Provided is an annotated bibliography with approximately 350 entries relating to the education and training of deafblind individuals. The booklet is divided into three parts: part one contains references to books published by, for and/or about the deafblind over a period of more than 130 years; part two contains references to articles published between 1869 and 1970; and part three contains references to proceedings and reports of conferences and activities of groups (such as the American Association of Workers for the Blind). Entries are listed alphabetically by author and usually include such information as the title, publisher, publication date, page numbers, and a brief description. (SBH)
LITERATURE on the DEAF-BLIND an annotated bibliography

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Preface

When the victims of the rubella epidemic of the 1960s were ready to begin their education, the education community was not prepared to meet their special needs. The teachers who were recruited from the professional ranks of the other disciplines had no specific expertise in teaching the deaf-blind. Further, information relating to the deaf-blind was limited to the library of the Perkins School for the Blind. The literature available needed to be researched and distributed to the professionals who were responsible for teaching the deaf-blind.

This bibliography was compiled to mitigate the drastic effects of that lack of knowledge and information. In 1972 the data were entered into the ERIC system and thus became available from that source. Now, the data have been improved and expanded and are being published in this document to permit a much wider distribution. The publication includes information relating to published works on the education and training of the deaf-blind.

The data for the entries in this bibliography were gathered from many sources—many of them very old. The authors have endeavored to make each entry as complete and accurate as possible.

The publication is divided into three parts. The first part contains annotated bibliographic references to books published by, for, and/or about the deaf-blind. The authors of books referenced in this part relate the story of the deaf-blind from both the specific and general points of view. They represent books published over a period of more than 130 years. In the second part, the authors have annotated articles published in periodicals between the years 1869 and 1970. Part three contains references to proceedings and reports of conferences and activities of such groups as the American Association of Workers for the Blind and the American Association of Instructors of the Blind.

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Selected Books


The background of Anne Sullivan and Helen Keller is presented. The author, as an accolade, considered Anne Sullivan to be Helen Keller's "other self."


This bibliography was compiled in 1969 by Armin Lowe and Benno Westermann for a small group of students attending the Deaf-Blind Section of the Institute for the Training of Teachers for the Deaf, Speech Handicapped, and Blind Children. It was published by Dr. Beschel in his "Schriften zur Sonderpädagogik." The entries are listed in English and German and, in a few cases, other languages.


In this highly technical doctoral dissertation, the author discusses the kinesthetic and tactile senses used as a means of receiving information, a method of communication with important possibilities for the blind, deaf, and the deaf-blind. Mr. Bliss illustrates his paper liberally with diagrams and charts. The book includes a technical abstract and a thorough summary, both of which will give the reader with a scientific background an excellent resume of the work.


Perhaps the greatest miracle concerned with Helen Keller was that Anne Sullivan was there and ready and was chosen to work with Helen. Without her determination, persistence, and her "toughness," the miracle of Helen Keller's awakened intelligence might never have been.

Throughout the book the reader feels Miss Sullivan's strength, her deep sympathy for neglected, under-privileged humanity, her interest in and support of causes that appealed to her sense of fairness. This is an absorbing, moving account of a great woman.


Mr. Brooks, essayist and critic, traces Helen Keller's life from early infancy through her 73rd year. While expressing Miss Keller's wish to eliminate the aura of "sainthood" surrounding her life, Mr. Brooks contrarily encourages the same by juxtaposing her with prominent heroic characters in world literature. He also gives an account of Miss Keller's abortive romance with a young newspaperman.


Mr. Burns reviews the teaching of the deaf-blind, beginning with Laura Bridgman and Helen Keller. He then recalls the organization of a special deaf-blind department at Perkins School where vibration speech was introduced. In 1954 a teacher-training program for teaching the deaf-blind in conjunction with Boston University was started. The author relates the progress of the program.


Mr. Butler presents an encapsulated biography of Helen Keller, starting with her communication breakthrough ("water"). He relates her graduation from Radcliffe with honors and her then-present residence in Wrentham, Massachusetts.

Samuel Clemens met Helen Keller when she was fourteen years old. He described her in glowing terms, comparing her courage and intellect with those of Joan of Arc. He told her a story, and she chuckled in all the right places. When Miss Sullivan asked Helen what Mr. Clemens was famous for, she replied, "humor." Mr. Clemens interjected, "and wisdom." Instantly, Miss Keller repeated the exact phrase. Afterwards, Mr. Clemens told many a listener of the telepathic link between his mind and Helen Keller's.


The authors describe an initial effort to gather data generally applicable in evaluating deaf-blind children. Seventy children, referred to the Syracuse University Clinic by the American Foundation for the Blind, were examined by experts in such fields as pediatrics, neurology, and ophthalmology. The findings of this team of experts were discussed and tabulated. Efforts were made to refine the terminology used by the members of the team, and a statistical analysis of the terminology used in this initial effort is given. The results of this study show the need for the development of a program for training educational specialists at an M.A. level in the area of the multiply handicapped.


On page 10 of this reference, Mr. Cutsforth speaks of sound-and-word verbal unreality and gives as an example the ringing of a bell and the word "phone." For the handicapped blind child there is no reality in the sound until he locates and handles a phone. On pages 48–71 the author enlarges on "words versus reality" and deplores the method used at that time [1951] to educate the deaf-blind. He feels that Helen Keller was not trained to grasp realities within her reach. To successfully educate the handicapped is to bring reality to them through their available working senses. Blind schools, as an example, are still educating the blind to the reality of the sighted.


Miss Dinsmore catalogs and explains concisely all forms of communication with the deaf-blind. She divides the systems into (1) those involving the hands; and (2) those using mechanical devices (vibration plates, and so forth). Hand communication is subdivided into types requiring learning on the part of the speaker as well as the deaf-blind person (one- and two-hand manual alphabet, Morse Code, and so forth) and those requiring learning only by the deaf-blind person (palm printing, alphabet glove, and so forth).


This authoritative work is a combined report covering the history of the Perkins Institute for the Blind and the education of Laura Bridgman by Dr. Howe.


The author, who is Director Emeritus of Perkins, presents historical synopses of deaf-blind individuals and deaf-blind education, from the mid-seventeenth century through the resolutions formulated by the Conference of Educators of Deaf-Blind Children in April, 1953. Many anecdotes about deaf-blind James Mitchell, Julia Brace, Laura Bridgman, and Helen Keller are incorporated.

This reference includes an overview of the accomplishments and progress of the deaf-blind, including Ragnhild Kaata, Leonard Dowdy, and Tad Chapman. Mr. Farrell explains the philosophy of and the successes with the oral Tadoma method of instruction that is employed at the Perkins School.

The story of Laura Bridgman and the system Dr. Howe used to teach her is followed by accounts of other early deaf-blind pupils at Perkins Institute. A detailed description of Helen Keller's development is included. As a late development at the Perkins School for the Deaf-Blind, the Phipps Unit is described.

This book is a collection of many of Helen Keller's speeches and writings during the early 1900s, chronicling her great concern for working class America and her fight against blindness, which led to her support of socialistic reforms. In her visits to slum areas, Miss Keller recognized that much blindness was caused either by industrial accident due to lack of job safety or extreme destitution driving women to a "life of shame." All her efforts were directed toward the removal of these oppressive conditions.

In his introduction to this book, Mr. French comments on the fact that blindness can cause dulled effects of the other senses. The loss of one sense does not mean increased acuity of the others. In general, other than pointing out Dr. Howe's success with Laura Bridgman, the later success of Anne Sullivan Macy with Helen Keller, and the methods of educating these blind and deaf girls, this book is devoted primarily to the education of the blind. However, the methods that work successfully with the blind will also be successful with the deaf. The reverse is also true. On pages 184–187 the author emphasizes the importance of relating the word symbol of an object to the thing itself, or, using reality in education as was used in the education of Helen Keller.

The author has compiled numerous charts, lists of statistics, and brief case studies relative to multiple handicaps. She feels that the nucleus of deaf-blind education should be the building of many concepts of daily life and constant exploration of the world around the individual student.

This reference includes a specific discussion relating blindness to the total "action system" of a child and a recommendation for early evaluation of maturational factors. The author states that blindness and deafness often affect morphology and growth potentials. He states that one sense cannot substitute for another and that it is extremely doubtful that there is any increase in the acuity of the intact senses. He discusses two major problems of the blind: to achieve some degree of extroversion and to overcome the use of words as a "subjective kind of verbalism." The case presented illustrates the favorable prognosis of a two-year-old blind boy who has normal and undamaged growth potential.

This is the report of a survey of multiply-impaired blind children. Two tables are included which show the number of children who are also deaf. Illustrated tables indicate the ages of the children at the time the information was compiled and the ages at which the children became blind.

In this book the author documents the interaction of the lives of Polly Thompson and Anne Sullivan Macy with Helen Keller. Many captioned period photographs are included.

The author briefly defines “deaf-blind” and relates work done by Dr. Howe with Laura Bridgman and by Anne Sullivan Macy with Helen Keller. This work formed the basis for all subsequent policies of educating and employing the deaf-blind. Miss Hayes discusses the financing of the care and training of the deaf-blind and calls it a civic duty. She describes various jobs that can be done by the deaf-blind.


The author is a totally uninvolved third party in the Sullivan-Keller relationship. Most of her information seems to be from available writings or secondary sources. The focal point of the book is the enigma of Helen Keller never being publicly accepted as a viable intellect, but rather as a young innocent bent ‘y the caprices of Anne Sullivan Macy. Consequently, when Miss Keller wrote a manuscript proclaiming Sir Francis Bacon as the true author of the Shakespeare corpus and an article on the prevention of blindness in children born of V.D. parents, Anne Sullivan Macy was blamed for corrupting that “dear, sweet, little wonderful child (Miss Keller) . . .”


In a short section of this book Dr. Holmes records his impressions of his meeting with Helen Keller and includes one of her letters written at age nine or ten years.


While attempting to deflate Helen Keller’s successes, Mr. Illingworth, with perhaps more nationalistic fervor (England) than logic, compiled this report on deaf-blind David Brown McLean (born December 12, 1892). The author ascribes most of McLean’s knowledge and impressions to what he calls “brainwave theory.”


The results of a two-year study are categorized in seven volumes:

Vol. 1. *A Manual for Professional Workers and Summary Report of a Pilot Study.* This volume includes a general summary of main findings.

Vol. 2. *Communication—A Key to Service for Deaf-Blind Men and Women.* This volume includes exploration and discussion of general methods of communication.

Vol. 3. *Report of Medical Studies on Deaf-Blind Persons.* All support services must be more vigorously applied to deaf-blind.

Vol. 4. *A Report of Psychological Studies with Deaf-Blind.* Psychological tools can be adapted for use with the deaf-blind. The degree of difficulty in rehabilitating the blind or the deaf-blind is the same.

Vol. 5. *Studies in the Vocational Adjustment of Deaf-Blind Adults.* The biggest problem is industry’s reluctance to accept the seriously disabled.


Vol. 7. *Survey of Selected Characteristics of Deaf-Blind Adults in New York State.* Statistics and tables of characteristics are provided.


Dr. Jastrow states that the assimilation and elaboration of ideas is measurably independent of the causative sensations. While the information-gathering, tactile sense of the deaf-blind may be slow, the idea or image, once formed, is normally accurate and complete. The case histories of both Helen Keller and Laura Bridgman are summarized.


Dr. Jastrow discusses the psychological implications of recorded dreams of several then-contemporary deaf-blind individuals, including Laura Bridgman and Helen Keller. Among the author’s conclusions was his statement that, based on the dream patterns considered, the brain center will function in the mode of its initial education, even though it is subsequently deprived of sense stimulation.

Lamson, Mary Swift. *Life and Education of Laura Dewey Bridgman, the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind*
The author was Laura Bridgman's teacher for a four-year period. The book includes a full chronicle of Laura's education and achievement through 1878. It also contains some original Bridgman writings and poems.


This book contains correspondence in which Mark Twain asks Mrs. Rogers to encourage her husband to support the continued stay of Anne Sullivan and Helen Keller at Radcliffe.


Most of Professor Lieber's article deals with language and its origins, as suggested by Laura Bridgman's sounds. She had 50 or 60 different sounds for specific individuals. She constantly repeated monosyllables, mainly. She made no oral identification of actions or things. Dr. Howe's arrival would be greeted with a "ts-ts-ts" sound. When boys touched her, she'd make an angered "f" sound. Unfortunately, most of her utterances could not be written.


This is a lengthy report with many tables and statistics relative to the captioned study. Specific recommendations include creation of deaf-blind centers where all the needs of this group can be met. In the interim, equal educational opportunities must be offered.


Madame Maurice Maeterlinck transcribes conversation and gives full descriptions of her lengthy visits with Helen Keller. Many intimate opinions of Miss Keller are preserved: "What woman has not longed for love? But...I think it is forbidden me, like music, light,..." An oversensitive book, perhaps, but one that seemingly represents the emotional impressions of a sentient artist.


Mr. Mann, fascinated with the theatrical aspects of Julia Brace's sense of smell ("transcends even the sagacity of a spaniel"), provides another anecdotal word-picture of Miss Brace while she resided at the Hartford Asylum. As described, she seems more a successful side-show entertainer, rather than a person who has made tremendous efforts to cope with her deaf-blindness.


