. It is foolhardy to think that every school district can provide all that is needed for all their handicapped children
5. Educational mainstreaming, if properly done, is very costly
6. Educational mainstreaming of the deaf, if not properly done, is also very costly
7. There is no good reason to believe that a program of equal rights for the handicapped is going to be implemented any more expeditiously than have programs for women, blacks, and other minority groups

Having said that, he urged us all to do the best we can to help expedite equal opportunities for the handicapped so that they may be mainstreamed in the fullest sense.

Karchmer and Trybus (1977) of the Office of Demographic Studies examined the extent of integrated placement (mainstreaming) of hearing impaired children in the United States. They discovered that integrated programs are presently serving a group of hearing impaired children who are very different on many educationally critical dimensions from those children who attend other types of special education programs.

Residential schools serve the largest single group, although it is now a minority of the total. Integrated programs together serve 19 percent of the population, or about one hearing impaired child in five. While half of the residential school children are age fifteen or above, less than one in five in full-time classes have reached that age.

The most important difference among the program types is the degree of hearing loss of the children served. Nearly two-thirds of the children in residential schools are profoundly deaf (91 decibels or greater loss in

the better ear) while only 18 percent of those in integrated programs have profound losses.

Mainstream programs enroll two to three times as many postlingually deaf children as do other programs. The impact of the postlingual onset of deafness upon the educational process needs little elaboration.

On a national basis, integrated programs serve a higher proportion of white children and day schools serve a predominantly nonwhite population. The integrated programs enroll the highest proportion of children from high income families and the day schools show the opposite pattern. Children in integrated programs have the highest proportion of college-educated fathers (36 percent) while children in the day schools have the lowest (19 percent) (Karchmer and Trybus, 1977, pp. 2-3).

Other differences exist. Integrated programs have fewer children of deaf parents and higher percentages of children with intelligible speech.

That was the status of mainstreaming in 1977. It will be interesting and of critical importance to see what changes occur in this picture over the next few years under the influence of Public Law 94-142.

That a rapid change toward mainstreaming is occurring is noted by McClure in the President's Report, 1976-77.

With the considerable emphasis placed on mainstreaming or the absorption of handicapped children into regular school programs, there has been a significant change in the population of the Florida School (for the Deaf and Blind). As more and more local school districts attempt to provide programs for young children, parents are inclined to enroll their children in these programs. Almost half of our students are now in the high school department. Unfortunately, many programs do not distinguish adequately between the deaf child and the child who is hard of hearing. Hopefully, continuing liaison and discussions with the Bureau of Education will help solve this problem (McClure, 1977, p. 11).

Mainstreaming, then, is a concept that is popular and is being advocated for all handicapped children, including the deaf. Most handicapped children can benefit from integration with the non-handicapped. This integration, however, must be carefully planned and adequate support services must be provided if the handicapped child is to succeed. A range of special educational alternatives must be available for handicapped children and they should be placed within a program based upon their needs. Freedom to move from one alternative to another should also be based upon child needs and not as a mark of failure or rejection.

The deaf child has a most severe handicapping condition. He needs a very structured program provided by fully qualified staff. Special support services, such as speech, language and auditory training, must be provided in addition to regular academic education. Obviously a special school for the deaf program will meet the needs of the deaf child. Some deaf children can, however, succeed in regular public school class, particularly after good training in a special school for the deaf. Other deaf children may not "make it" in a regular class even with good support services, and need to transfer to a special school for the deaf. A continuum of special educational services should exist which will allow the deaf child to obtain the services and program he needs. Cooperation between the public school and the residential school is needed along with a recognition of the role and contribution of each of the continuum of educational services (Hehir, 1975, p. 104).

Summary. This section has presented four issues in the education of the deaf: three of them--the oral/manual controversy, the need for day and residential schools, and the issue of mainstreaming--are all complex issues with many qualifications, ramifications, and justifications. There are also those who argue against each of these issues and each has its own arguments. They are philosophical, social, emotional, and educational.

The fourth issue, that of declining enrollments, is presented as an issue since it affects the decisions and compromises made regarding the first three issues.

The competition for numbers of pupils may cause the various groups and program types to become more vocal in their arguments and more unpro-

fessional in their techniques of persuading converts to their side of the issue. All of this can cause confusion to parents and nonprofessionals, and may well work against the best interests of the deaf children needing quality educational services.

The local special education administrator has the power to decide the future of the handicapped children under his jurisdiction. His knowledge and attitudes toward mainstreaming, residential placement, parents' rights, and children's needs, as well as his concern over finances, are crucial to the realization of the child's potential.

We are strangled by regulations but there is no commitment to quality education, or the best placement, or to the development and utilization of the full continuum of services. An adequate placement is all most parents can hope for under present conditions in many places.

We see trends toward the placement of almost all handicapped children in the mainstream without any evidence that those placements are in the child's best interest. We see schools for the handicapped becoming centers for the multihandicapped, and we see trends toward more vocational education. We hope there is a trend toward lowering the age when special education for deaf children can begin--from three years of age at present to zero years.

We see many issues and several trends. Some are good and some are detrimental to the deaf child.

Hopefully, real progress will be made in preparing the handicapped for life in the mainstream. Hopefully, we have not promised what we cannot deliver and for which we will not pay.

U.S. Commissioner of Education Ernest Boyer, in an address called

"Access to Excellence," quoted James Fenimore Cooper: "The tendency of democracies is, in all things, to mediocrity." May the long-sought goal of equality in education for the handicapped not prove to be "mediocre."

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

#### Background

Historically, since the establishment of schools for the deaf over 160 years ago, the vast majority of deaf students have been educated in day and residential schools. Large cities provided day schools but most students throughout the state attended a residential school. Recent attendance trends have been away from residential schools to day schools or to mainstream programs in the local communities. Public Law 94-142 encourages this trend and requires it "whenever it is appropriate to meet the child's needs."

This law mandates appropriate educational services for all the handicapped. The major impact of the law was to shift the responsibility for educating the deaf from the state to the local level. The local education officials are now charged with providing or arranging for the provision of an appropriate educational program for all its children. Each student must have an individualized education plan developed by the parents and a team of professionals. Specific rights are given to the student and to the parents. The program agreed upon must be free to the parents and provide the least restrictive environment appropriate to meet the student's educational needs. The financial responsibility is also borne by the local school system with partial reimbursement from the state and federal governments. The interpretation and implementation of this

law has affected the special schools for the deaf significantly.

How has the implementation of Public Law 94-142 affected the schools for the deaf? Two major effects seem obvious. One, the public schools will attempt to provide local programs for the deaf causing a decrease in enrollment in the special schools and two, the type of student who is referred to the special schools will have more complex educational problems and physical needs than the typical student in the past. If these changes occur, they will have profound effects on the programming and staffing of the special schools.

This study proposed to assess the effects that the implementation of the law is having on schools for the deaf. The author attempted to determine changes that have already occurred, that are occurring, and that are anticipated in the special schools.

#### Sample

A questionnaire was developed and sent to the administrative heads of the sixty-two public residential schools, the eight private residential schools, and a selected group of the sixty-four public day schools and eighteen private day schools. The list of recipients was taken from the April 1979 issue of the American Annals of the Deaf. A list of the recipients can be found in the Appendix.

A total of 114 programs were sent questionnaires. There were 104 responses, for a return rate of 91 percent. Most of the questionnaires were returned within two weeks. A second mailing was sent to those who had not responded within three weeks. This excellent return indicated the administrators' concern for the research topic and reflected their willing-

ness to cooperate with a fellow administrator.

