

EFL Programs for People with Special Needs in the in Different National Settings

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Index-----	i
Abstract-----	iv
Introduction-----	v
Chapter I: Theoretical Framework-----	6
Definition of Terms-----	6
Attention Deficit-----	6
Blindness and/or Vision Impairment-----	6
Distance Vision Impairment-----	6
Near Vision Impairment-----	6
Cognitive Abilities and Skills-----	7
Dyslexia-----	7
Hearing Loss and Deafness-----	7
Learning Disabilities-----	8
Low School Performance-----	10
Chapter II: Review of Literature-----	11
The Therapeutic Method Designed-----	11
Hyperactivity-----	12
Symptoms of Hyperactivity-----	12
Impulsivity-----	13
Symptoms of Impulsivity-----	13

Chapter III: Physical and Mental Factors Affecting our Aptitude to Learn a Foreign Language-----	14
Pool of Service Associations in the D.R.-----	15
Strategies for EFL Teaching to People with Special Needs-----	17
Definition of Communication-----	19
Chapter IV: Case Studies-----	20
1.-) Bilingual Programs for Deaf Students/ A Mexican Case-----	20
Summary-----	20
Reasons why this Subject is Decided-----	20
Hearing Impairment-----	21
Geographical Background-----	22
Observation-----	23
Results and Observation-----	24
Conclusion-----	25
2.-)Bilingual Programs for Deaf Students/ A Mexican Case-----	26
Audiolingual Classification-----	26
Otological Classification-----	27
Universal Verbal Auditory System (SUVAG)-----	27
Linguistic Development of the Deaf Child-----	28
Educational Intervention in the Communicative-Linguistic Field-----	34
Communicative Modalities-----	36

Oral Mode-----	36
Oral Modality Complemented-----	37
Gestural Modality-----	38
Signed Modality-----	39
Written Mode-----	39
The Teaching-Learning of Languages in Deaf Persons-Linguistics and Dialectics-----	40
Results of the Investigation. Concrete Analysis of the Program Analyzed-----	44
Preliminary Contrast-----	45
Social Considerations of Deafness-----	47
Conclusions of the Investigation-----	49
3.-) Bilingual Program for Deaf Students/ A Chilean Case-----	52
Abstract-----	52
a)The Swedish Model of Bilingual Education-----	52
b)Deaf Education in Chile-----	56
General Considerations Regarding the Organization of the Deaf-----	57
4.-) Gallaudet University/ An American Case-----	60
A University of the Deaf-----	60
Origins of the University of Gallaudet-----	60
The Empowerment of the Deaf in Gallaudet-----	61
History and Tradition-----	61
Discussion/Conclusions-----	63
References	

Abstract

The present work attracted our attention motivated by the need of seeking ways of helping people learning EFL, with certain *disabilities* than undertaking a research project by itself. The needs for implementing those special program in our country is out of the question, since to the extent that our society and country has been developing in economic, social and political terms, to that extent we have realized the need to become a more inclusive society, more open to sectors with special needs, not only in terms of urban planning, but also in the design of their own educational policies towards those sectors of the population.

The educational system in the Dominican Republic, mostly the public education system has been suffering and undergoing a series of change since the proclamation and implementation of the so-called Decennial Plan of Education decades ago, so our national curricula has been affected by a series of changes, where the EFL teaching was not the exception. So from that historical momentum; English was fully covered nationwide, but where it fell short was in considering expanding these programs for people with special needs, something that was already planned and advanced in the private sector, and mostly in and for private schools, and private foundations, like those of the ONG's Type.

The scope of this study is to generally examine the state-of-the-art of the institutions which offer a program of EFL for those students diagnosed with certain disabilities, specifically the Bilingual Programs for students with hearing impairment or deaf in four different countries.

In that respect a search has been made to try to determine the institution which currently operate an English program for them, if any and to try compare their practices with that of their peers internationally speaking, and to thoroughly explain the phenomena in the light of the most specialized academic voices.

Keywords: EFL for Special Need People, Bilingual Programs of English for Deaf Students, the State-of-the-Art of EFL for disabled Ones in the Region.

Introduction

Although all of our colleges and universities be it public or private ones, do not contemplate in their undergraduate curriculum or programs as well, time has come for our country to implement a degree on EFL teaching for students with special needs, due to the new demands of what is becoming more inclusive, open and democratic society.