Teaching procedures and ideas for new techniques in the education of multiply-impaired blind children are discussed. The education plan or curriculum suggested for these children can be used to a certain extent in the development and education of the deaf-blind. Case studies are presented, and reading lists are provided.


This book contains the reflections of a handicapped man, ensuring its inherent value. The author, who is deaf, presents brief but poignant sketches, gathered from period cited sources, of three deaf-blind people: James Mitchell, Julia Brace, and Victorine Morisseau. Much has been written about the first two, but little is known about Victorine Morisseau, other than she was born in Saintes, France, in 1790. She became totally deaf at an early age, gradually losing all speech, and became totally blind at age twelve. She was a pupil of Abbey Perier, the successor of Abbey Sicard. She died in 1832.


The reports of the Perkins Institution and journals of Dr. Howe, 1840 through 1844, present a full description of the development and education of Laura Bridgman. At first only able to give "signs" for members of her family and for familiar household objects, under the teaching of Dr. Howe, she quickly learned the
manual alphabet and to read simple texts. Within a short time she could communicate qualities, for example, “sweetness.” By 1844 the records reported her progress in religious instruction and knowledge of God. Later Laura was able to help Oliver Caswell, who was also a deaf and blind student at Perkins Institution.

Richmond, M. E. What Is Social Case Work? New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1922, 5–25. The author used the education and training of Laura Bridgman and Helen Keller as optima for social case workers. Individual personalities must be better served in order to obtain maximum individual adjustment to environment.

Ritter, C. G. “Devices to Aid the Blind,” Blindness. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Workers for the Blind, 1950, 415–418. Mr. Ritter first mentions the “Talking Glove,” then the manual alphabet, and goes on to describe such experiments as converting a braille writer into a touch system and the possible conversion of sound into mechanical energy as means of communication with the deaf-blind.

Robbins, Nan. Educational Beginnings with Deaf-Blind Children. (Second edition) Watertown, Mass.: Perkins School for the Blind (Publication #21), 1960. To meet the needs of deaf-blind children who are possibly educable, the Deaf-Blind Division of Perkins School for the Blind has set up a diagnostic readiness program. Its purposes are (1) to diagnose and evaluate the child for future placement; and (2) to train the child in readiness for the placement recommended. Miss Robbins’ book is a detailed, practical guide to teachers, not only in the procedures of the program, but also in the daily problems of handling the child. The goal is to make the child into “whole” a person as possible emotionally and socially, and later, if it is feasible, to prepare him for academic instruction.

Robbins, Nan. Speech Beginnings for the Deaf-Blind Child—A Guide for Parents. Watertown, Mass.: Perkins School for the Blind (Publication #22), 1963. The normal child learns to talk by “hearing”; the deaf child learns by “seeing” others talk; the deaf-blind child learns by “feeling” how others talk. Learning to talk by “feeling” is a long drawn-out process and takes very special help. To help in this process, parents can make the most of the child’s potential by giving him love and appreciation, helping him to do things, and taking time—lost of time—to help him. With understanding and sympathy, Miss Robbins advises parents of a deaf-blind child and tells them how they can prepare their child for the learning process from infancy on. She goes into great detail and presents many situations and helpful suggestions for solving problems.

Robbins, Nan. Auditory Training in the Perkins Deaf-Blind Department. Watertown, Mass.: Perkins School for the Blind (Publication #23), 1964. Miss Robbins discusses first, with technical detail, the mechanisms of hearing. She then describes different types of sound and the different reactions of individual children. Each child’s problem is unique. Finally, Miss Robbins discusses speech and the relationship of hearing to the Vibration Method.

Robbins, Nan, and Gertrude Stenquist. The Deaf-Blind “Rubella” Child. Watertown, Mass.: Perkins School for the Blind, (Publication #25), 1967. A careful study of 28 “Rubella” deaf-blind children was undertaken by Miss Robbins and Mrs. Stenquist to show how these children might be classified and what educational programs might be developed to help them. No final conclusions could be reached. The authors presented tentative conclusions within four classifications: is the child educable; is he minimally educable; is he trainable; and is he custodial. Facts were gathered from the histories of the children and observations made on the vision, hearing, and behavior of each.

Salmon, Peter J. “The Deaf-Blind,” Blindness. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Workers for the Blind, 1963, 224–232. Most deaf-blind people are afflicted with nervous tension, a deep sense of insecurity, and frustration. Dr. Salmon tells of the efforts of the Industrial Home for the Blind, Brooklyn, to alleviate these and other problems. However, the author calls upon society to generate humanitarian zeal for the improvement of the deaf-blind patient’s over-all status, meet the challenge of finding a place for him in society, and be willing to learn to communicate with him.

Literature pertinent to the deaf-blind was surveyed. The literature reflected the individual writer's personal involvement with his subject (person) rather than an objective analysis. Evidence confirmed that the deaf-blind can be educated, but there was little support for specific educational and rehabilitation techniques. Ten future research projects were proposed, including one to improve the general mental health of deaf-blind people.


The Anne Sullivan Macy Service, 1962–1969, showed what could be done for the deaf-blind and what they could do for themselves. It also stimulated the interest and gained the support of the general public in a broad effort to help the unfortunate deaf-blind people. At the disbudding of this service, its work, on a larger scale, was taken over by the National Center for Deaf-Blind Youths and Adults. A federally supported program, it was opened and operated at the Industrial Home for the Blind, Brooklyn.


This autobiography covers the life of deaf-blind Robert J. Smithdas through age thirty-three. A poignant chapter recreates the author's agonizing decision to forego marriage in favor of completing his college education.


This pamphlet is based on a five-month study of 22 deaf-blind men associated with the Industrial Home for the Blind. The author concludes that the manual alphabet is the most effective individual and group means of communication. She specifically recommends the training of helper-volunteers and the individualization of programs to meet the particular needs of each deaf-blind person.


This book, complete with period pictures and illustrations, includes articles about Helen Keller written by Alexander Graham Bell (instruction of Helen Keller), Anne Sullivan (methods used), Arthur Gillman (Helen Keller's college preparatory work), and Merton S. Keith (chronological statement of Helen Keller's studies). Mr. Keith discusses candidly Miss Keller's scholastic achievements and failures.


While Russian schools for the handicapped are well-equipped with efficient teaching, their ultimate function is to provide new experimental conclusions which can be applied to the education of the nonhandicapped. For example, constant study of the relationship between the deaf-blind and their environment becomes the basis of a dynamic pedagogy—a science of organization of human behavior.


A series of tests with ten deaf-blind men and women who were selected for their ability to get about alone, showed decisively that the deaf-blind do not possess the "obstacle sense," and are incapable of learning it. The "obstacle sense," possessed by many blind persons, is dependent on auditory stimulation.
How can a visit with a hard-of-hearing, partially sighted person be successful? The author suggests that the deaf-blind should wear a suitable hearing aid if it is helpful and that the visitor should speak clearly and always maintain a friendly attitude. If the manual alphabet is known, and is agreeable to both, that is another good way to communicate.

Miss Alcorn traces the development of her Tadoma method of speech instruction. With deaf-blind Oma Simpson she combined speech with the manual alphabet. At the end of nine months, Oma had a 200-word vocabulary. Later, with Tad Chapman, Miss Alcorn replaced the manual alphabet with a set of sandpaper letters. By placing his hands on the speaker’s face, Tad learned to converse.

Deaf-blind Tad Chapman gave an exhibition of his ability to speak and to understand the speech of his teacher. Miss Sophia Alcorn explains how she taught him to speak by means of voice vibration and sandpaper letters.

Deaf-blind children can be classified generally by (1) the degree of deafness and blindness; (2) age at the onset of the condition; (3) whether blindness or deafness came first; and (4) by whether the child is educable or noneducable. Mr. Allen outlines what is best for the educable child. He believes that learning to communicate comes first. Then the teacher can concentrate on the forming of good habits and manners.

This article contains information extracted from the 56th Annual Report of the Perkins Institute, concerning the first few months of instruction of Helen Keller by Anne Sullivan. An 1887 letter written by Helen Keller, very legible and showing familiar ease of pronoun usage, is reproduced. Correspondence from Miss Sullivan details her teaching plan and the progress made. She describes Helen Keller as having strong powers of imitation, retentive memory, insatiable curiosity, and quick perception of relations to things.

Thomas Stringer became deaf and blind when he was three years old. In April, 1891, he arrived at the Perkins School for the Blind. Mr. Anagnos details the boy’s progress. The most salient features are his growing independence with less reliance on his teacher, his methodical study habits and excellent memory, and his strong interest in physiology.

Mrs. Anrep-Nordin, director of a deaf-blind school in Sweden, classifies the speech of the deaf-blind she met in the United States as “not distinct.” However, she was completely astonished at Helen Keller accomplishments.

The writer describes tests used to try to ascertain whether or not blindness is compensated by the other senses or whether it causes a generalized depression of the other senses. A study reveals that a certain percent of visually handicapped children have one or more additional handicaps, among them acoustic problems.

Through correspondence with Dora Donald, teacher of deaf-blind Linnie Haguewood, Mr. Wade became devoted to alleviating the plight of the deaf-blind. He was tireless in these efforts to aid in the improvement of their lives.


Mrs. Balis, instructor in the Ontario School, Belleville, Canada, relates a series of anecdotes about deaf-blind students she has taught. Additionally, she touches on the education of the feeble-minded with impaired sight and vision.


When he was eighteen years old, Tad Chapman was taught Latin by the author. This article is based on Mr. Barbour's monthly school reports on Tad's progress from September through December, 1933.


As the result of Helen Keller's life history appearing in a popular magazine, a multitude of instructional methods and advice erupted, some from very unlikely sources. Mrs. Barrett, Principal of the Texas School for Imbeciles and Defectives, shares her practical knowledge, having trained six deaf-blind children herself. Her advice is clearly stated in definitive steps and relates to both the congenital and adventitiously afflicted. This is an informative article, written by an experienced teacher.


Mrs. Barrett, a teacher of the deaf-blind at the Texas School for Imbeciles and Defectives, discusses the vast difference between those children born deaf-blind and those who lose their sight and hearing in early infancy. She also suggests that the home is the best place to develop senses and instincts of the deaf-blind who are eight years of age or younger.


Mrs. Barrett deplores the ignorance of those who consider the sense of smell to be a less aristocratic sense than those of touch or sight.


Mrs. Chapman, blinded and deafened at three years of age, was taught by Miss Reid of the New South Wales Blind Institute to use the manual alphabet, to read braille, to do handwork, and to lead a happy out-going life. She was happily married to a deaf-blind man. She was a friend and admirer of Helen Keller.


The author, Coordinator of Speech and Hearing Projects at the Industrial Home for the Blind, reports on the special requirements of the hard-of-hearing blind. Particularly, the psychological, social, and vocational needs of these clients are enumerated. He emphasizes auditory rehabilitation as the means of gaining full use of residual hearing.


The author, Superintendent of the Washington State School for the Blind, urges the earliest practical school enrollment of the deaf-blind children. Family counseling must be available to help the deaf-blind child fit into his family situation. All family members should help in his early training. As deafness is the major handicap, vibration speech training should begin as soon as the child is adjusted to his teacher.


The author describes in detail the early achievements of Robert J. Smithdas, who was born in 1925 and who became totally blind and partially deaf from spinal meningitis when he was six years old. When he was eleven, he became totally deaf. He graduated cum laude from St. John's University.


The author describes the Anne Sullivan Macy Service for Deaf-Blind Persons and the Industrial
Hop, for the Blind, Brooklyn, which make the following services available for the deaf-blind: evaluation of condition and health, communication training, rehabilitation, and, if possible, vocational placement.

Blankenhorn, M. D. “Miracle for Angeliki,” The Volta Review, Vol. 53, 1951, 157, 178. This article was written to raise funds for Angeliki, a twelve-year-old deaf Greek war-orphan, brought to this country. The kind of help that was given to Angeliki was not made clear.

Blaxall, Arthur. “Helen Keller,” New Beacon, Vol. 52, 1968, 177–178. After accompanying Helen Keller and Polly Thompson on a tour of deaf and blind centers in Africa, Dr. Blaxall had three outstanding memories of Miss Keller: her appreciation of what came to her through her three remaining senses, her tremendous self-discipline, and her limitless interest and concern. After giving examples of these outstanding traits, Dr. Blaxall concludes with recognition of Anne Sullivan Macy’s contribution to the development of the “real Helen Keller.”

Bolton, Thaddeus L. “The Psychology of the Deaf-Blind,” American Annals of the Deaf, Vol. 60, 1915, 222–227. Dr. Bolton, Professor of Psychology at the University of Montana, wrote that Helen Keller was “not so badly off as one would suppose.” He maintained that her brain was well-grown and the outlines of intelligence formed before her affliction. His theory that information from the eyes and the ears must be translated into terms of touch and muscle sense to have meaning led him to believe that the center of all knowledge resided in the skin and muscles. Thus, Miss Keller was not so remarkable.


Booth, Frank W., ed. “Report of the School-Home for Blind Deaf at Wenersburg, Sweden,” The Association Review, Vol. 6, No. 2, April, 1904, 170–172. This is an abstract of the 1902-03 school-year report from the director, Elizabeth Anrep-Nordin. A typical school day and types of instruction are described.