### Description of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire asked for information on the background of the person completing the form and for a description of the program being reported. Following this general information, a series of questions were asked about enrollment, population composition, new admissions, educational planning, cooperation with public schools, and residential enrollment. A number of questions concerned the placement of pupils who had left the special schools and the admission of new ones. One question also sought to determine the number of due process cases resulting from the transfers to other schools and how these cases were settled. A few questions concerned the state's compliance with Public Law 94-142 and its plan for educating the hearing impaired. The last series of questions asked about program changes; what had already been dropped, what had been added, and what programs were being planned for the future. One question dealt with the extent of mainstreaming with the public schools and another asked about the difficulty of hiring competent professional staff. The final question sought the administrators' predictions regarding expected changes in their schools over the next ten years.

The questionnaire, which had thirty-one questions, was designed to be answered quickly in most cases. Several questions were open-ended, and a few required some research in order to determine numbers and percentages. For the most part, however, the administrators could answer the questions from their own knowledge in a rather brief period of time.

In developing the questionnaire, the administrative heads of a few



schools for the deaf gave their suggestions and checked over a draft to determine the difficulty in responding. A doctoral student at the University of Massachusetts, specializing in the field of developing and evaluating data-collecting instruments, critiqued two revisions of the questionnaire. In addition, several faculty members at the University of Massachusetts made helpful suggestions which improved the final form. The questionnaire has five pages, and a copy of it can be found in the Appendix.

### Collection of the Data

Questionnaires were mailed to 114 programs throughout the country, including all of the well-established day and residential schools for the deaf.

Upon receipt of each completed questionnaire, a letter of appreciation was sent to the respondent, and he or she was also promised a summary of the results of the study. Three weeks later, a second mailing was sent to those who had not responded. Eighty-four percent of the questionnaires were returned after the initial mailing. After the follow-up mailing, an additional 7 percent were received, for a total of 104, or 91 percent of the questionnaires returned.

### Data Analysis

As the questionnaires arrived, the responses to each question requiring a specific answer were entered on a data card for later processing.

Since several of the questions were unstructured, the author developed a list of typical responses and tallied the frequency of each

response for reporting purposes. High percentages of similar responses indicated the strength of a concern or a trend. There were forty-six specific responses entered on the data processing card and seven open-ended questions which were developed into tables. The completed data cards were processed at the University of Massachusetts Computing Center using the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program. The results were based on ninety-two program responses. There were forty-six variables and the computer print-out gave the responses according to the type of program (day or residential), the size of the student body (less than 200 students, 200-500 students, and over 500 students), the setting of the school (rural or urban), the type of school (preschool, elementary and/or secondary), and the method of communication used (oral or total communication). The results were computed so that one type of program could be compared with another (i.e., the responses of the private schools compared to those of public schools). The results of the study are reported in the next chapter and will appear in ten tables.

#### Summary

Questionnaires were sent to 114 day and residential programs throughout the country seeking information about changes in the special schools for the deaf due to Public Law 94-142. Responses were received from 91 percent of the recipients.

The results were tabulated and processed by a computer at the University of Massachusetts. These results indicated that a significant number of changes have already occurred in the special schools for the deaf due to the implementation of this law and more changes are planned over the next few years in order to accommodate these changes.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine the administrators' views of the status and future of schools for the deaf. Since the implementation of Public Law 94-142, changes have occurred in the schools for the deaf. Two major effects have been predicted: one, the public schools would attempt to provide local programs for the deaf (mainstreaming) and thus cause a decrease in enrollment in special schools; and two, the type of student referred to the special schools would have more complex educational needs and problems (multihandicapped students) than the typical deaf student in the past. If these changes occur, they will have profound effects on the programming and staffing of the special schools.

Questionnaires were sent to the administrative heads of all the well-established day and residential schools for the deaf throughout the country. The list of recipients was taken from the April 1979 Directory Issue of the American Annals of the Deaf. A total of 114 questionnaires was mailed and 104 were completed and returned. A total of forty day programs and sixty-four residential programs responded, for a return rate of 91 percent. The author was pleased with this return rate and extends his appreciation to each administrator who took the time to complete and return the questionnaire. In almost every case the person who responded was the chief administrator of the program.

Although 104 responses were received, the results of this study are based on only ninety-two. The additional twelve were received too late

to be included in the data analysis. However, the late responses were compared with those already received and there was very little difference between the two groups. The author does not believe that the inclusion of these twelve late arrivals would change the results to any significant degree.

This chapter will present the administrators' views of the present status and future plans of the schools for the deaf as determined by the responses to the questionnaire.

A description of the responding programs will be presented and questions on enrollment, admissions, individual education plans (IEPs), cooperation with local education agencies (LEAs), residential enrollment, program changes, and future planning will be discussed.

#### Background Information on Participating Programs

The programs reporting enrolled 56 percent of the deaf students throughout the country. Ninety-three percent of the students in residential schools and 40 percent of those in day schools were included (American Annals of the Deaf, April 1980, p. 179).

Sixty-five percent of the schools reporting were public and 35 percent were private. The private group included both parochial and quasi-public schools (i.e., privately controlled but publicly supported). Table I shows background information on the participating programs by number of responses and percentages.

Forty-two percent of the responding schools were day and 58 percent were residential. In every case except one, the residential schools also had day students.

TABLE I

## BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON PARTICIPATING PROGRAMS

Program	PROGRAM DESCRIPTION BY NUMBER OF RESPONSES AND PERCENTAGE										Method of Communication		
	Type		Size			Setting			Levels			Oral	TC
	Day	Day & Residential	Less than 200	200-500	Over 500	Rural	Sub-urban	Urban	Pre-school	Elementary			
Private (N=24) Percentage	18 75	6 25	23 96	1 4	0 0	0 0	8 33	16 67	24 100	17 71	7 29	18 78	8 36
Parochial (N=8) Percentage	5 63	3 37	5 63	3 37	0 0	0 0	5 63	3 37	8 100	8 100	3 37	3 37	5 63
Public (N=60) Percentage	16 27	44 73	24 40	27 45	9 15	7 15	9 20	30 65	52 86	59 98	54 90	8 14	57 97
Totals (N=92) Percentage	39 42	53 58	52 56	31 34	9 10	7 9	22 28	49 63	84 91	84 91	64 70	29 32	70 79

Over half of the programs (56 percent) had less than two-hundred students and only nine schools (10 percent) had more than five-hundred students. Over 90 percent of the schools were in either urban or suburban settings, over 90 percent had both preschools and elementary programs, and 70 percent also had secondary education programs.

Thirty-two percent reported that they used the oral/aural method exclusively and 80 percent were described as total communication programs. Two schools use the Rochester Method. The totals are greater than 100 percent due to some schools having dual tracks or programs. Table 1 also gives the breakdown of the programs into private, parochial, and public groupings.

Table 2 shows that 68 percent of the schools have programs for the multihandicapped deaf. These programs are found in 82 percent of the public schools but in only 38 percent of the private schools. While 81 percent of the total communication schools have such programs, only 31 percent of the oral programs have them. Eighty percent of the residential schools and about half of the day schools have programs for the multihandicapped.

Public Law 94-142 does not require educational services for children under three years of age; yet, 75 percent of the schools report offering preschool services to children under this age. About 90 percent of the private, oral, and day schools report offering these services (Table 2).