Chapter I of this work deals with all of what comprises theories and definitions on the most common

Causes of health concerns that affect and define that part of our population who needs special training

Not only in EFL, but also in the rest of the courses and subjects of our national curriculum.

Chapter II is dedicated for exposing, although succinctly, the vast literature available on the topic being Covered.

Chapter III exposes Physical and Mental Factors Affecting our Aptitude to Learn a Foreign Language in the light of the theories of language learning and language acquisition

Chapter IV focuses on the bilingual programs offered in four different settings and/or institutions of the region (America) in terms of exposing their singular features and their approaches for Bilingual education to disabled people.

Chapter V brings naturally, the conclusions and findings on the examined institution as compared to their peer ones in the international arena.

Chapter I: Theoretical Framework

Definition of Terms

Attention Deficit

According to Perez & Gardney (2008) “ The inability of the child to focus his attention for a period of time during exercising activities accompanied with an instability and excessive movement without clam or comfort, making him rush into doing things without prior thinking and this is reflected in the degrees that the child gets on the scale of the attention difficulties. It is a disorder that is diagnosed when the child does not have the ability to concentrate on just one thing; the lack of selection and maintenance of attention and the consequences that this attitude can bring on a psychological level. That is, a person who has difficulties to remain still, acts without thinking first, or starts doing something, but never ends it, among other situations”

Blindness and/or Vision Impairment

The International Classification of Diseases 11 (2018) classifies vision impairment into two groups, distance

and near presenting vision impairment.

Distance vision impairment:

- Mild – presenting visual acuity worse than 6/12
- Moderate – presenting visual acuity worse than 6/18
- Severe – presenting visual acuity worse than 6/60
- Blindness – presenting visual acuity worse than 3/60

Near vision impairment:

- Presenting near visual acuity worse than N6 or N8 at 40cm with existing correction..

A person's experience of vision impairment varies depending upon many different factors. This includes for example, the availability of prevention and treatment interventions, access to vision rehabilitation (including assistive products such as glasses or white canes), and whether the person experiences problems with inaccessible buildings, transport and information. World Health Organization (2019)

Cognitive Abilities and Skills

They include the skills related with the mental processes and cognitive activity such as the skills of speculating , inquiring, classification, searching, exploration, holding things, playing, movement, and the ability to infer; such skills play an important role in shaping the child's personality, trends, inclination and experiences

(Mohammed2012: 14)

Dyslexia

Dyslexia is a learning disorder that involves difficulty reading due to problems identifying speech sounds and learning how they relate to letters and words (decoding). Also called reading disability, dyslexia affects areas of the brain that process language. People with dyslexia have normal intelligence and usually have normal vision. Most children with dyslexia can succeed in school with tutoring or a specialized education program. Emotional support also plays an important role. Though there's no cure for dyslexia, early assessment and intervention result in the best outcome. Sometimes dyslexia goes undiagnosed for years and isn't recognized until adulthood, but it's never too late to seek help.

World Health Organization (2019).

Hearing Loss and Deafness

A person who is not able to hear as well as someone with normal hearing – hearing thresholds of 25 dB or better in both ears – is said to have hearing loss. Hearing loss may be mild, moderate, severe, or profound. It can affect one ear or both ears, and leads to difficulty in hearing conversational speech or loud sounds. 'Hard of hearing' refers to people with hearing loss ranging from mild to severe. People who are hard of hearing usually communicate through spoken language and can benefit from hearing aids, cochlear

implants, and other assistive devices as well as captioning. People with more significant hearing losses may benefit from cochlear implants. World Health Organization (2019)

Learning Disabilities

The term learning disabilities is defined in different ways in different countries. In Australia, the term refers to a small subgroup within the general area of learning difficulties. This subgroup involves students who have difficulties in specific areas as a result of impairment in one or more of the cognitive processes related to learning. From the Australian perspective, these specific areas of learning difficulties (known as learning disabilities) share the following characteristics (Commonwealth of Australia 1992, 2005), Elkhomy (2016).

Learning disabilities is a general term that refers to a heterogeneous group of disorders manifested by significant difficulties in the acquisition and use of listening, speaking, reading, writing, reasoning, or mathematical abilities. These disorders are intrinsic to the individual, presumed to be due to central nervous system dysfunction, and may occur across the life span. (p. 65)

Also in the USA, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) (2004, cited in Wright, 2005, p. 9) defines the term specific learning disability as “a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, that may manifest itself in the imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or do mathematical calculations”.