Pertinent facts from a February, 1901, report from Elizabeth Anrep-Nordin, head of the Queen Sophia Institute for Blind Deaf-Mutes in Sweden, gives the history of the school (founded in 1886) and reviews the progress of the school's students.


With the help of loving, intelligent training, Carol, a little deaf-blind girl, learns as a normal child learns. Her mother's rules for herself are: maintaining an objective attitude; and when Carol starts on a lesson, *always see it through!* She stresses the development of Carol's capacities, the formation of good habits, and independence.


Mrs. Bowman writes about Carol's difficulties in walking and of her hopes for partial sight in one eye and perhaps residual hearing. Both parents are encouraged by the little girl's development and the fact that she appears to be a happy normal child emotionally.


The writer tells about a man who was born deaf and then blinded in his teens. Because of his training in a school for the deaf, he was a good pupil and learned to read by means of "Moon." He became an avid reader!

Though writing primarily of the blind, Miss Bradfield tells of two experiences with deaf-blind ladies whose efforts to learn braille were futile, but they were full of humor for both teacher and pupils.


A deaf-blind man makes suggestions regarding the treatment of the deaf-blind in schools for the blind. He feels that they should be given opportunities to learn a trade. He discusses problems of care when the multihandicapped are not "employable." Special schools, home teachers, and welfare workers are needed.


This article describes the programs offered and the methods used at the Virginia School for the Deaf and Blind at Staunton, Virginia. Deaf-blind students are not specifically mentioned.


The writer suggests that we consider the complete isolation of the deaf-blind and think how we can help them. He then gives practical suggestions for helping them gain some peace and contentment.


The author writes about a competent home teaching service for educable, employable deaf-blind persons which prepares them for vocational rehabilitation. The placement of these doubly handicapped persons is discussed, and the various vocations possible for them are listed.


The author, himself deaf, presents a moving portrait of Laura Bridgman and comments on her achievement to date. Most of the information seems to be from secondary sources.


The authors describe the progress in the United States of the Education of the deaf-blind and the special training of teachers for this difficult
work. Through a questionnaire sent to deafblind schools, information was obtained about different types of “communication” and about the evaluation and socialization of the children. The need for further research in the methods of evaluating the condition of each child is stressed. The authors also stress the fact that rehabilitation in each case requires the combined efforts of all persons concerned with the child.

Chamberlain, J. E. “Helen Keller as She Really Is,” American Annals of the Deaf, Vol. 44, 1899, 286–301. Helen Keller lived at the author’s home for one year prior to her Radcliffe College entrance examinations. Mr. Chamberlain recounts her background, history, and many anecdotes regarding her life. He tells of many occasions when his three-and-five-year-old children were enthralled with the numerous stories Miss Keller poured from a seemingly endless memory. Curiously, the author sums up her thinking on “sociological matters” as liberal, contrasted to Anne Sullivan’s conservative views.

Chambers, W., and R. Chambers, editors. “Anecdotes of the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind,” Chamber’s Miscellany, Vol. 3, No. 44, 1869-1870 1–24. Deaf-blind James Mitchell was born in Ardclach, Scotland, in 1795, the only handicapped of seven children. Next to smoking, his greatest pleasure was sitting in a darkened room, where sunlight from a small wall-crack was focused through a prism onto his defective eyes. (Dr. Howe’s account of the early education of Laura Bridgman is included.)

Chapman, W. C. “Carrying Out My Plans,” The Volta Review, Vol. 54, 1952, 382–394. In this article Mr. Chapman expresses his opinions on his favorite school studies. He also describes in detail his rabbit business and his plans to expand into chicken production.

Chapman, W. C. “My Visit to the Diamond Mine,” The Volta Review, Vol. 41, 1939, 395, 420. This article contains an account from Tad Chapman’s own typewritten copy which contained “no errors of diction and not one typing mistake.” Chapman recounts his experiences, especially the sensations he had from touching diamonds at the DeBeer’s Diamond Mine, Kimberly, South Africa.


Clarke, Edward. “A Deaf-Blind Writer at Work,” American Annals of the Deaf, Vol. 46, 1901, 327–329. Stanley Robinson, deaf at age nine with defective sight, became totally blind a year or two before he completed studies at the New York Institute for the Deaf. Mr. Clarke, a teacher at the Institute, describes the manner in which Robinson composed articles for publication.


Coates, R. M. “Profiles: Blind . . . Deaf . . . Dumb,” The New Yorker, Vol. 5, January 25, 1930, 24–26. Helen Keller, at age forty-nine, is profiled. Gray hair, stocky, lustrous blue eyes, she had been characterized as “hardboiled.” She was hurt by persons who have a pitying or patronizing attitude toward the deaf-blind. She fervently believed that the deaf-blind must be taught to rely on themselves as much as possible.


Among the many ideas expressed by Dr. Cohn, who is blind, is the belief in a unique sense possessed by the blind and the deaf-blind. He names this "sens de l'obstacle"—a sensitiveness for objects existing in one's immediate environment. Dr. Cohn reports that his "sense" is strongest for him in his upper arms, skull, and feet.

The author provides a lengthy and careful exploration of the senses of touch and smell. She states that the potential of touch is limited by individual mentality, training, and environment. Laura Bridgeham had tactile sensibility two to three times as great as ordinary people, while Helen Keller had reached the apex of tactile development. Truly, touch, along with our kinesthetic organs, gives us our firm idea of reality.

The author describes a personal friendship with a deaf-blind woman and the lack of strain in the relationship. She writes about walks, holidays, and inner fellowship shared with her friend and about the problems met and solved in this friendship.

This excerpt from the November, 1921, Ladies Home Journal glowingly details the feats of deaf-blind Willetta Huggins; i.e., able to tell colors by smell, understand speech by feeling the speaker's throat, and so forth, without much attention to medical or scientific opinions.

Professor Czily of Budapest University reviews deaf-blind communication systems, including those of Prince Obolensky, Hieronimus Lorm, and Pipetz, and explains his system of braille speech. It is based on the different arrangements of the cell points. The inner surfaces of the first and second joints of the left middle, ring, and little fingers are used. One has to imagine the braille cell turned sideways and resting on the indicated finger areas so that it becomes a parallel row of three points instead of the written perpendicular double row of three points. The speaker communicates by tapping on the receiver's fingers. Many illustrations are provided.

This is a report on the education and progress of Clarence Selby, blind and deaf at age eight, who was enrolled at Le Couteulx, St. Mary's Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf Mutes, Buffalo, New York. It is interesting to note that he conversed with hearing people, using an alphabet glove "after A. G. Bell's method of teaching a young deaf mute."

This is a detailed description of the training of a young deaf-blind woman in a series of machine operations which she learned quickly and intelligently, passing set standards for quality and quantity, and going on to more complicated machine work.

This is a brief article with photographs commemorating the presentation of the Anne Sullivan Gold Awards to eight outstanding deaf-blind people.

Robert Smithdas, a forty-year-old bachelor, was named Handicapped American of 1965 by the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped. Mr. Smithdas graduated, cum laude, from St. John's University and has a master's degree from New York University. At the time of the award, he was Associate Director of the Deaf-Blind Program, Industrial Home for the Blind, Brooklyn, New York.

This article records the educational achievements of eighteen-year-old Carmela Otero who became deaf-blind from an attack of spinal meningitis at the age of two-and-a-half years.

In this very brief article, written on the eve of World War I, Helen Keller's feeling for the United States as a great nation and her general dislike of war are expressed.


Mr. De Land composed this article from the notebooks of Sarah Fuller, Helen Keller's speech teacher. On hearing of Ragnhild Kaata's success in learning to communicate orally, Miss Keller was determined to accomplish the same thing. Miss Keller's initial lessons, and Miss Fuller's full teaching plans are presented in detail.


Among the many unmet needs of deaf-blind children is the need to be recognized as individuals. Other needs include counseling for their parents and, when the children are ready for it, complete evaluations of their handicaps so that they can be helped to reach their full potentials. In 1959 some advances were made in expansion of teacher preparation, legislation to finance evaluating services, out-of-state tuition, and so forth. But, because of the rubella epidemics of the 1960s, the number of deaf-blind children has greatly increased, and the unmet needs have become acute.


The author is of the opinion that the teacher of the deaf-blind must have a thorough background in the education of the deaf, using the oral method as "deafness is the major problem in the education of the deaf-blind." She goes on to describe the beginnings, scope, and ambitions of the National Study Committee on the Education of the Deaf-Blind.


In this lengthy report, Donaldson expands all of the previous post-mortem brain findings and adds new conclusions. Generally speaking, Laura's brain was smaller than normal, due to thin cortical areas which indicated lack of formation of cross-reference pathways between her destroyed senses. However, there was no great loss of cells in the defective sense areas; and it is possible that these remaining cells might have taken a rudimentary, subconscious part in cerebral activity. Many charts, diagrams, and statistics are provided.


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A study of Laura Bridgman's brain indicated that the disturbance in the visual area (due to the destruction of the peripheral receptors) acted to arrest development of the total cortex. Statistics are provided.


Cross-sections of Laura Bridgman's cranial nerves were compared with cross-sections of normal ones. It was observed that her olfactory bulbs and tracts were small, her optic nerves were poor in medullary substances and very small, and her third cranial nerves were normal in size. Comparison charts and measurements are provided.


The editor makes some interesting comments on some of the ideas that emerged at a conference on the deaf-blind held at Kalundborg, Denmark, in 1965. Degrees and causes of deaf-blindness are mentioned. Lack of communication, the greatest common difficulty, could have causes other than sensory deprivation.


The need for adequate diagnosis of the blind led to the 1959 Michigan Summer School Study Program. The purpose of the program was to assemble a team of medical, educational, and psychology experts to make diagnostic and evaluative studies of the multihandicapped blind children of Michigan. Fifteen children were accepted for study. The general findings and recommendations are given.


The writer suggests that a real need exists for an instructed body of volunteers to assist persons who are blind and/or deaf. The author describes various aids to communication: lip reading, mechanical and electrical hearing aids, and the manual alphabet as means of “talking” and breaking through the isolation.


The author reports on an eight-week course in deaf-blind education held in St. Michielgestet, Holland.


The author recapitulates the education of several deaf-blind individuals including Laura Bridgman, Thomas Tringer, and Helen Keller, and includes photographs. She concludes that life should not be considered “vain” for the deaf-blind.


Dr. Francis Lieber, a famous lecturer, was born in Berlin in 1800. After a three-month study of Laura Bridgman, he prepared two famous lecture-papers in which he compared her characteristics with those of uncivilized races and her vocal sounds with the basic elements of phonetic language. The papers are quite dated.


Mr. Farrell, Director of the Perkins School for the Blind, describes his teacher-training program for the deaf-blind. The applying school district would send a selected trainee to Perkins for three-months' instruction. In turn, Perkins would provide a well-trained teacher as a replacement for the three-month period.


With public interest in the deaf-blind much stimulated by the motion picture, The Miracle Worker, Mr. Farrell fans that interest by his moving account of the life of Annie Sullivan and the “miracle” release and awakening of Helen Keller's intelligence. He also goes back to the first attempts at teaching the deaf-blind and describes the gradual change from the use of the manual alphabet to the teaching of speech through vibrations.


Mrs. Fauth presents a review of the proceedings and briefly discusses the education of deaf-blind children and adults and the methods used by their teachers from 1851 to 1927. The establishment of special schools for the deaf-blind was suggested as a better solution than putting these doubly-handicapped children in schools for the blind or schools for the deaf.


Fay, Edward. “Helen Keller,” American Annals of the Deaf, Vol. 34, 1891, 162–164. The account of the initial visit between Helen Keller and Dr. Job Williams, Principal of the American Asylum, as it appeared in the February 20, 1891, issue of The Hartford Current, is reprinted. Dr. Williams records his impressions of Helen Keller and enumerates her accomplishments.

Fay, Edward. “Miscellaneous Section,” American Annals of the Deaf, Vol. 38, 1893, 238–240. Dr. Fay rebuts an editorial which appeared in the newspaper Palmetto Leaf, in April 29, 1893, in which the veracity of the speaking ability and lip-reading method of Helen Keller was seriously challenged. He conceded that if Miss Keller had any serious speech defect, it was her noble and elevated style, resembling the prose and verse of fine books.


Fearon, James. “Charlie Crane: A Deaf-Blind Boy,” The Volta Review, Vol. 19, 1917, 83–86. Charles Allen Crane was born on April 10, 1906. Nine months later, after an attack of spinal meningitis, he lost his sight and hearing. When he was ten years old, he entered the School for the Deaf at Halifax, Nova Scotia, where he was instructed by the natural method; i.e., conversation was spelled into his hand just as if one were speaking to a hearing child. After six months, Charlie had acquired a 2,000 word vocabulary and a “pleasant voice.” The author concludes by providing examples of Charlie’s writing.


Ferreri, Giulio. “The Possibility of the Education of the Blind-Deaf,” The Association Review, Vol. 9, 1907, 363–369. Professor Ferreri writes that any deaf-blind child is educable if you presuppose intelligence. He believes that we all have powerful latent powers of touch which we don’t use because we don’t need to use them. Therefore, the deaf-blind child must touch everything accessible to the normal child. Next, the deaf-blind child has to be helped to distinguish the sign for a concrete object from the object itself.