#### Responses to Enrollment Questions

A summary of responses to questions on enrollment is shown in percentages in Table 3. Over the past three years, approximately one-

TABLE 2

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS ON SCHOOL DESCRIPTION  
IN PERCENTAGES

Question	Program Types						Total (N=92)
	Private (N=24)	Parochial (N=8)	Public (N=60)	Oral (N=29)	Total Communi- cation (N=70)	Day and Residential (N=53)	
f. Do you have a program for the multihandicapped deaf?							
a. yes	38	50	82	31	81	80	68
b. no	62	50	18	69	19	20	32
g. Does your school provide for preschool services for children <u>under</u> three years of age?							
a. yes	88	75	70	90	72	67	75
b. no	12	25	30	10	28	33	25

TABLE 3

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO ENROLLMENT QUESTIONS  
IN PERCENTAGES

Question	Program Types						Total (N=92)
	Private (N=24)	Parochial (N=8)	Public (N=60)	Oral (N=29)	Total Communi- (N=70)	Day & Resi- dential (N=53)	
1. What has happened to your enrollment in the last three years?							
a. increased	38	14	24	28	28	41	27
b. remained about the same	33	57	20	31	25	32	27
c. decreased	29	29	56	41	47	27	46
d. unsure							
2. What do you expect to happen to your enrollment over the next three years?							
a. increase	29	0	15	29	16	27	18
b. remain about the same	46	29	52	43	50	41	48
c. decrease	13	43	24	11	25	16	22
d. unsure	12	29	7	18	8	16	12
3. What has happened to your enrollment of deaf students with additional handicaps over the past three years?							
a. increased	55	57	66	33	71	46	63
b. remained about the same	41	29	22	48	21	37	27
c. decreased	4	14	10	19	8	14	10
d. unsure						3	



quarter of the schools had an increase in enrollment, and about half of the schools showed a decrease. In reading through the responses, it was noted that both the increases and the decreases were small in numbers of students. While these changes were similar in oral and total communication programs, the increases were greater in private and day programs. The decreases in enrollment occurred most frequently in public residential schools.

When asked what they expect to happen to enrollment over the next three years; about half of the administrators responded that they expected it to remain about the same, about 20 percent expected it to increase, 22 percent expected a decrease, and 12 percent were unsure about future enrollment. About twice as many private, oral, and day programs expected increases as did public, residential, and total communication programs.

Decreases in enrollment were expected twice as often by the public, residential, and total communication programs as among the private, oral, and day programs.

Question three (Table 3) asked what has happened to enrollment of students with additional handicaps over the past three years. Sixty-three percent of the programs reported increased enrollment of such students, while only 10 percent reported decreases. All categories of schools reported increases, but the greatest increase occurred in the public, residential, and total communication programs.

The administrators were asked to describe how their student body had changed over the last three years. Almost all of them responded to the question, and several changes were given. The most common remarks are listed below, with their frequency indicated:

1. More multihandicapped students with more severe handicaps	46
2. Wider range of hearing loss	17
3. Lower mean age	15
4. Secondary program Increased	15
5. Poorer academic students	12
6. Older mean age	11
7. More behavior problems	7
8. More preschool children	6
9. Remained about the same	5
10. Fewer preschool children	4
11. More mainstreaming	4

In general, the remarks applied to all types of programs; however, items three and eight reflected the changes in the day schools and the private programs, respectively. All the others applied primarily to the residential schools.

The administrators were also asked what they expected to happen to the student body over the next three years. Apparently, they did not care to predict the future, as there were very few responses. A list of responses and frequency of occurrence is given:

1. More severely multihandicapped	27
2. Remain about the same	12
3. Secondary program will grow	11
4. More younger children	9
5. Larger number of poor academic students	6
6. More day pupils	5

7. Wider range of hearing loss	5
8. Unsure	5
9. Decrease in population as rubella children leave	5
10. More mainstreaming	2
11. More Spanish speaking students	2
12. More failures from public school	2

The few predictions made indicated that these administrators did not expect things to change much from the way they are at present. Most seemed to think that the biggest changes have already occurred and that more gradual changes are in store for the future.

#### Responses to Questions on Admissions

Questions six through nine were related to new admissions to the schools, and Table 4 shows a summary of these responses in percentages.

Applications for admission in September 1980 seem to be at about the same level as for the 1979 school year. Approximately 60 percent of the schools reported no change in the number of applications for September 1979 and September 1980. About 20 percent reported increases and 16 percent reported decreases. A higher percentage of private, oral, and day schools reported increases in applications than did the public, residential, and total communication programs. The parochial schools showed the largest decrease in applications.

Over the past three years, enrollment is reported to have increased at 34 percent of the schools and decreased at 48 percent, while remaining about the same at 18 percent.

TABLE 4

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS ON ADMISSIONS  
IN PERCENTAGES

Question	Program Types						Total (N=92)
	Private (N=24)	Parochial (N=8)	Public (N=60)	Oral (N=29)	Total Communi- cation (N=70)	Day (N=39)	
6. Compared to last year, how would you describe applications for admissions in September 1980?							
a. increasing	25	0	19	31	21	24	16
b. remaining the same	54	71	59	45	61	60	58
c. decreasing	13	29	16	17	13	16	16
d. unsure	8			7	5		12
8. What has happened to your enrollment at the lowest entry level of your program over the past three years?							
a. increased	63	50	20	52	28	53	22
b. remained the same	8	25	20	14	19	16	18
c. decreased	29	25	60	34	53	32	60
9. What has happened to your enrollment at the middle and upper grades over the last three years?							
a. increased	13	62	51	14	55	33	49
b. remained the same	25	38	25	32	27	37	22
c. decreased	62	0	24	54	18	30	29

Increases in enrollment were most pronounced at the private, oral, and day schools with the public, residential, and total communication schools showing the greatest decreases. Since the preceding question indicated that there was very little difference in applications between the 1979 and 1980 school years, the biggest drop in enrollment must have occurred prior to the 1979 school year or, in other words, during the first year that Public Law 94-142 was in effect. After an initial drop in enrollment, things seem to be leveling off. However, responses to questions seven and eight indicated that there was a change in the entry levels of new admissions.

Prior to the new legislation, a typical school admitted a large majority of its new students to beginning classes. Responses to question seven (Table 5) indicated that in 1979 only 52 percent of the new admissions entered beginning classes. Twenty-eight percent entered middle school and 21 percent entered upper school. For the private day schools, these percentages were 68 percent, 25 percent, and 12 percent, respectively.

Admissions to private and day programs followed a more normal pattern while the residential programs showed a decrease in admissions at the beginning level and an increase at the upper level of their programs. Residential school administrators' comments seem to verify that a greater number of young children are attending local schools and more older students are transferring from local programs to special schools for secondary work.

Table 4 shows that enrollment at the lowest entry level has decreased at 48 percent of the schools while admissions to the middle and upper schools increased at 45 percent of the programs. It appears that

TABLE 5  
 PLACEMENT OF NEW STUDENTS IN 1979  
 BY PERCENTAGES

Question	Program Types		
	Day Schools (N=39)	Day and Residential (N=53)	Total (N=92)
7. What percentage of your new students in 1979 were admitted to:			
a. Beginning classes	68	42	52
b. Middle school	25	29	28
c. Upper school	12	27	21

the private, oral, and day programs are increasing their enrollments at the lower levels while the public, residential, and total communication programs are showing their greatest number of new enrollments at the middle and upper school levels. Several administrators commented that they were rapidly becoming secondary education programs.

#### Responses to Questions on IEPs and LEAs

Public Law 94-142 requires the local education agency (LEA) to take responsibility for finding children with special needs, managing the development of their educational programs, arranging for appropriate programs, and monitoring the results of these efforts. Prior to this legislation, it was not uncommon for a local education agency to be unaware of children with special needs who were placed by the state or parents in a special school outside the district. Now the special schools and the LEA must work together for the benefit of the special students.

Table 6 shows how successfully the LEA and the special schools have been able to work together. Three questions were asked of the administrators to determine this. Individualized education plans (IEPs) for each child should be developed jointly by the LEA, the school, and the parents. The responses indicate that 58 percent of the IEPs were developed jointly, and while that may sound impressive, it is a long way from compliance with the law. Thirty-eight percent of the schools reported that their own staff developed the IEPs. The joint effort seems to be working a little better between the LEAs and the public schools than with the private and parochial schools.