In Canada, the Learning Disabilities Association of Ontario (2001) defines the term learning disabilities as follows:

Learning Disabilities refers to a variety of disorders that affect the acquisition, retention, understanding, organization or use of verbal and/or non-verbal information. These disorders result from impairments in one or more psychological processes related to learning, in combination with otherwise average abilities essential for thinking and reasoning. Learning disabilities are specific not global impairments and as such are distinct from intellectual disabilities. (p. 1)

Similarly, the Learning Disabilities Association of Alberta (2010) defines the term learning disabilities as

“a number of disorders which may affect the acquisition, organization, retention, understanding or use of verbal or nonverbal information” (p. 3).

In the UK the term learning disabilities is used differently to refer to what is known in Australia and many other countries as intellectual disabilities which are out of the scope of this book; whereas the term specific learning difficulties (SpLDs) is used to refer to difficulties with certain aspects of learning. These SpLDs include dyslexia, dyspraxia, dyscalculia and dysgraphia (Department of Health, 2010).

However, as Gerber (1998) states, “Learning disabilities are not a unitary construct. An individual can have one specific problem or constellation of problems. Moreover, learning disabilities do not manifest themselves in individuals in exactly the same way. Some learning disabilities can be mild, while others can be quite severe” (p. 9). Furthermore, the severity of learning disabilities can influence many personal aspects including: (a) self-esteem, (b) personal relations, (c) social interactions, and (d) employment, as well as (e) educational pursuits (Comstock and Kamara, 2002).

Some psychotherapists, learning disabilities associations, and educators (e.g., Commonwealth of Australia, 1992, 2005; Gerber and Reiff, 1994; Gerber, Schnieders, Paradise, Reiff, Ginsberg, and Popp, 1990; Wilson and Lesaux, 2001) believe that learning disabilities are long-lasting and that interventions only prevent complications and help students to cope with their disabilities.

Finally, Mishna(1998) believe that students with learning disabilities have the potential to achieve at age-appropriate levels once provided with programs that incorporate appropriate support and evidence-based instruction because these disabilities have nothing to do with a student’s intelligence. Mishna (1998), for example, believes that students with learning disabilities can be very successful when they are provided with strategies that support their learning.

Low school Performance

Is a frequent problem and has multiple causes; the alterations that characterizes it
Are expressed mainly in the areas of cognitive academic and behavioral functioning.
(Gonzalez and Barbera: 2014).

To sum up, although there are various definitions for learning disabilities, most of these definitions excluding the UK definition, share these key elements: (1) Learning disabilities are a group of neurological disorders in the information processes and these disorders manifest themselves in significant difficulties with listening, speaking, reading, writing, or mathematics; therefore, the problems of students with learning disabilities lie with the processing of information, not with intelligence; (2) Learning disabilities are specific, not global impairments and as such are distinct from intellectual disabilities; (3) Although learning disabilities are not caused by environmental factors (e.g., insufficient/inappropriate instruction), such environmental factors may contribute significantly to the negative impact of a learning disability on a student's life and make it worse; (4) Students with learning disabilities have average to above average intelligence and demonstrate at least average abilities essential for thinking and reasoning; (5) With appropriate educational support, students with learning disabilities can attain average or above average achievement".: As quoted by: El khoumy(Pp. 1-7, 2016).

Chapter II Review of Literature

Bin Hafiz (2014) stated that “to design a metacognitive therapeutic program for children with Attention deficit and low school performance [in the EFL area] at the initial level, that study provided a design for the therapeutic program for children with attention deficit and poor academic performance in [EFL Programs] , in accordance to the knowledge in the knowledge and educational “ metacognitive” area , based on self-organization skills: planning, control and evaluation during and after performing these tasks. This study addressed the clear imbalance to the researcher who used an experimental approach by designing the research by an individual ,in addition to the previous and subsequent tests ,as well as 16 therapy sessions where the client received training on the metatherapeutic approach based on direct explanation, self-control, the reinforcement of the dialogue aloud. The *therapeutic method* designed

to treat attention deficit and low performance in EFL were successful with respect to the status of the application of the study carried out, when dealing with the three dimensions of the attention deficit and low level performance in the area of foreign languages.