Ferreri, Giulio. “Principles for the Instruction of the Blind-Deaf as Given in the Work of the Abbé Deschamps,” The Volta Review, Vol. 15, 1913, 35–37. Mr. Ferreri, Director of the National Institution for the Deaf in Milan, Italy, felt that the work of Abbé Deschamps had never received its deserved
historical acclaim. The Abbé de l'Épée worked with the deaf-blind; however, in 1879 he suggested the use of raised letters for deaf-blind reading instruction and writing letters in the palm as a means of communicating with deaf-blind people.

Miss Fish provides a short history of Dr. Howe and Laura Bridgman. She notes that “articulation” is the new first step in the education of the deaf-blind, replacing the old practice of teaching the manual alphabet and the use of embossed letters.

First, the author reviews the successes of James H. Caton, Stanley Robinson, Richard S. Clinton, and Martha E. Morehouse. Next, he describes four adventitiously deaf-blind pupils who were then undergoing instruction: Katie McGirr, Catherine Pederson, Ella Hopkins, and Orris Benson. Mr. Fox feels that “several” deaf-blind pupils can be instructed by one or two teachers using flexible scheduling. For example, while Orris Benson was receiving speech lessons, Miss Barrager, a deaf teacher, was reading into the hands of Ella and Katie. Katie, in turn, repeated into Catherine’s hands. Mr. Fox stated that the essential element here is “that the teacher is competent and has her heart in her work.”

At the age of five, Kathryne Frick lost her hearing and sight and, gradually, her ability to speak. In the first article, “In the Dark, Alone,” she describes the stimulating care and love she received from her parents who kept her as alert and active as possible. At school a deaf teacher, Miss Foley, was assigned to undertake Katherine’s education at the Institute for the Deaf in Philadelphia. The teaching methods and the ups and downs of training a quick, eager child are delightfully recounted in detail from the point of view of the child. In the second article, “Groping in the Dark,” the author continues the description of her education. She had failed constantly to respond to the manual alphabet spelled in her hand. However, one day, in the throes of hunger or a broken routine, she became extremely agitated because the morning buns had not arrived. Unable to make her teacher understand, she finger-spelled the word “bun.” That was the breakthrough, and her learning progressed rapidly. In the third article, “Light at Last,” Mary describes her return home, where she was given a stuffed rabbit as a gift. The rabbit quickly became a favorite treasure. While being interviewed by a newspaper reporter, her teacher spelled “cat” in reference to the stuffed toy. Mary became extremely agitated. Finally, she screamed the word “rabbit” clearly, her first word spoken since her illness. This experience increased her self-confidence and, with the help of a speech teacher, she rapidly regained near-normal speech.

Miss Frick proposes that the deaf-blind student be educated with a special teacher in attendance until language is obtained. Then the student should be transferred to a school for the blind where braille and special books are readily available.

Using the notebooks of her teacher, deaf-blind Miss Frick has gathered together some previously unpublished anecdotes which reflect her struggles with idiomatic English. She writes a particularly interesting piece showing how she learned the relationship between check, money, expenses, and so forth. A good first-person account of the workings of the deaf-blind intellect and an illustration of the steps in student understanding needed for a successful learning experience.

Sophia Augusta Hutson was born blind and deaf on August 1, 1856. She was five years old before her parents attributed her silence to deafness. At sixteen, she received her first language training.
The author was Sophia's teacher for ten months and taught her the manual alphabet and simple signs for objects in her immediate environment. Within a short time, Sophia had accumulated a useful vocabulary and communication skill.

Sarah Fuller was Helen Keller's speech teacher. In this article, she gives her teaching plan and delineates her methods. Also, letters from Helen Keller, reporting how she learned to speak and some of her conversations, are included.

This article is based on information which appeared in the *New York Herald Tribune*, on March 9, 1938, describing the unit for the deaf-blind in the newly opened New York Institute for the Education of the Blind. Among the interesting items was a "floating floor" which purportedly aided in the communication of vibrations to the 15 deaf-blind students enrolled.

This is a graduation essay delivered by deaf-blind Vera Gammon in signs at the commencement exercise held at the Minnesota School. Miss Gammon explained how she utilized the three doors—taste, smell, and touch—to gain knowledge.

The writer sketches the early life of Ronald Scriven, poet, playwright, and journalist. Mr. Scriven became deaf at the age of eight years; loss of sight had started when he was twenty-one. As poet and writer of scripts for radio, Mr. Scriven found his place. Mr. Gardner points out that though Scriven is deaf and blind, "...he is also an artist. As an artist he wants an audience, not sympathy."

The author, Director of the Cambridge School for Girls, Cambridge, Mass., details in length the 1896-1897 school year curriculum of Helen Keller. Part of the article is devoted to her achievement in the preliminary examinations for Radcliffe College.

A farm boy in Nebraska, Mr. Goddard became deaf and blind after contracting spinal meningitis. He tells of his early unhappiness and finally his attendance at a school where he learned braille and other ways of communicating. He changed from a sad, withdrawn boy into an outgoing, friendly person.

A deaf-blind, ten-year old girl, with "no formal training and very little informal training," was subjected to a reaction test during which a small china doll was unexpectedly dropped inside her dress. Her contortions, convulsions, and flailings, as she sought to free herself from the cold object, were photographed and are pictured in this article. Observations are discussed from the loci of natural behavior and socially accepted forms of behavior.

A successful coordination of required (statutory), community, and volunteer services for deaf-blind in Manchester, England, is explored in detail.

The author, assistant principal of deaf-blind children, Perkins, traces the history of the deaf-blind teacher training program. He also presents information abstracted from a study conducted by N. Robbins and G. Stenquist.

Mr. Hale begins by saying that the appendix to Anne Sullivan's *Life of Miss Keller* is an invaluable source of education methods for all educators. Did Miss Keller learn so rapidly and thoroughly because she had only three instead of five senses or because of the intensity of the impressions made on her? Pointing out that
what Miss Keller learned, she learned with a vengeance, Mrs. Hale describes her wonderful grasp of "ideas" and "ideals" and her appreciation of languages.

Laura Bridgman was tested psychologically, had all her writings analyzed, and had her dreams probed. Interestingly, she had only a few unspecific and naive sexual dreams, and it was Dr. Hall's observation that her sexual instinct had never fully materialized. This conclusion, as well as many others, are amplified in this article.

After four months with Anne Sullivan, Helen Keller could spell more than 450 words. In this article the author recounts the early education of Miss Keller. The article includes period pictures and several short letters of Helen Keller.

Perhaps the most unusual deaf-blind student among those described by Miss Hall was Dovie Mae Yocum, a girl who became deaf and blind at the age of eleven. When she was fifteen years old she entered Perkins, full of rebellion and with a large vocabulary of frequently used swear words. In many ways her adjustment was more difficult than was expected of a girl her age. In two months, however, she had calmed down and had started to use her fingers as sensors.

Miss Hall urges early home education of the deaf-blind and details the program at Perkins School. Demonstrations by several students are described.

Leonard Dowdy was born deaf and blind. At the time of this article he was eleven years old. He had been at Perkins for five years and was doing fourth grade work. A picture and a monologue about a flat tire are included.

To develop speech, the deaf-blind child must learn to feel the vibrations of his teacher's speech and also learn the correct movements of the mouth. In this article, Miss Hall describes the procedure used to teach the deaf-blind to speak. At the end of the article she presents the inclusive aims of teaching, not only in speech, but also in the development of abilities, habits, skills, and attitudes of the child.

Miss Hall writes that all deaf-blind children are individuals with varying degrees of disability, having much in common with children of normal perceptions. Teachers must be endlessly patient and free from all deceptions regarding the goals of the deaf-blind children. Routines must be started as soon as practical.

During a visit to South Africa, the author taught a deaf-blind boy, Radcliffe Dhodhlohu, the manual alphabet. She also taught him responses to spoken commands. The boy was blind but there was some question regarding the extent of his hearing loss.

The potentialities of deaf-blind persons must be cultivated early and they must be exposed to a variety of experiences. Miss Hall describes the teaching of the manual alphabet and the use of the oral method. She shows how the deaf-blind learn to call into service their tactual, olfactory, and taste senses. She emphasizes the importance of a broad educational foundation.

Miss Hall describes a school for non-European blind children near Cape Town, South Africa. She also provides a third-person account of the experiences of Tad Chapman's visit to Africa.

This article includes correspondence between the author and the mother of a four-year-old girl, who is deaf, has limited vision, and is possibly retarded. The author urges the mother to treat her daughter as a normal child. Additionally, Miss Hall offers a number of specific suggestions.


A paper written by G. Pipetz of Graz, Austria, (originally appearing in the March, 1908, issue of *Blatter für Taubstummenbildung*), is translated by Mr. Hansen. Pipetz elaborates on a deaf-blind communication system that he developed. The system consists of a series of touches and strokes applied to various parts of the students' fingers and hands in combinations representing letters.


Mr. Hansen translates and summarizes a report of Doctor Stern of Breslau. Dr. Stern comments on the intellectual mechanisms by which Helen Keller probably visualizes musical vibrations she received. He makes several statements regarding Miss Keller's psychic nature. The article is complex enough to account for the obscurity of the total analysis.


Mr. Hansen presents some memories of Ragnhild Kaata as recalled by her last surviving teacher, Petra Heiberg. Unfortunately, Miss Heiberg does not add any new information regarding the techniques employed by Elios Hofgaard in teaching the girl to speak.


This is a brief article about a graduate of the Minnesota School. Unfortunately, little information is provided regarding the methods employed in her education.


When she was six-and-a-half years old, Jackie Coker contracted meningitis. She recovered, but she had lost her sight, hearing, muscle coordination, and intelligible speech. She attended the Arizona School and, at the time of this article, was described as doing fourth grade work. Unfortunately, there is no mention of education methods employed.


The author, wrestling coach at Perkins School, relates the case study of deaf-blind Edward R., showing how the acquisition of an athletic skill made this deaf-blind individual more acceptable to his speaking classmates. Mr. Hayes blames Edward’s lack of physical endurance on the internal nervous energy expended by all deaf-blind persons in their daily existence.


This is the story of a deaf-blind child who was educated in a New Jersey public school which had a class for the blind. The processes of her education and her progress and development are described in detail.


The writer reviews the education of the deaf-blind and brings up the question often asked by the public: What will these people do with education? He points out that today (1952) the deaf-blind are taught to communicate, read, and earn their own livings. He describes the goals, evaluation, education, and training given to the deaf-blind at the Industrial Home for the Blind in Brooklyn, emphasizing methods of communication, incidence of blindness accompanied by auditory deficiency, programs designed to help these people, and rehabilitation.


*The Blind in School and Society*, by Thomas B. Cutsforth, is reviewed. Blind since he was eleven, Mr. Cutsforth points out that words have no reality for the blind and deaf-blind. He also points out that the public’s attitude toward the handicapped is the biggest problem.
This article includes a synopsis of a book written by Katheryn E. Maxfield entitled *The Development of Meaningful Language in Leonard Dowdy* (Watertown, Mass.: Perkins Institute, 1934, 16.) As a result of her work with Leonard Dowdy, Mrs. Maxfield concluded that five and six year old deaf-blind children can acquire a language sufficiently large to help them in their contact with seeing and hearing people. Also, the success of the oral method with Leonard definitely warrants further trial with other deaf-blind preschool children.

A warm tribute is paid Helen Keller in these pages. Her extraordinary career, her varied interests, her many contributions toward the welfare and education of the blind and the deaf-blind are all indications of a truly great mind.

The emphasis of this article is on Miss Sullivan's early years which, in Mrs. Henney's words, are divided neatly into three parts: her childhood as the daughter of an impoverished Irish emigrant couple; the years at Tewksbury, an almshouse, where conditions were unbelievable; and finally, the years at Perkins School for the Blind where Miss Sullivan graduated as valedictorian of her class.

Hirsch, B. "Germany’s Care for Those Who Cannot Hear or Speak or See," *New Outlook for the Blind,* Vol. 23, No. 2, 1929, 35–36, 41.
The writer describes Oberlin House at Nowawes in Germany. It has, among its many welfare works, a school for the deaf-blind. The general education and the training in some type of work for those who are able and employable are discussed, as well as the need for more such schools.

Mr. Hitz quotes renowned researchers and educators concerned with the deaf-blind. Pictures, letters of Anne Sullivan, and Helen Keller's first written composition are included. Synopses of A. G. Bell's theories ("read to learn language") and Dr. Dewey's writings (imaginative disassociation process) are provided.

Helen Schultz, who became blind and deaf at the age of seven, was taught and trained by Lydia Hayes, the then-head of the New Jersey State Commission for the Blind. Helen became an excellent housekeeper and cook and looked after the clothes of the members of the family. She was independent and reliable.

Helen May Martin was not only able to overcome her handicaps of blindness and deafness, but she also mastered the piano. Eventually, she gave many public concerts.

Commenting on efforts by the regional association to help deaf-blind persons, the writer of this section speaks of "Guild Help" which provides outings once or twice a week for the deaf-blind in the area. He commends highly the "rainbow" flats which were built specially for deaf-blind persons.

In this most complete and clear article, Dr. Howe presents the full medical history and family background of Laura Bridgman. The process and steps by which Laura learned language during the period October, 1837, through 1839 are comprehensively presented. In 1839, at age ten, Laura was described as having attained the language level of a three-year-old.