The administrators felt that the LEA attempted to place deaf students

TABLE 6  
SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS ON IEPs AND LEAs  
IN PERCENTAGES

Question	Program Types						Total (N=92)
	Private (N=24)	Parochial (N=8)	Public (N=60)	Oral (N=29)	Total Communi- cation (N=70)	Day & Resi- dential (N=53)	
10. How are the individualized educational plans (IEPs) developed for new admissions?							
a. by your staff	36	75	34	41	38	35	38
b. by the LEA	5	0	2	0	1	3	2
c. jointly	54	25	64	56	61	60	58
d. other agency	5	0	0	4	0	2	2
11. Do you feel the Local Education Agencies (LEAs) try to place deaf students in the most appropriate program to meet their needs regardless of where the program is and what it might cost?							
a. yes	23	13	29	22	30	29	26
b. no	45	75	51	59	45	46	52
c. not sure	32	13	20	19	25	26	22
12. How would you describe your relationship with the LEAs in providing services to deaf students?							
a. excellent	14	0	17	12	16	27	15
b. very good	43	25	38	28	41	29	38
c. good	29	50	26	44	23	29	29
d. fair	10	25	13	12	14	9	13
e. poor	5	0	6	4	6	6	5



in the most appropriate program regardless of cost and location only 26 percent of the time. Over 50 percent said they did not attempt to do this and 22 percent were unsure. The administrators were asked to explain their reasons for feeling that the LEAs did not always place deaf students in the most appropriate programs. Their most common responses are summarized below, in order of occurrence:

	<u>Percent</u>
1. A majority of LEAs look for the most appropriate placement <u>if</u> available within the state.	30
2. LEAs try to place students where they are already providing services. Much confusion about the words "appropriate" and "least restrictive environment."	20
3. LEAs will not consider sending a child here because of the cost (or because we are private).	20
4. The least expensive or closest program is the one usually chosen.	20
5. LEAs lack the expertise to recognize a deaf student's needs (large LEAs do the poorest job).	10
6. Parents' wishes given preference.	10

In spite of a strong negative feeling about the placement decisions made by the LEAs, the responses indicated support for their efforts. They feel that the majority of them are trying to do the right thing but are hindered by factors appearing in remarks two through seven.

In describing the relationship between the LEAs and the schools, only 15 percent of the administrators felt it was "excellent," but 67 percent felt it was "good" and 18 percent felt it was "poor." The data seem to indicate that the relationship between the LEAs and the public programs is a little better than it is with the private and parochial schools.

### Responses to Questions on Residential Enrollment

Three questions related to residential enrollment were asked and the responses are shown in percentages in Table 7. The first question asked what effect Public Law 94-142 had on the ratio of day students to residential students. Fifty-three residential schools responded and 71 percent reported that their ratio had remained about the same. Another 21 percent noted increases and 9 percent reported declines.

The private schools showed the largest increase in percentage of day to residential pupils. Whether this is due to increased enrollment of day students or to a drop in residential enrollment is unclear, although in response to the question on admissions, these schools reported an increase in admissions.

Over the past three years the residential enrollment remained about the same at 29 percent of the schools, decreased at 60 percent, and increased at only 11 percent. The decreases in residential enrollment occurred in an equal percentage of public and private schools, but those private schools having decreases reported much higher percentages. It is suggested that this shows a reluctance on the part of the LEAs to place pupils in private residential programs where the costs may be significantly higher than the public school or local program.

In predicting what will happen to residential enrollment in the next three years, 56 percent of the administrators felt it would remain about the same and 33 percent felt it would decrease. One residential program closed as of June 1980. Only 10 percent felt there would be an increase in residential enrollment in the next three years. The administrators of

TABLE 7

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS ON RESIDENTIAL ENROLLMENT IN PERCENTAGES

Question	Program Types					Total Communi- cation (N=70)	Day & Resi- dential (N=53)	Total (N=92)
	Private (N=24)	Parochial (N=8)	Public (N=60)	Oral (N=29)	Total Communi- cation (N=70)			
13. What effect has P.L.94-142 had on the percentage of the number of day students to residential students in your school?								
a. increased significantly	38	0	4	25	6	8	9	
b. increased slightly	25	0	10	8	12	12	12	
c. remained about the same	25	100	77	50	76	70	71	
d. declined	12	0	8	17	6	10	9	
14. What has happened to the residential enrollment in the last three years?								
a. increased	17	50	9	20	9	12	11	
b. remained about the same	17	50	29	30	34	30	29	
c. decreased	33	0	55	20	55	48	50	
d. decreased significantly	33	0	7	30	2	10	10	
15. What do you predict will happen to your residential enrollment in the next three years?								
a. increase	33	0	7	20	7	8	10	
b. remain about the same	34	50	59	40	64	58	56	
c. decrease	33	50	27	30	25	30	29	
d. we will close our res.	0	0	5	10	2	4	4	

the private oral schools were much more optimistic about future residential enrollment, with 33 percent predicting an increase.

Overall, 60 percent of all programs responding have experienced a decrease in residential enrollment over the last three years, and yet 66 percent of the administrators predict that it will increase in the next three years.

### Reassignment of Deaf Students

The "least restrictive environment" clause of Public Law 94-142 has resulted in the reassignment of some deaf pupils. There were several questions regarding the transfer of students and due process cases.

The administrators were asked how their state interpreted "least restrictive environment" (LRE) in regard to deaf students. Responses indicated the administrators' frustrations with the interpretation of LRE. A summary of responses is given below:

	<u>Percent</u>
1. Difficult to determine, varies from LEA to LEA, probably means mainstreaming, fewer residential placements	40
2. "Public School"	30
3. Program closest to student's home	20
4. Cheapest, most convenient way	10

If the above comments accurately describe the interpretation of LRE by local education agencies, how has this affected the placement of students already in special programs? Table 8 shows the responses to questions seventeen through twenty-one. Seventy-two programs, or 89 percent of those responding to the survey, reported a total of 1,169

TABLE 8

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS REGARDING REASSIGNMENT  
REPORTED AS THE MEANS FOR A TWO-YEAR PERIOD

Question	Actual Count (N=92)	Program Types				Total All Schools (N=72)	Percent of the Totals	
		Day Schools		Total Day Schools (N=25)	Day & Resi- dential (N=47)			
		Private (N=12)	Parochial (N=5)	Public (N=25)				
17. Please indicate the number of students transferred to each of the instructional programs below since September 1978.	672	5.25	3.6	14.25	7.7	11.5	9.3	58.0
a. a local public school	234	0	4.6	0	0.18	4.1	3.2	20.0
b. an intermediate unit or collaborative	263	4.58	4.2	4.75	4.48	4.0	3.6	22.0
c. other	1169	9.83	12.4	10.00	12.36	19.6	16.1	
18. How many of the transfers mentioned in Question 17 were initiated by each of the groups below?	299	5.5	9.6	5.0	6.7	3.6	4.4	27.3
a. your school	112	0.33	0	0.75	0.36	2.5	1.4	8.7
b. the local school district	47	0	0.6	0	0.2	0.9	0.7	4.3
c. the intermediate unit	25	0	0.8	0	0.26	0.4	0.3	1.9
d. the state	590	3.5	1.2	1.75	2.15	13.0	8.4	52.1
e. the parents	61	1.08	0.2	5.625	2.3	0.2	0.91	5.7
f. other								

TABLE 8 (continued)

Question	Actual Count (N=92)	Program Types				Total Day Schools (N=25)	Day & Residential (N=47)	Total All Schools (N=72)	Percent of the Totals
		Private (N=12)	Parochial (N=5)	Public (N=25)	Total Day Schools (N=25)				
19. How many due process cases resulted from the above changes?	37	0.83	0.6	0	0.95	0.8	0.5	3.0	
20. How many of the cases were settled in favor of the student remaining in your school?	9	0.33	0	0	0.11	0.25	0.13	0.8	
21. How many of the appeals cases were settled to comply with the wishes of the parents?	11	0.33	0	0	0.11	0.25	0.12	0.7	

pupils transferring out of their schools in the past two years. Most of those students, or 58 percent, transferred into a local public school. Another 20 percent enrolled in an intermediate unit or collaborative program organized on a regional basis. Twenty-two percent went to some other type of program--mainly other schools for the deaf. The mean number transferred over the last two-year period was 16.1 students. Most of these transfers occurred from a relatively small number of schools. Only thirty-one, or 45 percent of the schools reporting, had more than ten students leaving. Presumably, about half this number left each of the two previous years.