Dr. Howe reviews his 20 years with Laura Bridgman, enumerating her accomplishments and detailing her character development. He regrets openly not having made an attempt to teach her to speak. Dr. Howe writes mellifluously of the personal interaction between Oliver Caswell and Laura Bridgman, carefully illustrat-
ing the differences in their temperaments and intellects. An interesting article, it reminds the reader that, despite similar severe handicaps, the individuality of the human spirit is still preserved.


When Mrs. Dorothy Bowman was informed that her congenitally deaf-blind daughter, Carol, who was also a victim of spastic paralysis and poor balance, was uneducable, she determined to learn everything possible about the handicapped. After years of education and training and continual teaching of her own child, Mrs. Bowman now helps 64 handicapped children in the Ontario, Canada, area. Carol, at eight years of age, is able to speak a few words and to walk around a room under her own power.


Mr. James conjectures that both Helen Keller and Laura Bridgman were originally meant to be more tactile and motile than the average. He surmises that the relationship between objects, no matter how perceived, is the primary interest of the intellect. He includes some interesting writing by Laura Bridgman.


Dr. Jastrow, reviewing Miss Keller’s The Story of My Life, finds it quite fascinating how the interpretation of sensations, mixed with experiences and conditioned by natural endowment, combined to form her mental images. He also pays glowing tribute to Anne Sullivan’s freedom from “narrow pedagogy.”


Preliminary results of tests conducted by Dr. Jastrow are discussed. Helen Keller, with all her amazing faculties, had poorly developed motor control. However, this condition was offset by an alert, receptive mind and a memory definitively above normal.


Dr. Jastrow provides background and pictures of Laura Bridgman. He concentrates on her peculiarities of language (e.g., why doesn’t t-a-c spell “cat” as well as c-a-t?).
Mr. Jones makes several interesting generalizations based on the education of Leslie Oren. One generalization is that a successful teacher of hearing children will have no difficulty in teaching the deaf-blind; after she has learned the manual alphabet, which only takes a few hours. Teacher training helps, but perseverance is the only essential characteristic in a teacher of the deaf-blind.


Persons attending the Historic Conference on Communications for the Deaf-Blind, which was held at the Industrial Home for Blind on July 15, 1957, grappled with the magnitude of all phases of deaf-blind communication. The participants resolved that a universal deaf-blind alphabet should be based on firm index finger block-printing, each letter superimposed over the other in the palm of the receiver. Further study of the combined Lorm-British methods was also recommended, and its immediate use was suggested for the newly deaf-blind. More research into learning and/or maintaining speech was urged.


Miss Keller had dreams like hearing and seeing people. She dreamed of climbing or falling and that she was awake and had overslept, and she had concentric dreams within dreams. From what she can recall, she dreamed touchingly (i.e., she felt her clothes on fire, or felt the coldness as she fell in a tub of cold water, or was overpowered with the smell of bananas). From early childhood Miss Keller had a recurring dream in which a spirit seemed to pass before her face like the intense heat blasting from an engine. She called this the “embodiment of evil.”


Helen Keller describes various environmental situations in which her sense of smell provided her with necessary information to complete a mental picture.


In a letter to Annette Dinsmore, deaf-blind Richard Kinney describes, with humor and sparkle, his work at the Hadley Correspondence School. During the day he teaches by mail in braille, and he does Hadley public relations work (television, radio, and lectures) in his spare time. He recommends highly the Tellatouch method as a help in immediate communication. Mr. Kinney describes his home life in an apartment in detail, from taking out the garbage to using the telephone. He tells how his special doorbell announces visitors.


When making a friend of your deaf-blind client, you are handicapped because you can’t be seen or heard. What can you do? You can choose a special name sign, learn one of the manual alphabets, or learn Tellatouch. You must let your hands be expressive. Touch him, and don’t be afraid to express approval or disapproval as often as necessary. When you are in a group of people, include him; let him know you know he is still there. And keep him posted on the activities and conversation of the group around him.


The author, who is the mother of three normal children, records her impressions of deaf-blind students learning to speak at the Iowa School for the Deaf.


Ragnhild Kaata became deaf and blind at age three. She was educated at an oral school for the deaf at Hamar, Norway, and was surrounded constantly by nonsigning, oral deaf students. She had a “natural voice and perfect articulation.” She communicated with her teacher by placing her hands on his lips and throat, but other people wrote words in her palm and she repeated them. Unfortunately, the author does not elaborate on the method of instruction used.


Mr. Lange presents summary translations of scholarly articles and publications appearing in Germany at the beginning of the twentieth
century. The articles debated the reported abilities of Helen Keller. This article provides an historical record or compendium of the upheavals caused in psychological theory by Miss Keller's achievements.


The writer describes a visit to the Institution de Larnay in France. He is greatly impressed by some of the achievements of the students, notably with deaf-blind Marthe Heurtet and Bernard Ruez. The methods used in teaching these two children are given in detail.


Begrudging help to the deaf-blind, treating them as not quite human, and misleading them are wrong. The deaf-blind must be able to trust, to share family troubles and happiness, and to feel included.


A blind and deaf woman discusses the relationship of the deaf-blind to the rest of the world. She asks whether taking care of a deaf-blind friend or relative is an ordeal and sacrifice which should be expected of anyone. She points out that sighted-hearing people as well as deaf-blind persons can be "ordeals." There is nervous strain and compensation on both sides.


The subjects of the four sections of this article are:

1. The isolation of the deaf-blind, in which the writer describes the loneliness, pent-up thoughts and feelings, and the sense of helplessness of the deaf-blind.
2. Some ways of helping, in which the writer suggests the many things that friends and teachers can do.
3. Depression and suspicion, in which the writer discusses the dangers of the above and their effects on the physical health of the deaf-blind.

4. The hunger for beauty, in which the writer suggests that the impressions and conceptions of "beauty" are interpreted through the senses of smell and touch.


Dr. Love, Aural Surgeon, Glasgow Royal Infirmary, and Aurist, Glasgow Institution for the Deaf, compares Laura Bridgman and Helen Keller. Two salient points emerge: (1) both heard and saw for the first two years of life and this most certainly influenced later thought processes; and (2) one cannot validly postulate the intelligence difference between the two girls as resulting from language center development.


This is a report of the activities at Tate House, which is a home for the deaf-blind conducted by the National Institute for the Blind. The writer tells about the training and treatment of new residents. Communication as well as learning various handicrafts are emphasized. The writer feels that the secret of happiness for the deaf-blind is an occupation.


The keynote to success in teaching handicrafts to the deaf-blind is patience. Each one needs individual attention. The writer describes steps in teaching basket making, hand loom weaving, and machine knitting. He feels that the secret of happiness for handicapped people is an occupation.


In dedicating the Helen Keller Building for the Education of the Deaf-Blind at the California School for the Blind, Dr. Lowenfeld reviewed the progress of the deaf-blind department. The head of the deaf-blind department, Miss Inis B. Hall, feels that orality is the only way a deaf-blind person can establish personal contact with people.

At the date of writing, the Ministry of Health in Great Britain held the belief that services for the deaf-blind should be offered by agencies for the blind and agencies for the deaf, with the emphasis on blind welfare. However, in many cases of deafness with blindness, Volunteer Welfare Societies for the Adult Deaf can be of help and can supplement what is offered by welfare workers for the blind. The writer gives concrete examples of types of help given and suggests other assistance needed. Tables showing numbers of deaf-blind persons with speech and without speech are presented.


John Macy relates Helen Keller's ordeals with the Radcliffe exams ("...ingenious devices for the confusion of those who seek after knowledge").


Mr. Macy recounts Miss Keller's toil in preparing manuscripts for publication. Anne Sullivan Macy liked Robert Louis Stevenson and communicated all his writings to Miss Keller. Also, Helen Keller constantly read the Bible. These were the two greatest influences on her writing style.


The writer reports investigations of the Connecticut State Board of Education of the Blind-with-Hearing Defects. The author, a home teacher, summarizes the first year and a half of the deaf-blind project. She writes with sympathetic understanding of those so handicapped and presents practical suggestions to teachers of the handicapped.


Earl Martin lost his sight and most of his usable hearing at age five. He writes a very poignant story of a lonely man who tries to adapt to the normal world by limiting his sphere of activities. As he states: "It's not easy to find people who will bother with a deaf-blind person. So much patience is required!"


Dr. McCarthy presents an analysis of the speech of an uneducated, ten-year old girl who was born deaf-blind. He describes her voice as pleasing. She uses monosyllables, reduplicated monosyllables, and disyllables, repeated in rhythmical series. She utters no disagreeable sounds.

Merrick, W. P. "Harald Thilander," New Beacon, Vol. 6, 1922, 15–16; and Vol. 10, 1926, 5–7. Harald Thilander was born in 1877. His loss of sight and hearing at the age of seven was followed by years of illness. In his middle teens he acquired a keen desire for knowledge. He became an excellent student, learned braille, and espoused Esperanto as a universal language for the blind. His service as editor of the Swedish Weekly Braille Magazine was a contribution and source of encouragement to many.


Dr. Merry points out the tragedy of a deaf-blind child in either a school for the deaf or the blind, who is left to his own devices. The author presents a case study of a twelve-year old deaf-blind boy. He concludes that the superior method or approach is an individual one and that the handicap of deafness is probably responsible for the greater part of deaf-blind retardation.


The author readily admits the extreme difficulty in estimating the intelligence of deaf-blind people with adapted psychological tests. However, he does feel that the quality of the response is important and can provide insight into how the particular subject solves problems, reasons, and so forth.

Mescheriakov, A. I. "The Main Principles of the System for Education and Training of the Blind and Deaf and Dumb," The International Journal
The author is director of the laboratory of the Deaf-Blind Institute of Defectology, USSR. Mr. Mescheriakov's opinion is that "oral speech must crown a multiform system of verbal speech." Soviet education seeks to provide this multiform base first. The diverseness of human mentality and conduct is not spontaneous nor inborn, but develops as a result of intercourse with other people. Deaf-blind teaching in the USSR is broken down into two phases: (1) initial humanizing, which permits images of objects to be accumulated and habits of conduct to be created; (2) the phase in which the grammatical structure of verbal speech is learned.

Quoted is a report appearing in Governor John Winthrop's History of New England (Savage, Vol. II, p. 235) dated September 3, 1637, expressing amazement that an old deaf-blind woman residing in Ipswich, Mass., could assimilate information communicated by her son by finger-writing in her palm. Contrarily, it was the editor's opinion that the only remarkable thing was the fact that this obvious adventitious loss occurred so late in life.

Mitchell, Paul C. "The Education of Jack Boyer," The International Journal for the Education of the Blind, Vol. 8, No. 1, October, 1958, 11-17. Blind at birth, and deaf at age six, at first Jack Boyer resisted the efforts of his teachers to help him at the New York Institute for the Education of the Blind. After 18 months, Jack began to show signs of intelligence and responsiveness and finally became an excellent student. He graduated from high school and went on to college. The writer believes that without words, we cannot think. A deaf-blind child is taught first by the manipulation of nouns associated with vibration symbols or by the manual alphabet. As soon as contact with the child's mind is made, if he is of average intelligence, the progress is quick and gratifying to both pupil and teacher.


Montague, Harriet A. "Tad Chapman at Home," The Volta Review, Vol. 54, 1952, 86-88. Miss Montague visited Tad Chapman, now thirty-five years old and residing in San Gabriel, California, with his parents, Dr. and Mrs. Chapman. Chapman raised rabbits for meat, doing all the work himself, except for marketing the product. His speech is slow, but very
distinct. His room contains a braille dictionary and a Bible; he prefers facts to fiction.

The author, a teacher of the deaf-blind in the Mississippi Institution, relates her experience with Maud Rainey Scott, who was born deaf and who lost her sight soon afterwards. In two years (at age seven years) the child had learned to walk, feed herself, and exercise self-control.

Mr. Murray presents photographs and explanations of the education of deaf-blind children at Perkins School for the Blind.

The education of Helen Siefert, deaf-blind from infancy, is summarized. At the time of the article she is eighteen years old.

Dr. Myklebust provides tables, charts, and discussions of children who suffer from deafness plus other of his six categorized handicaps. He writes from the deaf-oriented point of view and gives little specific attention to the deaf-blind.

The author briefly mentions Tad Chapman and Leonard Dowdy, Perkins students, using a Phipps unit, a bone conduction device held in the teeth to pick up sound waves. She writes of Helen May Martin of Olathe, Kansas, born deaf and blind, "who plays piano brilliantly." Miss Martin "heard" the pianist Paderewski by holding an empty syrup can in her lap, her fingers catching the vibrations from the hollow tin.

Tellatouch, which was developed by the American Foundation for the Blind, is portable, light weight, and resembles a small typewriter. It contains an alphabet keyboard, the sender, a single braille cell, and the receiver. The sender touches the alphabet keys and Tellatouch translates it into braille. The deaf-blind person receives the message by placing his finger on the braille cell. Tellatouch has created immediate interest among the general public and has helped to advertise the fact that communication is possible with the deaf-blind.

This is a recapitulation of the Perkins School reports of 1840, 1841, and 1842, which present Dr. Howe's interpretation of Laura Bridgman and her education progress. Mr. Noyes notes that it was in 1844, after Miss Bridgman had been instructed in "revealed religion," that Dr. Howe, who was associated with Horace Mann, worked for the betterment of the deaf.

Patricia was deaf-blind from birth and was not wanted by her parents. She was able only to lie on a large bed on her back and be fed from a bottle. She responded quickly to the love, training, and teaching she received at the Boston Nursery for Blind Babies. Her progress and welfare were of great concern and interest to Helen Keller and Anne Sullivan Macy and to the Field Director of the American Foundation for the Blind.

The writer tells that because she had courage and determination her double handicap did not put a stop to her normal activities. She was able to run her house, do her shopping, and so forth, and keep up her friendships.

At the time of this writing, Mr. Patton was a Supervisor in the Casework Department of the
New Hampshire Association for the Blind. As an illustration of state services provided, he presents a case study of a “sixty-year old, partially sighted, permanently deaf” client.

“Personalities in the World of the Blind, Miss Helen Keller,” New Beacon, Vol. 12, 1928, 7–10. This article includes a description of the life and education of Miss Keller, her many accomplishments, and the wide range of her interests. Much credit is given to Mrs. Anne Sullivan Macy, teacher, and Miss Polly Thompson, companion, of Miss Keller.

Pitrois, Yvonne. “The Heurtin Family,” The Volta Review, Vol. 13, 1911, 733–749. Yvonne Pitrois, who is deaf, traces the history of the Heurtin family. Stanislas Heurtin, who suffered from “a disease of the spinal marrow” and an eye disorder called hemeralopia, married his second cousin, Josephine Marie. Among their nine offspring were three deaf-blind children: Marie, born April 13, 1885; Stanislaus, born December 21, 1896; and Marthe, born July 23, 1902. Miss Pitrois describes their education at nearby convent schools and their interactions with each other.

Pitrois, Yvonne. “The Sunbeam of the Deaf-Blind,” The Volta Review, Vol. 32, 1930, 181–184. Yvonne Pitrois, deaf, tells about her free magazine, The Sunbeam of the Deaf-Blind, which is produced in braille and is devoted entirely to the deaf-blind. She discusses and provides samples of correspondence she has received from deaf-blind readers.

Porter, Samuel. “Particulars Respecting James Mitchell, A Person Deaf, Dumb and Blind from Birth,” Supplement to the American Annals of the Deaf and Dumb, Vol. 1, No. 4, July, 1848, 246–258. This is a synoptic collection of period reports describing the activities of James Mitchell, born deaf-blind in nineteenth century, Scotland. Although Mitchell lacked any formal education, he seemed to possess a developed intellect and an insatiable curiosity. However, he did object strongly to doing any assigned work and rarely finished any task. He much preferred to spend his time on his greatest passion: clothes.

Praise, Robert J. “Selective Placement of Two Deaf-Blind Persons in the New York Metropolitan Area,” New Outlook for the Blind, Vol. 62, 1968, 38–43. The author, an employment placement specialist for the Industrial Home for the Blind, details the procedure used to successfully integrate two deaf-blind persons into job situations. The key was the continued support of Industrial Home for the Blind personnel after the deaf-blind persons were hired. The staff helped to orient the worker to his new job, provided necessary mobility instruction, reviewed the route traveled to work, and so forth. The deaf-blind employee was not just dumped into the lap of the employer. Instead, a rehabilitation worker remained until the new employee fit smoothly into the total work scene.


Rice, Delia. “The Importance of Teaching the Blind-Deaf to Work,” American Annals of the Deaf, Vol. 50, 1905, 392–396. Miss Rice feels that while academic subjects may have limited intrinsic value in later life for the deaf-blind, they are the steps toward the goal of student happiness. She strongly urges teachers to build and strengthen ambition in their students and derides the prevalent “... erroneous theory that continual entertainment must be provided...”

Riemann, G. “The Care of Blind-Deaf Children,” The Volta Review, Vol. 12, 1910, 766–771. Tobias Brill translates the original writings of Gustav Riemann, Principal of the Albertin Home-School for the Blind-Deaf in Nowawes, Prussia, circa 1905. One of Mr. Riemann’s opinions is that the touch-reading (the practice of the deaf-blind touching the lips of a speaker),
by its very nature, could never constitute a ready means of communication between the deaf-blind and the nonhandicapped. He contends that there is a very real problem of hygiene, especially when any of the persons involved may have a contagious disease or illness.


Robinson, Stanley. “The Education of the Deaf-Blind at the New York Institution,” American Annals of the Deaf, Vol. 45, 1900, 376–383. This is an article of historical interest, written by a deaf-blind man, which includes a description of the schooling of three deaf-blind boys at the New York Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb. The author, who also attended the school, writes of his assistance with the early training of deaf-blind James H. Caton in approximately 1877. Robinson concludes with writing a plea “for Mr. Edison, the wizard,” to invent an artificial hand capable of spelling the contents of a book into the hand of a deaf-blind person.

Rocheleau, Corinne. “The Deaf-Blind,” The Volta Review, Vol. 32, 1930, 518–524. Miss Rocheleau lists the obstacles she encountered in her attempt to compile a record of the deaf-blind in the United States and Canada. As far as the deaf-blind were concerned, she felt that the intelligence quotient was utterly unreliable as it was impossible to systematize anything for them due to the variability in the nature and degree of their handicaps.

Rocheleau, Corinne. “The Deaf-Blind in America,” New Outlook for the Blind, Vol. 22, No. 2, 1928, 14–19. The writer describes the growing interest in the deaf-blind, what has been done about and for them in Europe and Canada, and what, with growing awareness of the problems, the United States is beginning to do. The writer emphasizes that the deaf-blind should be in schools of their own and that attention must be given to the variations in the degree of deafness and blindness in children. The goal of education must be to provide that which is best for each child, that which will give him contact with the outside world.

Root, R. K., and B. G. Riley. “Study of Deaf-Blind Children—A Developmental Plan,” New Outlook for the Blind, Vol. 54, 1960, 206–210. The results of a four-day program of testing and observation of 16 deaf-blind children are presented in this article. The study, conducted by the Center for Development of Blind Children, Syracuse University, emphasized the need for a professional person in each community to assist with the continual training of deaf-blind preschoolers.

Rusalem, Herbert. “Deaf-Blind Persons: An Epic Study,” Rehabilitation Record, Vol. 1, No. 6, November-December, 1960, 26–30. Dr. Rusalem recapitulates the results contained in the seven-volume report of a research study conducted by the Industrial Home for the Blind, Brooklyn. He urges attention to the following deaf-blind problem areas: emotional development and resultant problems, distortion of perceptions, speech and language limitations, attitudes of the nonhandicapped community, paucity of community resources, and enforced isolation of the deaf-blind.

Rusalem, Herbert. “The Diffusion Effect of an Orientation Program on Deaf-Blindness,” New Outlook for the Blind, Vol. 58, 1964, 44–46. Public attitude is a major barrier in deaf-blind rehabilitation. Dr. Rusalem designed seven instructional programs that provided information about the deaf-blind. He instructed 14 female employees of the Industrial Home for the Blind and hoped that they, in turn, would inform others of what they had learned in the programs. Four months later, reports indicated that the 14 women had discussed the problems of the deaf-blind with a total of 243 individuals. The results, while tenuous, were considered promising.

Rusalem, H. “Homemaking Without Vision or Hearing,” Journal of Home Economics, Vol. 51, No. 10, December, 1959, 861–863. Dr. Rusalem describes the homemaking lessons and activities of a group of nine congenitally deaf women, who range in age from twenty-
eight to sixty-four years and who have different degrees of vision loss. The author concludes that the homemaking success of these deaf-blind women is due to "the personality integration of the individual." He recommends the inclusion of a homemaking specialist on deaf-blind rehabilitation teams.

Dr. Rusalem used three questionnaires to survey 132 freshman students at Long Island University. The questionnaires showed that (1) contact between deaf-blind people and nonhandicapped members of the community improves community attitude toward the deaf-blind; (2) spontaneous contacts between the deaf-blind and the public are unlikely to occur; and (3) structured activities must be planned to bring deaf-blind persons into the society of the community.

Dr. Rusalem presents developmental plans for the Anne Sullivan Macy Deaf-Blind Demonstration and Research Project. The idea of the project, which is organized on a regional basis from Maine to North Carolina, is to "narrow the service gap" between deaf-blind people and rehabilitation services.

The authors designed an experiment in which five blind persons were taught to palm print and then were socially exposed to deaf-blind people. Measured results after six weeks showed no significant change in attitude of the blind participants. Any favorable experiences were short-lived.

The authors theorized that acceptance of persons in certain disability groups depended on the frequency of public contact. As an experiment, a gifted deaf-blind speaker described his efforts to cope with his handicap to an audience of 1,200 middle-class high school students. Comparison of student questionnaires completed before and after the speech showed little evidence of attitudinal change. However, student interest and desire to know more about handicapped people were increased. Implication: public exposure of a handicapped person successfully coping with his limitations could definitely lead to acceptance of the disability.

Dr. Rusalem, Director of Professional Training and Research, Industrial Home for the Blind, and Mrs. Schiller have compiled a list of hearing-loss mannerisms. The list was compiled for the benefit of social case workers whose clients are blind. Clients so identified should be referred for hearing evaluations. The authors stress the need to take into account the hearing acuity of all blind persons.

The authors focus on the preparation and training of deaf-blind persons for both workshop and industrial situations. They make many salient points relating to the employment of deaf-blind persons. They recommend that proper skill and job mobility training be provided for the client and that the working staff be completely prepared for the arrival of the deaf-blind worker.

The author, Executive Director of the Industrial Home for the Blind, presents principles for dealing with multihandicapped blind. He advocates a positive team approach and calls for deliberate efforts to modify public attitudes toward the disabled.

Helen Keller's seventy-fifth birthday is noted in 32 pages of photographs and tributes from such notables as Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt, Katherine Cornell, and leaders in the field of service for the deaf and blind.
To be without both sight and hearing is a condition different from any other. All flow of information is stopped with often disastrous effects: the brain is starved and the victim is driven into himself. Mr. Sculthorpe, who is deaf and blind says that with a well-balanced brain, self-created thought is possible and can be of value because it is not bombarded by a continual flow of outside information. However, he describes the cruel emotional impact of this double handicap and the necessity of helping the victim immediately. Not only is the victim deeply afraid, but other people are fearful of contact with him. Mr. Sculthorpe is able, with authority, to tell his readers how to help combat this fear.

On the basis of personal experience, the writer advises the newly deaf-blind in a very practical manner: he should take stock of himself, his appearance, and his way of walking; and he should convince the sighted and hearing that he is "master of his own life."

The writer pleads for specially trained workers to be employed in the education of deaf-blind persons and in welfare work with them. He blasts generalizations about the deaf-blind, saying that they have no more "mental kinks," insanity, or suspiciousness in them than can be found in other groups of people. The general public has to be educated in its attitude.

A young man who becomes deaf and blind during his productive years writes of his adjustment to this tragedy. He writes of the unfairness of labeling the deaf-blind as "mentally deficient." He describes what it is like to be deaf-blind and discusses the use of the sense of touch as a link with the world.

A deaf-blind man discusses the continued efforts he must make in order to keep in touch with the outside world. He feels it is possible for a deaf-blind person to find his place in the economic and social worlds if he is given the right training and teaching. He speaks of two factors resulting in isolation: the deaf-blind person himself and the reactions of the sighted-hearing people to him.

The writer suggests ways of assisting the deaf-blind person so that he is accepted as a normal person both inside and outside his home. The deaf-blind can be normal in every way except for his need for a special means of communication and for a guide when he goes about the streets. An adult who has recently become deaf-blind can be taught to fit into "ordinary life."

The double handicap of deafness and blindness cannot be dealt with as a sideline. It calls for special study groups, an administrative staff, and field workers. The fundamental need is communication.

The purpose of the league is to reintegrate deaf-blind people into the ordinary world. The league achieves its purpose by changing conditions in the daily lives of the deaf-blind, building up the morale of the deaf-blind, and educating the public! The league was founded to concentrate on these special problems.

This special issue commemorates the 100th anniversary of the birth of Anne Sullivan Macy. It is devoted to the problems of the deaf-blind and the progress that has been made on their behalf. Such experts as Nella Braddy Henney, Herbert Rusalem, Joel Hoff, and Edward J. Waterhouse have contributed valuable information. For those who are interested and concerned, this special issue is well worth reading from cover to cover.

The role of the special home teacher is to ease the isolation of the deaf-blind adult. She can help in many ways: make necessary arrangements for a speech therapist or for examinations by an audiology unit; she can perhaps teach her clients to read braille or to communicate by the manual method; or she can be an interpreter when her client is hospitalized. But most of all she can open up the lives of deaf-blind people by her friendship and interest in them.

Mrs. Shaff, who was deaf and blind from an early age, taught herself to take care of her husband, child, and house. In addition she was able to take dictation and to type for her husband. She was able to use electrical household equipment safely and easily. She was interested not only in the uses of electricity, but also in all kinds of machine tools.

Jess Liston was born deaf, blind, and without the sense of smell. Until he was ten years old he had no way of communicating nor any language. After being taught orally for five years, he had progressed to the point that he understood command words, was able to do arithmetic, and had comprehension of time. His greatest handicap was lack of experiences.

Dr. Sheridan, British Ministry of Health, presents tables and statistics regarding 227 children between the ages of eight and eleven years who are victims of maternal rubella. She concludes that there is little to show that rubella children exhibit “emotional instability and difficult behavior.”