The data shows that the public day schools lost more than twice as many pupils as the private day schools, and the residential schools lost about 50 percent more than the day schools.

In determining how these transfers were initiated, we find that the parents were responsible over 52 percent of the time and the school recommended it 27 percent, the LEA was responsible less than 9 percent of the time and the state less than 2 percent. The day schools recommended transferring more than twice as often as the residential schools, and the parents of residential school students requested the transfer almost six times as often as did parents of day school students. It is presumed that the latter accounts for the transfer of a large number of residential students to programs closer to the homes of the children, or at least from residential status to day student status.

All of these transfers resulted in less than one appeal per school (.5), or in only 3 percent of the cases. Thirty-seven cases were reported by nine schools. One school accounted for eleven of these cases. Results

of twenty of the thirty-seven appeals cases were reported. These results were in favor of the parents 50 percent of the time and in favor of the school 50 percent of the time. It should be pointed out that in several cases the ruling in the parents' favor permitted the student to remain in his/her present school.

According to the information given above, the state and LEAs did not appear to be making unusual or unreasonable demands on the schools or the parents regarding the placement of pupils. The above data reflects the willingness of LEAs to leave students in their present placement if it seems appropriate and agreeable to the parents. The placement of new pupils may be a different matter. The LEA has responsibility for providing services, and this is the area where the schools and parents are less successful in their cooperation with the LEA.

The administrators were asked to designate the person or group who has the major responsibility for deciding where a student will be placed. Responses are summarized as follows:

	<u>Percent</u>
1. LEA Director of Special Education	34
2. Team decision	31
3. Parent	22
4. Principal	13

The intent of Public Law 94-142 provides for a team of knowledgeable experts, including the parents, to make program and placement decisions. The responses to the question indicate that there is considerable confusion in the minds of administrators as to who has that responsibility.



Perhaps when all the states are in compliance with Public Law 94-142 these discrepancies will be diminished. When asked if their state was in compliance with this law, 62 percent of the administrators responded "yes," 18 percent said "no," and 20 percent were not sure. Sixty-three percent of the administrators said their state had a plan for educating the deaf and 48 percent of them participated in the development of the plan.

It seems incredible that over one-third of the administrators did not participate in developing the state plan (see Table 9). Table 9 also shows that the administrators of the public residential schools were more confident that their state was in compliance with Public Law 94-142 and that they participated to a much greater extent in developing a state plan than did those from the private sector.

Obviously, we need to improve in the way we go about providing a variety of options to serve the individual needs of the hearing impaired in this country.

#### Program Changes

We have seen changes in enrollment patterns and in the placement of new pupils. What have the schools done to accommodate these changes? The administrators were asked to list and explain any program changes that have occurred during the last three years.

About one-third of the administrators responded to the question and reported that very few programs had been dropped in these schools during this time. Seventeen said they had not dropped any programs and four said they had dropped a few outdated vocational options, and mentioned tailor-

TABLE 9

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS 23, 24, 25  
IN PERCENTAGES

Question	Program Types							
	Private (N=24)	Parochial (N=8)	Public (N=60)	Oral (N=29)	Total Communi- cation (N=70)	Day (N=39)	Day and Residential (N=53)	Total (N=92)
23. In your opinion, is your state in compliance with P.L.94-142?								
a. yes	41	50	72	48	69	58	68	62
b. no	18	0	20	15	17	16	18	18
c. not sure	41	50	8	37	14	26	14	20
24. Does your state have a state-wide or comprehensive plan for educating the deaf?								
a. yes	68	63	61	57	59	62	64	63
b. no	32	37	39	43	41	38	36	37
25. Did you (or your school) participate in the development of the state plan?								
a. yes	30	38	57	31	55	47	51	48
b. no	48	62	26	52	28	37	31	35
c. there is no state plan	22	0	17	17	17	16	18	17

ing and horticulture. The programs dropped within the last three years, and the reason given, are shown below:

- |  |                         |
|--|-------------------------|
| 1. Total communication for parents (3) | -                       |
| 2. Middle school (1)                   | Added Jr. High School   |
| 3. Dance therapy (1)                   | Lack of teacher         |
| 4. Industrial arts (1)                 | Teacher on leave        |
| 5. Cultural arts (1)                   | Federal funding dropped |
| 6. Prevocational dept. (2)             | No placements           |
| 7. TV instruction (1)                  | Lost teacher            |

It seems that those programs affected were cut for justifiable reasons in the normal process of program review and were not due to any crisis of enrollment decreases. Most cuts should not have affected the students to any great degree.

The administrators were much more enthusiastic about the programs that have been added over the past three years. Earlier we discussed the changes in the make-up of the student body. In response to these changes, the schools have initiated a number of new programs.

Over two-thirds of the schools responded to the question and a list containing over fifty-six different programs was developed. Below is a condensed list of the new programs which were mentioned most frequently:

- |                                  |    |
|----------------------------------|----|
| 1. Multihandicapped classes      | 24 |
| 2. Life skills/career education  | 23 |
| 3. Expanded vocational offerings | 15 |
| 4. Parent/infant programs        | 11 |
| 5. Mainstream services           | 10 |
| 6. Assessment/diagnostic center  | 9  |

7. Added secondary education	7
8. Speech programs	7
9. Guidance/counseling/placement	5
10. Deaf/blind programs	5

Those programs most often mentioned were primarily to serve the "new" students who have come or are expected to come into the schools--students with greater handicaps, less ability, and additional problems.

The more capable students were not overlooked, however, as several other programs were mentioned which would be beneficial to them, such as business education, computer learning, continuing education, and a program for the talented and gifted. Independent living skills programs, expanded athletic programs, and sex education programs should be useful to all students.

The response of the schools over the past three years to the changes in student population is obvious and seems to imply a conviction that the schools are needed and will continue to exist as a vital part of the system to educate the hearing impaired.

Question twenty-nine asked the schools if they were planning to add or drop programs in the next three years. Only 39 percent of the schools (Table 10) were planning to add or drop programs, leaving 61 percent that had no plans or were not sure whether they would be adjusting their programs. The public residential schools appeared to be more confident about the future than the private schools. Fifty percent of the private and parochial schools were not sure about program changes while only 23 percent of the public programs were unsure of future plans.

Those schools planning to drop programs mentioned those funded by

TABLE 10

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS 28, 29, 30  
IN PERCENTAGES

Question	Program Types						Total (N=92)
	Private (N=24)	Parochial (N=8)	Public (N=60)	Oral (N=29)	Total Communi- cation (N=70)	Day (N=39)	
28. Are you planning to add or drop programs in the next three years?							
a. yes	27	33	44	32	46	38	40
b. no	23	17	33	28	28	24	31
c. not sure	50	50	23	40	26	38	29
29. Do you do any partial mainstreaming with the public schools?							
a. yes	44	63	65	54	63	64	58
b. no	56	37	35	46	37	36	42
30. Do you have any difficulty in hiring competent professional staff?							
a. yes	30	13	37	33	34	29	38
b. no	70	87	63	67	66	71	62

grants which are expiring and vocational areas which are no longer justified, such as tailoring and horticulture.