The needs of deaf-blind children vary in accordance with their intelligence, age of becoming handicapped, and the extent of the handicaps. Miss Shields stresses the fact that the extent of the handicap is less important than the age at which it is acquired. She goes on to say that some are “trainable” but not “educable.” The first need is to establish communication.

The author, principal of Perkins School, describes in detail the planning, personnel, and so forth involved in structuring a rich environment for residential deaf-blind students.

The author discusses the difficulties of the “home teacher” who successfully rehabilitates a handicapped person without outside support. He describes an experience with a man, “Tom,” deaf from birth, who had adjusted to that handicap and was supporting himself as a carpenter when he became blind at the age of forty. Through persistence and kindness, Mr. Smith finally taught Tom to read “Moon” and helped him to regain his confidence. But one man could not completely do the job. Help was needed to help rehabilitate Tom socially.

Mr. Starkovich, consultant for visually handicapped children, describes the beginnings (1964) and subsequent development of education for the deaf-blind in Oregon.

Roy M. Stelle, Superintendent of the Colorado School for the Deaf and Blind, reports on the
meeting of the National Deaf-Blind Committee, October 4, 1958, at Perkins School. The committee strongly urged that all deaf-blind students from all of the states be sent to any of the numerous deaf-blind schools located throughout the United States. The author reviewed past committee activities and gave synopses of papers presented by members of the committee.

In spite of her major handicaps, Miss Martin learned to play the piano excellently. Because of her intelligence and determination, she was able to prepare herself to live as a normal young woman.

This is a summary of the second meeting of the National Study Committee of the Deaf-Blind, which was held in January, 1954. Included in the recommendations are plans for the development of an educational program at the national level and the initiation of clinical studies of the deaf-blind.

Dr. Suchman examined 100 congenitally deaf children between the ages of four and twelve years and found that over half of them had some degree of visual impairment. Since the cochlea and retina are formed at the same developmental stage from the same embryonic layer, the findings were not too surprising. Information tables are provided.

This article consists of letters from Anne M. Sullivan regarding Helen Keller’s natural aptitude for language, and an explanation of the charge that the supposedly original story, Frost King, written by Helen Keller, is plagiarized from Margaret T. Canby’s story, Frost Fairies. Both manuscripts are reproduced.

This is the report of a paper given at a conference for home teachers. The author suggests ways in which to make the relationship between the home teacher and his deaf-blind client more satisfactory and ways to open up the lives of persons without sight or hearing. Mr. Tate points out the importance of enlisting the interest and services of the “outside” world.

The honorary editor of The Braille Rainbow tells of the creation of this special magazine for the deaf-blind. The magazine was started in 1929 with only five copies, and by 1933 approximately 200 copies were sent to many parts of the world. The publishers also provided a “Moon” edition for those who could not read or learn to read braille.

The writer makes suggestions for making the lives of the deaf-blind fuller and more interesting, lists types of work appropriate for them, and points out differences in ability among deaf-blind persons.

After a series of sensory tests involving touch and taste, the author indicates that Helen Keller scored normally. Miss Keller’s total sensory process of recognition of objects by palpation was extraordinary. Analyzing Dr. G. Stanley Hall’s writings on Laura Bridgman, Dr. Tilney concludes that any difference between the two women is traceable to the difference in their mode of education, i.e., Miss Bridgman was restricted by puritanical pedagogy, while Anne Sullivan brought the zenith of improvisation and flexibility to the training of Miss Keller.

In this article Dr. Tilney rebuts statements of Dr. S. E. Jelliffe, who doubted the quality and
nature of Dr. Tilney’s tests regarding Helen Keller and Laura Bridgman. Dr. Goldstien, President of the Otological Society, has seconded Tilney’s observation that Miss Keller’s accomplishments were due both to her fine mind and to the effectiveness of her teacher, Anne Sullivan.

This is a brief article commemorating the 100th-year anniversary of the arrival of Laura Bridgman at Perkins School. Her life and education are reviewed, along with the background and successes of S. G. Howe.

Symbol formation is crucial in the development of the deaf-blind child. It helps him stabilize his world. The symbols used should be those most natural to the child and should usually be those involving action (e.g., the motion of throwing a ball). The need for complete gestures lessens when the child discovers his body as the medium for representation. Later, the complete gesture is no longer necessary.

The author is a supervising teacher of the deaf-blind at the Department of Deaf-Blind, Perkins School. She presents a short historical sketch of the “rediscovery” of the nineteenth century vibration method by Sophia Alcorn and its subsequent renaming as the Tadoma Method. Mrs. Vivian shows how the method is used at Perkins School.

The author lists the deaf-blind by institution and includes a brief description of their progress. He excludes all those who have either sight or hearing “for practical use.” There is also a section entitled, “Reported Cases that Are Neither Deaf Nor Blind or Are Not Properly Classed As Such.”

Mr. Wade rails against those who would curtail the deaf-blind use of the sense of smell because it is considered impolite to smell people.

Mr. Wade comments on the results of “carefully conducted experiments” on the deaf-blind performed by M. Kunz of Illzach-Muhlhausen. Many of the points are contemporary in their controversiality, e.g., the blind can distinguish colors by touch, deprivation of one sense is not measurably balanced by increased development of the remaining senses, and so forth.

Despite the title, the author writes of the reported feelings and emotions of blind-deaf Miss T. J. Patterson of England as she addressed a Christmas service dinner held for 30 poverty-stricken men.

Mr. Wade suggests that the education of the deaf-blind begin in a school for the deaf and be concentrated on the student’s acquisition of language by the manual alphabet. After the student has learned the language, he should be placed in a school for the blind where he will have the advantage of braille books and writers, and the like.

An interesting but sketchy report of an experiment during which two songs Helen Keller had heard before she lost her hearing and sight at 19 months were played on the piano, some 16 years later. Miss Keller, receiving the musical vibrations through her hands, recognized the songs and uttered some words from a different song her father had sung only after her calamitous illness. Dr. Waldstein concluded that early aural impressions on Miss Keller's brain persisted and a relationship between skin vibrations and sound memory patterns seemed to be present.


Mr. Wallis presents a summary of his book, Language by Touch, in which he describes the education of Mary Bradley, deaf and blind since age four; and Joseph Hague, who was born deaf and who became blind at age two. They were classmates and close friends at the Manchester Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. Mary remained in the Institution, but Joseph was eventually able to support himself in a workshop situation.


Noting that the handicap of the deaf-blind is one essentially of communication, Dr. Waterhouse makes an interim report on the testing techniques being developed by Perkins School personnel and Dr. Helmer Myklebust. Preliminary test findings will be available soon.


Dr. Waterhouse writes that the psychology of the deaf or blind is useless in relation to the deaf-blind because being deaf-blind is to have a unique handicap. He urges all deaf-blind administrators to allow for social contacts and recreational experiences in their programs.


Dr. Waterhouse presents an inventory of characteristics of deaf-blind children who are victims of maternal rubella. Among those characteristics cataloged are limited intellectual functions, residual hearing, and residual vision.


Dr. Waterhouse offers a number of learned opinions relative to the total field of deaf-blind education. Additionally, he details the qualities of a successful teacher of the deaf-blind. Most essential of these teacher-traits are emotional maturity and control and intuitive ability in interpreting student behavior.


This book includes accounts of various people who thought Helen Keller’s abilities were exaggerated until they met and conversed with her. Also, Dr. Wellstein recalls a situation in which Miss Keller acted as a French-German interpreter between him and a French teacher of the deaf.


The author describes early education programs in which the parents observe and learn how to work with their own deaf-blind children. The purpose of this technique is to enhance the young deaf-blind child’s development by involving all family members in the necessary training.


The author is the former Director of Public Education for the American Foundation for the Blind. He describes the operation of the Tellatouch machine.


Dr. Williams reports the results of his lengthy physical examination of Willetta Huggins. At ten years of age she was admitted to the Wisconsin School for the Blind. She was suffering from defective vision, deafness in her right ear, and
subnormal hearing in her left. Two severe colds subsequently left her completely deaf and blind. At age seventeen she had acquired the twin facilities of distinguishing color by smell and understanding conversation through finger-tip vibration. Dr. Williams concludes that, while Miss Huggins was positively deaf and blind, she "seemed so conscious of her surroundings and environment that it is impossible to believe that she has not some vision and hearing."

Williams, Thomas J. "Extraordinary Development of the Tactile and Olfactory Senses," *American Annals of the Deaf*, Vol. 67, 1922, 418–432. This report is a reprint from the October 14, 1922, *Journal of the American Medical Association*, and answers the statements of disbelief regarding Willeta Huggins expressed by Joseph Jastrow in an article entitled, "The Will to Believe," (AAD 67, 1922). Mr. Williams, with the admitted frailest of evidence, still maintains that Miss Huggins, positively deaf-blind, can distinguish colors by smell. He feels that "...she presents an example of the development of certain special senses..."

Mr. Williams discusses the plagiarism charges and admits that the Helen Keller writing, *Frost King*, should not have been published as original but as a reproduction. His opinion is that she should be acclaimed as a prodigy, rather than condemned, since she was able to recall in such detail a story she had been told once three years before.

Mr. White includes pictures, diary excerpts, and letters to create a portrait of the early years of Helen Keller's life.

This is a tribute to Miss Keller, written after her death, in which the writer speaks glowingly of her many achievements and her years of service and practical action for others deprived of sight or hearing and the deaf-blind.

This article provides a detailed sketch of Julia Brace at age forty-one, after 27 years of residence in the American Asylum for the Deaf. While she was accomplished in many respects, two attempts (at ages eighteen and thirty-five) to instruct her in manual spelling and word comprehension failed. However, she did have an extensive language of deaf signs. One communicated with her by manipulating her hands to form the appropriate signs.

Mr. Woollcott, a close friend of Miss Sullivan's, describes her as a woman of great courage to be able to succeed at the almost impossible task of awakening the mind of Helen Keller. The miracle of Miss Keller was known and acclaimed first. Gradually the world acknowledged that if Miss Keller was one of the wonders of the world, the woman who taught her was equally extraordinary—if not more so.

The authors are concerned with multihandicapped children, including the deaf-blind, whose disabilities are so severe that they "cannot respond to regular instructional techniques used with blind children." They discuss in detail the administrative designs, evaluation techniques, staff planning, housing, and coordination of individualized instruction, and integration into selected blind classes, all of which are necessary in programs for these children.
Proceedings of Conferences and Associations


The background of the School for the Deaf-Blind at Perkins Institution is described. The work of Inis Hall, who was able to teach speech to several deaf-blind children successfully, is described in detail.


Hunt, Joseph. “Deaf-Blind Persons and Their Needs As Seen by a National Agency” (58–61). Writing from the standpoint of the office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Mr. Hunt describes the pilot demonstration project for developing a regional service for the deaf-blind.

Salmon, Peter J. “New Regional Service for Deaf-Blind Persons” (45–47). Mr. Salmon describes the development of Regional Rehabilitation Service and what it offers to the deaf-blind.

Waterhouse, Edward J. “Deaf-Blind Children, Perkins School for the Blind” (47–49). The Anne Sullivan Macy Service for the deaf-blind has invoked great interest from the general public. Because of extreme difficulties in educating the deaf-blind, the only reasonable goal is to try to develop the maximum potentials of each child even if his value to society is imperceptible to everyone except, perhaps, himself.


Work Service for the Deaf-Blind was added to the American Foundation for the Blind in 1946. The writer describes what the service has accomplished, what it expects to do in the future, and the foremost needs of the deaf-blind.


Terminology in the multihandicapped field generally revolves around the physical status of the afflicted individual as seen from different points of view. It was the opinion of persons at the conference that these terms should be changed to reflect functional skills, behavioral characteristics, teaching guidelines, and behavioral modification plans.

Davis, Carl J. “The Deaf-Blind Child—Diagnosis and Evaluation,” *Proceedings of the American Instructors of the Deaf*, Vol. 40, 1961, 69–71. The author, a psychologist at the Perkins School, reports on team assessment techniques used to evaluate deaf-blind pupils. Two evaluators work with the child, determining his visual, auditory, and language functional levels and his educational potential, while the third evaluator interviews the parents to evaluate the child’s immediate social and emotional environment.


This is the report of a general round-table discussion of the education of the deaf-blind made remarkable by William Wade’s reasons for his objection to the supposed necessity of having “experienced” teachers in the field and his opposition to a proposed National Deaf-Blind Institute. Also, Dr. Thomas Gallaudet reminisced about his first meeting with Laura Bridgman.

Dinsmore, Annette. "National Service for Deaf-Blind People" (63–65). Because the number of deaf-blind people is small, it has been hard to gain public interest and to establish nationwide programs of service for them. However, progress is being made by the Industrial Home for the Blind and the American Foundation for the Blind in educating and rehabilitating the deaf-blind. Miss Dinsmore acknowledges the fine work of individuals and general volunteers.

Salmon, Peter J. "The Office of Vocational Rehabilitation Study of the Deaf-Blind at Industrial Home for the Blind" (59–61). Mr. Salmon speaks of a special project sponsored by the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation and reviews the work in the deaf-blind department of the Industrial Home for the Blind. He also comments on a committee of the World Council for the Welfare for the Blind formed to study the development of an international manual alphabet.