There were several programs being planned for the future. Among those most commonly mentioned were expanded high schools (both academic and vocational), expanded mainstream services, more programs for the multihandicapped, parent/infant programs, sex education, counseling, career awareness, and parent education.

### Mainstreaming

Sixty percent of the schools do some mainstreaming with the public schools (Table 10). The public residential schools participate in partial mainstreaming much more than the private schools (65 percent to 44 percent). Several of the private schools did report mainstreaming but with other private schools rather than the public schools.

A variety of programs are in effect. Ten of the schools mainstream but generally with parochial or private schools, four schools mainstream from elementary through secondary with supportive services provided, and two programs mainstream students for vocational training. Other mainstreaming programs mentioned were integrated half-day preschool, high school students in certain subjects, occupational education, mainstreaming into resource rooms, a few for social mainstreaming, and three schools have at least one student mainstreamed into a program for the gifted.

Partial mainstreaming is very limited at the present time but administrators foresee the mainstream programs expanding in the future.

### Staffing

The schools were asked if they had any difficulty hiring competent professional staff, and about 67 percent reported none. Those reporting difficulty mentioned supervisory staff, psychologists, teacher educators, educational audiologists, teachers for multihandicapped children, and capable speech and language (oral) teachers as being in very short supply. Two reported that interpreters are hard to find and three mentioned that few well-trained teachers are available. Males were mentioned as being in short supply. The public residential schools reported having a little more difficulty hiring competent staff than the private and day schools. Eight programs gave inadequate salaries as a reason for their difficulty. Other reasons mentioned were rural location, severe winters, and civil service constraints on people from out of state.

### The Future

The final question asked of the administrators of the schools for the deaf throughout America was what they predicted would happen to their school over the next ten years. A majority of them responded to the question and several made brief comments. Some simply indicated that predictions made for the next three years would also apply to the next ten years. A few had some cogent remarks. Below is a condensed list of the most frequently mentioned predictions:

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 1. Don't know--wish I knew                        | 9 |
| 2. Will become a program for the multihandicapped | 8 |
| 3. Will remain about the same                     | 6 |

4. Will become more of a secondary program	6
5. Will have a decreased enrollment	6
6. Will become a resource center for state	6
7. Private sector will become placement of last resort	3
8. Backlash expected from public schools	3
9. Will develop bilingual programs	3
10. Will expand prevocational and vocational offerings	3
11. Will offer oral options	3
12. Expect more low-functioning students	2
13. Larger day programs	2
14. Program will close	2

The following quotes indicate the feelings of some of the administrators responding to the survey:

We will reduce reliance on LEAs and return to purely private program. (private school)

Energy costs and long commuting distances to our program are hurting. (day school)

I expect a drop in enrollment, followed in the next 10 years with a gradual increase; . . . as parents and educators again recognize the need for categorical school placement; integration is not the answer for most deaf children. (four residential schools)

Lower enrollment, particularly at 0-12 age level. Increased severely multihandicapped (7-day basis). Larger remedial summer school. Few (drastically) accredited high school graduates. More 19-20-year-old students. Few students capable (nor aspiring) to go to college. Curriculum changes to include very basic prevocational and life skills. (residential school)



In summary, it is quite possible we could become a small day Jr.-Sr. High School with a unit comprised of low-functioning deaf children and another unit of severely multihandicapped children. Control to move to state Department of Education. (residential school)

The school should become a resource, training, diagnostic, and evaluation center, as well as a comprehensive educational center for students providing increasing opportunities for educational and social development. The school will continue to serve mainly "normal" deaf children and some multihandicapped deaf students. (residential school)

Approximately 50% of student body will be at Jr.-Sr. High level. Percentage of multihandicapped higher. Beginning to see mainstreamed students return to our program at high school. Increased partial mainstreaming in private schools. (residential school)

We will have a smaller program with most students at the Jr. and Sr. High level. We will be urged to accept more multihandicapped students. Our residential population will dwindle but we feel we will always need it for a few. We will be able to provide a rich, fully competitive Jr. and Sr. High program. (residential school)

During the next ten years I expect population in this school to decrease to approximately one-half of the present population. Some 75% of the population is expected to be low-functioning and near one-half of the population will probably be multihandicapped. Rather than having the multihandicapped intermingled with other students, separate facilities probably will be made available for this group. Additional programming will be necessary to meet their needs. Faculty and staff will need specialized training in addition to that now required for teachers for the deaf. (residential school)

The prediction the author liked best of all came from a good friend who heads a nearby school. He said, "The headmaster will retire!"

The future of the special school for the deaf does not appear to be rosy. Predictions indicate that the student population will be different and the programs will change to meet the needs of these new students.

What will happen to the bright deaf student who formerly attended such schools and successfully completed the academic or vocational

programs? Will they continue to attend special schools? Will they succeed in the new mainstream programs? Will they achieve at their full potential? A study of the graduates of those programs will need to be made in a few years to answer these questions. Meanwhile, we must insist on quality programs and enough options to meet the needs of every hearing impaired student.

### Summary

We can conclude from the comments made by the administrators of the special schools for the deaf that there will continue to be a need for them in the future. They will have more day pupils and fewer residential pupils. The student body will be a more severely handicapped group, with more severe learning problems, and will require more extensive programs in career awareness and vocational training. The schools will receive more admissions at the upper levels rather than as beginners and thus will have an older student body. The schools will need to provide a greater variety of programs and develop more extensive mainstream services.

Over a period of time the schools will change a great deal but the changes will not take place overnight. Schools should have time to adjust and prepare for these new roles awaiting them. In fact, the process is already underway.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Public Law 94-142 became effective in September 1978. Each state had been operating under the new law for at least one and one-half years at the time of this study.

The purpose of this study was to determine what changes had occurred, were occurring, or were anticipated in the schools for the deaf due to the implementation of Public Law 94-142. A review of the literature indicates that as the law was implemented, a number of changes began occurring in the special schools. Several articles appeared describing changes that were felt by the heads of the special schools to be detrimental to the schools and to deaf students. Deaf adults came forward and wrote and spoke about their fears and concerns for the future of deaf students if present trends of withdrawing pupils, imposing admissions restrictions, and reducing budgets continued for the special schools for the deaf. A reaction developed as to the manner in which Public Law 94-142 was being interpreted and implemented in several states.

This author developed a questionnaire to gather information on the effects of the law on the schools. It sought to determine what enrollment patterns had emerged, what program changes had been made, what program changes were contemplated, what staffing problems had developed, and what role was predicted for the special schools in the future. Questionnaires were sent to the administrative heads of all the day and residential schools for the deaf throughout the country. The list of recipients was

taken from the April 1979 Directory Issue of the American Annals of the Deaf. A total of 114 questionnaires were mailed and 104 were completed and returned. The author was delighted at the 91 percent return rate.

The results reported here were taken from the responses received from ninety-two programs (thirty-nine day schools and fifty-three residential schools). All of the residential schools except one also had day students enrolled. Sixty-five percent of the schools were public, 26 percent were private, and 9 percent were parochial.

Fifty-eight percent of the schools were residential and 48 percent were day schools; 56 percent of the schools had under two-hundred pupils and 10 percent had over five-hundred; 63 percent were located in urban areas and 9 percent were in rural areas.

Ninety-one percent of the schools had preschool programs and 70 percent also had secondary programs; 79 percent used total communication and 32 percent were oral or had oral tracks.

Sixty-eight percent of the schools had programs for the multi-handicapped and 75 percent had preschool services for children under the age of three years.