Waterhouse, Edward J. "Educating Deaf-Blind Children" (61–63). The development of the tactual system in the understanding of the speech of others is an important factor in the education of the deaf-blind. If deafness (and blindness, too) strikes before speech has developed, the difficulties are great. The education of the deaf-blind is extremely concentrated and a close relationship between teacher and pupil is necessary. Because the training of the teacher is so important, Perkins Institute and Boston University have established a postgraduate school for the education of teachers of the deaf-blind. Testing the educability of the children is being slowly worked out. Expense is great, and progress is slow, but the situation is slowly improving over the years.

"Demonstrations of Education of Deaf-Blind: Helen Martin, Tad Chapman." Proceedings of the Twenty-fifth Meeting. Washington, D.C.: American Instructors of the Deaf, 1920, 69–83. Deaf-blind Tad Chapman demonstrated his speech-reading ability with the placement of his hand on various parts of the speaker's face. Deaf-blind Helen Martin demonstrated her skill on the piano. Helen Keller, by letter, urged that the deaf-blind be sent to a school for the blind because "the blind have a better command of language..." The merits of a national deaf-blind institute were debated.

Miss Dinsmore traces the history of teacher-training for the deaf-blind from 1949.

Miss Dinsmore details the new developments in the field of the deaf-blind: the teacher-training programs at Perkins, Michigan State, and State University of Iowa; and the expansion of existing facilities and the increased services of the American Foundation for the Blind.

Dora Donald explains her successful approach to the education of Linnie Haguewood, deaf-blind child of eighteen months. Miss Haguewood demonstrates her general knowledge and oral ability. Participants in a round-table discussion emphasized that the deaf-blind can be educated and that they should start their education in a school for the deaf and finish in a school for the blind.

In the preface to the speeches printed in this publication, Mary Switzer emphasizes that deaf-blindness is neither deafness nor blindness, but a separate disability demanding dedicated teachers, a special kindness, and workable means of communicating. Fears, present on both sides, have to be overcome by both sides in rehabilitating the deaf-blind.
Bettica, Louis J. "Introducing the Deaf-Blind Person to Services—Communication and Recreation" (31–33). The key service is in teaching the deaf-blind to communicate. After that, many types of recreation can be introduced.

Dinsmore, Annette. "A Five Minute Journey with New Developments for the Deaf-Blind in the United States" (30–31). This article highlights recent developments such as the awakening of interest through newspapers, radio, and television; and the development of effective services; educational improvements, and others.

Handel, Alexander. "Your Community and Its Deaf-Blind Population" (28–30). Mr. Handel describes the needs of the deaf-blind as income maintenance, health maintenance and rehabilitation, education, creative and recreational opportunities, and personal counseling. The writer then describes agencies that can fulfill these needs and tells how they do it.


Rothschild, Jacob. "A Few Simple Rules for Observation and Standard Testing of a Deaf-Blind Client" (34–35). The writer suggests general approaches to the testing of a deaf-blind client and certain necessary considerations. The determination of a client's potential for employment of personal resources is a paramount question.

Rusalem, Herbert. "Vocational Program for the Deaf-Blind—Right Now" (35–37). Deaf-blind persons are capable of earning their own livings. There should be no delay in a person receiving vocational services to enhance his employability. The writer gives facts about the performance of the deaf-blind, training of varying lengths, and the need for industries and businesses to have one person on each staff trained and experienced in services to the deaf-blind.

Smithdas, Robert J. "What We should Remember as Citizens" (39–40). The efforts of all concerned citizens are needed to combine sympathy and compassion for the deaf-blind with realistic programs of services for them.


Dinsmore, Annette. "Nationwide Picture of the Education of the Deaf-Blind Child" (224–226). To communicate, the child must first form associations. Until these associations are established, words have no meaning. Guidance in forming associations starts with the parent. The author speaks of the vibration method of teaching deaf-blind children.

Evans, Edward. "Deaf-Blind in the United Kingdom and History of the Two-hand Manual Alphabet" (221–222). The author reviews conditions and numbers of deaf-blind persons in Britain and lists various acts of Parliament involving them. He then describes the background of the two-hand manual alphabet.

Kinney, Richard. "Adventuring Alone with Communications" (219–220). It is possible for deaf-blind persons to converse with strangers without help of friends who know the manual alphabet. An amazing little machine called TELLATOUCH makes this possible.

Salmon, Peter J. "Introduction and Review: Combined Efforts of the World Council for the Welfare of the Blind, American Foundation for the Blind, Two-year Office of Vocational Rehabilitation Study Project for the Deaf-Blind at the Industrial Home for the Blind, and the Industrial Home for the Blind" (216–219). According to Mr. Salmon, the deaf-blind possess an unnamed faculty: what better reason to seek programs and methods of communication which may be universally applicable regardless of language, country, or the form of the social order. Mr. Salmon outlines the work of the organizations mentioned in the title.

Sculthorpe, Arthur R. "The National Deaf-Blind Helpers League in England" (223–224). The league's most important function is to provide vital information about the everyday problems of deaf-blind individuals so that official welfare bodies can really help their clients.

Smithdas, Robert. "The One-Hand Manual Alphabet" (228–229). Mr. Smithdas describes the merits of this method of communication and gives details of its use. He recommends it for teaching speech to deaf-blind children.
van de Mey, Gerrit. “The Lorm Alphabet” (227–228). This system of communication is based on two elements: fixing separate letter locations on the reader’s hand and varying the kind of touch to the reader’s hand. The author speaks of the use of this method with his wife.

van der Poel, W. L. “Communicating Electronically with the Braille Telephone” (226). The author describes a keyboard operated braille phone and its possibilities.


Hoff, Joel R. “Preparation of Teachers of Deaf-Blind Children,” Proceedings of the International Conference on Oral Education of the Deaf, 1967, 1,146–1,154. Mr. Hoff advocates the Perkins multidisciplinary approach in training teachers of the deaf-blind. In defining deaf-blind as those children whose visual and auditory handicaps prevent satisfactory results in educational programs provided for the blind or the deaf, he also emphatically states that other handicaps (aphasia, brain-damage, mental retardation, and so forth) are almost certain to be present in varying degrees.

Johns, Frank, Jr. “Report of the Committee on the Deaf-Blind.” Proceedings of the Forty-second Biennial Convention (Batavia, New York). Washington, D.C.: American Association of Instructors of the Blind, 1954, 37–41. This is a report of the findings of the Conference of Deaf-Blind Educators held at Perkins on April 13-14, 1953. The author summarizes the proceedings, stressing the committee’s determination to explore the problems connected with the health and education of deaf-blind children and to explore the possibility of regional deaf-blind schools, with a special school for research, teacher training, and so forth.


“Looking Forward in Work with and for the Deaf-Blind People,” Proceedings of the Thirty-third Convention (Detroit, Michigan). Washington, D.C.: American Association of Workers for the Blind, 1959, 33–45. Andersen, Jerry. “Developing a Regional Program” (39–41). The public is beginning to become aware that regional programs can offer comprehensive services to deaf-blind people. Mr. Andersen speaks of the importance of communication not only with the deaf-blind, but also between the agencies concerned with them.

Anderson, James S. “Plowing the Ground for the Foundation of a Program for Services to the Deaf-Blind” (35–36). This is a detailed descrip-
tion of goals and accomplishments of the Columbia Lighthouse in Washington, D.C.

Bettica, Louis J. “How to Have Fun Working with Deaf-Blind People” (44). Work with the deaf-blind is not depressing and difficult. Rather, it is most rewarding and enjoyable. The deaf-blind approached with warmth, understanding, and humor respond in kind.

Chapman, Winthrop C. “Not a Sound from My Chickens” (34). A deaf-blind poultry farmer describes “his day.”

Lawhorn, Geraldine. “Entertainment Is My Business” (43). This deaf-blind woman tells how she regulated her voice and controlled her facial expressions in her appearances on the stage.

Magill, A. N. “Steps We Have Taken in Canada” (37–38). The background and development of work for and with the deaf-blind in Canada are described.

Murphey, Jack. “My Shop Is My Own” (38–39). Mr. Murphey describes his shop with great enthusiasm and pride and relates his personal experiences with humor. He was helped by services sponsored by the American Foundation for the Blind and the American Association of Workers for the Blind.

Riley, Betty G. “Deaf-Blind Children in the United States” (33–34). The number of children enrolled in schools for the deaf-blind is still relatively low. Progress is being made slowly.


In 1929, according to the author, 496 deaf-blind persons had been identified in the United States. Of these, 30 were in schools for the deaf or schools for the blind. The need is acute and the writer suggests a national organization for the deaf-blind similar to the American Foundation for the Blind and the Volta Bureau for the Deaf.


This poor English translation contains much theory regarding the deaf-blind, but gives little practical educational advice. The progressive educational plan presented is clear and concise, but implementation is—apparently left to the reader’s ingenuity.


The conference participants stressed the need for prevention of maternal rubella and presented strong evidence that the presence of one handicap definitely increased the possibility of another being present. A team approach, which included the participation of parents, was proposed to attack the problems of deaf-blind children. The most important learning factor is direct experience—experiences related to the social progress of the child, “not just experience for its own sake (as in the United States).” Social development of the child is basic, not the three Rs. Children must be educated by social experience.


The development of schools for the deaf-blind and progress reports on the work of the National Study Committee on the Education of the Deaf-Blind are given in the above-listed proceedings.


Every child must be helped to realize his fullest potential. Additionally, every handicapped per-

Mrs. Shields relates the diagnostic and educational services available to the deaf-blind in England. Most interesting is her observation that the more recent deaf-blind population is encumbered with additional handicaps. She states that certain symptoms of autism are always apparent in children affected by maternal rubella and that aphasia is very often associated with retrolental fibroplasia.


Bergman, Moe. "Research into Aspects of Auditory Perception" (90-92). Tests have been developed for localization of static sources, moving sources, relative localization, and, finally, selective listening.

Chermak, Sam. "Reader Reaction" (83-84). Because of modern communications such as radio, television, and talking books, news reported in braille has declined. This gap is now filled by "Touch-and-Go," TAG, a magazine in both braille and ink print which gives the deaf-blind an uncensored, uninhibited journal covering the gamut of the news. A monthly publication, limited to the deaf-blind and their families, it provides not only news, but humor and communication among its readers.

Dinsmore, Annette. "Needed Research in Employability of Deaf-Blind Persons" (89-90). The first step is underway: getting information about where and how many, age, ratio of deaf to hard-of-hearing, and proportion of unemployed among the deaf-blind throughout the United States. Hopefully, with the help of the American Foundation for the Blind and the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, the information collected will be expanded and collated.


Riley, Betty G. "A New Look at Deaf-Blind Children" (86-88). A diagnostic program at Syracuse University in cooperation with the American Foundation for the Blind was started in 1957 with the hope that a few principles and standards for the diagnostic process as applied to the deaf-blind could be established regionally. Using a "team approach," the child is studied by doctors, psychiatrists, welfare workers, and so forth. The parents are always included.

Waterhouse, Edward J. "Training Teachers of Deaf-Blind Children" (84-86). A training program headed by Daniel J. Burns was initiated by the Perkins School for the Blind in connection with Boston University School of Education. Started in 1956, it averages five trainees a year.


Mr. Skoroshodova, Defectology Institute, USSR, who is apparently deaf, urges the coordination of all efforts of scientists and teachers of various countries to help the deaf-blind adapt to "life in the world." The deaf-blind can experience beauty with their hands and, consequently, they must be provided with an internal, spiritual world, "enriched with all mankind's cultural wealth." This is a provocative article.

Stewart, D. Some Account of a Boy Born Blind and Deaf, Collected from Authentic Sources of Information. Edinburgh, Scotland (22 & 24 George Street, Edinburgh, Scotland EH2-2PQ), 1815, 1-78.

This is a complete history of deaf-blind James Mitchell, born in Scotland on November 11, 1795. Information was gathered from his sister, Jane Mitchell, neighbors, and close associates. Most interesting is correspondence from medical personnel regarding Mitchell's two operations, in 1808 and 1810, for the removal of cataracts.
Student Papers. Boston College Teacher Training
Class 1969-70: The following student papers may be obtained from the college:

Bassetto, Neusa. "Communication with Deaf-Blind."

Cullen, Sheila. "So That They, Too, Shall See..." (A Paper on Religious Education for Blind and Deaf-Blind Children.)

Holbert, Nancy. "Development of Person Perception in the Pre-School, Partially-Sighted, Non-Verbal Child."


Jensen, Marcia. "Handbook of Arts and Crafts Projects for Deaf-Blind Children."


O'Connell, Mary. "Left-Handedness Among Deaf-Blind Children as a Possible Indication of Brain Damage."

Paisner, Barbara. "What Child Is This? (A Paper on the Development of Self-Concept.)"

Richter, Dina. "Founding of a Programme for Deaf-Blind Children."

Smoot, Joyce. "Play Materials and Activities Stimulate Motor and Tactual Development in the Pre-School Deaf-Blind Program."


In a very brief, unclear article, the author reports that a few deaf-blind students were "made to acquire the habit of verbal communication" under undefined experimental conditions.


Speaking of various types of handicaps, Dr. Waterhouse mentions work with the deaf-blind and suggests that, when feasible, the deaf-blind students should be integrated into the rest of the school at Perkins Institute.