#### Summary

Over the past three years, 46 percent of the schools had a decrease in enrollment. The decrease was about the same in both oral and total communication programs. It was much greater at the residential than at the day schools. In fact, more private day schools reported increases than decreases in enrollment. Overall, the increases and decreases were small in total number of students. Half of the programs expected their

enrollment to remain about the same over the next three years, 25 percent expected increases, and 25 percent expected decreases. Sixty-three percent of the programs reported increases in the number of students with additional handicaps over the past three years, and administrators predicted that this trend would continue.

About 60 percent of the programs reported that applications for admission in September 1980 remained about the same as for 1979. A few more programs reported an increase in applications than reported decreases. The private and oral programs reported slightly larger increases in the number of applications than did the residential schools, and the age of students admitted has changed over the past few years. About half of the programs reported that the number of young children being admitted decreased over the years. However, this was primarily true in the total communication and residential programs. Admissions at the lower levels had increased at more than half of the private oral day schools, reflecting a trend from residential to day programs. Forty-five percent of the schools reported increases in the number of admissions at their middle and upper grade levels over the past three years. These increases were primarily in the public residential programs. Overall, there has been a shift in students from the residential schools to day and private schools and mainstream programs over the past three years. The residential schools are becoming much larger at the upper elementary and secondary levels and are decreasing at the lower levels. The day schools, however, are growing at the lower elementary level. It would appear that more children are entering programs near their homes--either integrated or day programs--but as they get older more of them seem to be transferring to the

residential schools for secondary education.

It was found that about 60 percent of the schools developed the individualized education plans jointly with the LEA and parents. This was true in all programs except parochial where there was very little involvement by the LEA. Over half of the administrators felt that the LEAs do not usually recommend the most appropriate program to meet the needs of deaf students, that they do not have staff capable of making these decisions, and that their decisions are governed more by what is available at the local level or what is closest to the child's home and least expensive. Even though there was a negative feeling about the role the LEAs play in placement, over half of the administrators reported that their relationship with the LEAs was "very good to excellent," and very few felt that it was "poor."

In spite of the facts mentioned above, 71 percent of the schools reported that the number of day to residential students in their programs has remained about the same, and about 20 percent said that this number had increased. It may be that this ratio remained about the same because the overall number of students leaving the program was small or because an equal number of day and residential pupils were transferring.

Fifty percent of the programs reported that their residential enrollment had decreased and another 30 percent said it had remained about the same over the last three years. Surprisingly, 11 percent indicated that their residential enrollment had increased. Those reporting an increase in residential enrollment were primarily the parochial and oral programs.

In predicting what will happen to residential enrollment in the

future, 56 percent felt that it would remain about the same, 30 percent felt it would decrease, and two programs said they would close. Only the private oral schools predicted an increase in enrollment over the next three years, with about an equal number predicting a decrease.

The data on transfer students was rather surprising. Over eleven hundred students were reported as transferring out of the special schools. This was a mean of about sixteen students per program over a two-year period. The day schools reported about twelve transfers, while the residential schools reported about twenty. There were about three times as many students transferring from the public residential schools as from the private schools. Of those, 60 percent transferred back to a local public school, about 20 percent went to an intermediate unit or regional program for the deaf, and about 22 percent went to other programs--primarily other schools for the deaf. Even though this was a rather large number of students, it is not as many as was expected and there were very few appeals cases resulting from these transfers. Almost 30 percent of the transfers were recommended by the special schools. Over 50 percent of the transfers were recommended by the parents and the local school district recommended slightly less than 10 percent. The state initiated transfers in only one instance, so primarily the transfers were being requested by the parents and the special schools, not by the LEAs. These transfers resulted in one-half case per school. Only half of the appeals had been settled at the time the data was collected, and 50 percent of the cases were settled in favor of the student remaining in the school for the deaf and 50 percent of the cases were settled to comply with the wishes of the parents. In some cases, the wishes of the parents were for the

student to remain in the present program. Therefore, while there was a rather large number of transfers, there were only thirty-seven appeals reported throughout the country.

About 60 percent of the administrators felt that their state was in compliance with Public Law 94-142 and an equal number felt that it had a statewide or comprehensive plan for educating the deaf. Less than half of the administrators participated in the development of that state plan, however. Forty percent of the schools reported that they are planning to add programs during the next three years. Several were mentioned, most of them for deaf students who need more specialized programs, more vocational programs, and more life-skills type programs reflecting a positive response to the type student being referred to the special school. Sixty percent of the schools reported that they do some mainstreaming with the public schools. There were not many students in actual numbers, but the schools plan to implement mainstreaming programs and increase them in the future.

Two-thirds of the schools said that they have no difficulty in hiring competent professional staff. Supportive staff, such as psychologists, audiologists, supervising teachers, and well-trained speech and language teachers, are the most difficult to find. Reasons given were inadequate salaries, rural location, and severe winters.

### Conclusions

Over the last three years, several changes have occurred in the special schools for the deaf, primarily a shift of the better students from residential to local and regional programs, and increased enrollment



In the special schools of deaf students with additional handicaps and greater learning problems. There has also been a shift in the age of the students. The private and local day programs are increasing their enrollment at the lower levels while the residential enrollment is increasing primarily at the secondary level. The residential schools therefore are redesigning their programs to take these special needs into account and plans are made to expand their secondary education and vocational programs.

In looking to the future, the schools predict that a leveling off in enrollment is occurring. Fewer residential students are expected, but most programs expect that their residential component will be needed for some time. There was a strong feeling that those children who had been placed into the mainstream inappropriately would soon be returning to the special schools and that they would continue to be needed in the future.

#### Recommendations

It is recommended that we carefully observe these trends in admissions, in student characteristics, and program changes and see if there is a stabilization in the next few years. Will those who predicted that all special needs children could be educated in the mainstream be proven right, or will those who expect special needs children, such as the deaf, to fail in the mainstream and return to the special schools in a few years, be proven right?

It is suggested that future researchers keep track of these trends in all kinds of programs, and it is strongly recommended that they investigate the results of the various program types. Several studies have been done on the graduates of a number of schools for the deaf--the

percentage that go to college and the vocations they choose. No studies have been done on the success of the local mainstream programs, and the author feels that it is imperative that someone study the results of these programs to determine if they really are appropriate, if they provide opportunities for deaf students to reach their potential, and if they give them the educational background to enable them to continue on to college or to satisfying vocations.

A person's self-concept or sense of worth is very important. It is recommended that a study be conducted to compare the self-concept of those hearing impaired students educated in mainstream programs and of those in special schools.

One finding of this study was that a number of students were transferring to the state residential schools for academic and vocational education at the secondary level. It is recommended that a study be done to determine where these students are coming from and why these transfers are occurring.

The only way we will know whether or not this social experiment of mainstreaming is justified is whether it proves to be educationally sound and if students succeed.

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APPENDIX A

Cover Letter

and

Follow-up Letter

# The Clarke School for the Deaf

Northampton, Massachusetts

01060

April 15, 1980

Dear

This letter and the attached questionnaire are being sent to all the administrative heads of the day and residential schools for the deaf throughout the country. I am attempting to do a study of the present status and the predicted future of our schools. I earnestly solicit your cooperation and support in this project. I hope you will take the time to respond to the questionnaire and return it to me as soon as possible.

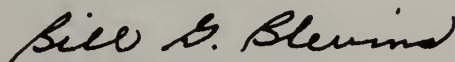
You must be faced with some of the same questions that we at Clarke School face in planning our future. How will deaf children's needs be met in the future? Obviously this is a general and broad question, but perhaps by collecting information and thoughts from people such as yourself, we can get some ideas about the role our schools will play in the future.

You should be able to answer the questions quickly and without having to do any research. Enclosed is a stamped, self-addressed envelope. When the results are known, I will be happy to send you a summary. If you prefer not to identify yourself on the questionnaire that will be fine. I plan to present the results of this study at the A. G. Bell Convention in June.

Please be assured that no identification of you or your program will ever be made public. I am simply looking for some answers to questions about our present practice and about predictions for the future. Summary information describing schools across the country is my central concern. Your responses will be most valuable and most welcome. Knowing how little time you have for things such as this, I am very appreciative.

Thank you.

Sincerely yours,



Bill G. Blevins  
Assistant to the President

BGB: cg

Enclosures: 2

The Clarke School for the Deaf

Northampton, Massachusetts

01060

145

May 19, 1980

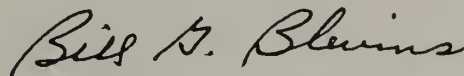
Dear

A couple of weeks ago I sent you a questionnaire and asked you to take a few moments of your time to complete it and return it to me. I have already received a great many of the questionnaires back and I am anxious to get as many returned as possible. I know how busy people who try to run schools for the deaf are today, and I know the amount of paperwork that crosses your desk, but I hope you will take a few moments to respond to the questions. The future of our schools is on all our minds and perhaps this study will provide something of interest to our field.

I will be glad to send you a summary of the results when they are completed. In case you did not receive my first request, I am enclosing another copy of the questionnaire.

I thank you in advance for your cooperation and support of this project.

Sincerely yours,



Bill G. Blevins  
Assistant to the President

BGB:cg

Enclosure

APPENDIX B

The Questionnaire

## THE EFFECTS OF PUBLIC LAW 94-142

## ON THE SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

Survey Instrument

General Information (If you prefer not to identify your school or yourself, leave those spaces blank.)

_____ Name of school	_____ Name of person completing form
_____ Address	_____ Position
_____	_____ Time in this position
_____ Telephone	_____ Educational background (field of study, degree, etc.)
-----	

When was your school established? \_\_\_\_\_

School Description (check all that apply)

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> day (only)  | d. <input type="checkbox"/> preschool (3 years +) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> residential (only)   | <input type="checkbox"/> elementary school        |
| <input type="checkbox"/> day and residential  | <input type="checkbox"/> secondary school         |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> less than 200 students  | e. <input type="checkbox"/> oral (only) school    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 200-500 students   | <input type="checkbox"/> total communication      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> over 500 students  | <input type="checkbox"/> other: _____             |
|   | (Rochester, Cued Speech, etc.)                    |
| c. <input type="checkbox"/> rural school  |   |
| <input type="checkbox"/> suburban school  |   |
| <input type="checkbox"/> urban school   |   |
| f. Do you have a program for the multihandicapped deaf? (circle one)  |   |
| a. yes      b. no   |   |
| g. Does your school provide for preschool services for children <u>under</u> three years of age? (circle one) |   |
| a. yes      b. no   |   |

If you have any additional demographic data on your school which you feel is important, please provide it on the back of this page.

Enrollment

1. What has happened to your enrollment in the last three years? (circle one)
  - a. increased
  - b. remained about the same
  - c. decreased
  - d. unsure
2. What do you expect to happen to your enrollment over the next three years? (circle one)
  - a. increase
  - b. remain about the same
  - c. decrease
  - d. unsure
3. What has happened to your enrollment of deaf students with additional handicaps over the past three years? (circle one)
  - a. increased
  - b. remained about the same
  - c. decreased
  - d. unsure
4. How has your student body changed over the last three years in terms of age, degree of hearing loss, ability, additional handicaps, etc.?
  - a. increased
  - b. remained about the same
  - c. decreased
  - d. unsure
5. How do you expect the student body to change over the next three years in terms of age, degree of hearing loss, ability, additional handicaps, etc.?

New Admissions

6. Compared to last year, how would you describe applications for admission in September 1980? (circle one)
  - a. increasing
  - b. remaining about the same
  - c. decreasing
  - d. unsure
7. What percentage of your new students in 1979 were admitted to:
 

\_\_\_% beginning classes    \_\_\_% middle school    \_\_\_% upper school
8. What has happened to your enrollment at the lowest entry level of your program over the past three years? (circle one)
  - a. increased
  - b. remained about the same
  - c. decreased



9. What has happened to your enrollment at the middle and upper grades over the last three years? (circle one)
- a. increased    b. remained about the same    c. decreased
10. How are individualized educational plans (IEPs) developed for new admissions? (circle one)
- a. by your staff (only)                      c. jointly  
 b. by the Local Education Agency (only)    d. by other agency \_\_\_\_\_
11. Do you feel the Local Education Agencies (LEAs) try to place deaf students in the most appropriate program to meet their needs regardless of where the program is and what it might cost? (circle one)
- a. yes    b. no    c. not sure    (please explain)
12. How would you describe your relationship with the LEAs in providing services to deaf students? (circle one)
- a. excellent    b. very good    c. good    d. fair    e. poor
13. What effect has P.L. 94-142 had on the percentage of the number of day students to residential students in your school? (circle one)
- a. increased significantly                      c. remained about the same  
 b. increased slightly                              d. declined
14. What has happened to the residential enrollment in the last three years?
- a. increased                                      c. decreased  
 b. remained about the same                      d. decreased significantly
15. What do you predict will happen to your residential enrollment in the next three years? (circle one)
- a. increase                                      d. we will close our residential facilities  
 b. remain about the same                      e. no residential enrollment  
 c. decrease

Placement

The "least restrictive environment" clause of P.L. 94-142 has resulted in the reassignment of some deaf students.

16. How does your state interpret "least restrictive environment" as regards its deaf students?
17. Please indicate the number of students transferred to each of the instructional programs below since September 1978:
- |                              |   |
|------------------------------|---|
| _____ a local public school  | _____ an intermediate unit or collaborative |
| _____ other (please specify) |   |
18. How many of the transfers mentioned in Question 17 were initiated by each of the groups below?
- |                                 |                    |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|
| _____ your school               | _____ the state    |
| _____ the local school district | _____ the parents  |
| _____ the intermediate unit     | _____ other: _____ |
19. How many due process cases resulted from the above changes? \_\_\_\_\_
20. How many of the cases were settled in favor of the student remaining in your school? \_\_\_\_\_
21. How many of the appeals cases were settled to comply with the wishes of the parents? \_\_\_\_\_
22. What person, if anyone, has the major responsibility for deciding where a student will be placed? (please provide a title for the person)
23. In your opinion, is your state in compliance with P.L. 94-142? (circle one)
- a. yes      b. no      c. not sure
24. Does your state have a state-wide plan or comprehensive plan for educating the deaf? (circle one)
- a. yes      b. no

25. Did you (or your school) participate in the development of the state plan? (circle one)
- a. yes      b. no      c. there is no state plan

Program changes in the last three years

26. Which programs (if any) have you dropped and why?
27. Which programs have you added (if any) and why?
28. Are you planning to add or drop programs in the next three years? (circle one)
- a. yes      b. no      c. not sure      (please explain)
29. Do you do any partial mainstreaming with the public schools? (circle one)
- a. yes      b. no      If yes, to what extent and how is it accomplished?
30. Do you have any difficulty in hiring competent professional staff? (circle one)
- a. yes      b. no      If yes, please explain.
31. What do you think will happen to your school over the next ten years? (in terms of its size, type of students, program changes, etc.) Please use the back of this page for your answer.

Thank you very much for responding to these questions. Please be assured that you and your program will never be identified by name. If you filled in the General Information section, the results of this study will be distributed to you in the near future. Thank you very much.

Bill G. Blevins

APPENDIX C

List of Questionnaire Recipients

## LIST OF QUESTIONNAIRE RECIPIENTS

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