An study conducted by Al-Bataineh et al (2011) was entitled “The level of social skills among ordinary Children, and children with learning disabilities of another language and attention deficit “it differed depending on variables such as sex, age group, or interaction between them (278), the boys and girls (97) who participated in that study , which included 181 ordinary students with 97 students out of them showing learning difficulties for another language and attention deficit as well, were chosen from schools that contain sections for learning resources in the Directorate of Education.

The attention deficit is a development al disability with a neurobiological basis, which is estimated to affect 3 to 5 percent of all children of school age in the United States (Professional Group for Attention and Related Disorder, 1991).

No one knows exactly the cause of the attention deficit, scientific evidence suggest that in many cases the disorder transmitted generically and is the result of an imbalance or deficiency in certain neurotransmitter or chemicals that help the brain regulate behavior. In addition, a culminating study conducted by the National Institute of Mental Health,

indicated that the speed at which the brain uses glucose, its main source of energy, is lower in individuals with attention deficit than in individuals without attention deficit (Zametkin et al, 1990) .

The symptoms of inattention, as they appear in the DSM-IV, include: a) he often does not pay attention to details or makes careless mistakes in school work, work, or other activities; b) often has difficulty in sustaining attention in the task or play activities; c) often does not seem to listen when spoken directly; d) often does not follow the instruction and does not complete school work, chores, or duties at the place of employment (there should be no a diagnosis of defiant negativism or the inability to understand the instructions;

e) he often has difficulty organizing his tasks and activities; f) often dodges, dislikes, or is reluctant to participate in tasks that require sustained mental effort (such as work or homework); g) often loses the necessary things for tasks or activities (for example, toys, homework, pencils, books or tools); h) is often easily distracted by outside stimuli; i) it is often easily forgotten in daily activities (American Psychiatric Association, 1994, Pp83-849) Among the main characteristics or symptoms associated with the attention deficit we should quote: Hyperactivity and Impulsivity

Hyperactivity

“The most visible sign of attention deficit is excessive activity. The infant/hyperactive preschool child is described as “always on the move” or “Motive for electric motor”. With age, the activity level may decrease. When maturing as a teenager or adult, excessive activity may appear to be restless and nervous behavior (American Psychiatric Association, 1994).

Symptoms of Hyperactivity

The symptoms of hyperactivity, as they appear in the DSM-IV, are the following: a) he often moves his hands or feet or is restless with the chair; b) he often leaves his seat inside the classroom or in other object excessively In situations in which it is inappropriate (in adolescents or adults this is limited to a feeling of subjective unrest): d) often has difficulty in playing to participate in recreational activities quietly ; e) it is often in motion or often behaves as if driven by an electric motor; f) often talks excessively (APA, 1994, P.84).

Impulsivity

When we think of impulsiveness, the first thing that comes to our mind is *cognitive impulsivity*, that is, acting without thinking. In the child with attention deficit, impulsivity is a little different.

These children act before thinking, because they have difficulty in waiting and with a delay of gratification. Impulsivity leads these children to speak out of turn, to interrupt others, and to participate in what appears to be risky behavior. The child can cross the street without looking or climbing a very tall tree. Although such behavior is risky, in reality the child does not want to take risks, but has difficulty controlling his impulses. Often the child is surprised to discover that he or she is in a dangerous situation and has no idea how to get out of it. (APA, 1994, P.84).

Symptoms of Impulsivity

As they appear in the DSM-IV (p 84) are the following: a) often lets out the answer before the questions have been completed; b) he often has difficulty waiting for his turn; c) often interrupts or gets involved in the affairs of others (for example, interrupts the conversations or games off others. (APA, 1994, P 84).

According to Barkley (1990), hyperactivity is a pattern that originated in a general difficulty to Inhibit behavior. In addition to problem with lack of attention or hyperactivity, impulsivity, the disorder, is often accompanied by other associated characteristics.

Depending on the child's age and developmental level, parents and teachers may notice a low tolerance for frustrations, outbursts of outrage. An authoritarian attitude, difficulty in following the rules, disorganization, social rejection, low self-esteem, poor academic performance, and inadequate self-application (APA, 1994).

Chapter III: Physical and Mental Factors Affecting our Aptitude to Learn a Foreign Language.

One of the most common problems of education in any of the so-called *third world country*, it is that the lack of resources for education; in this case EFL education programs, lies in that, students with certain disabilities, incapacities or special needs, are placed in a common classroom, in a common and ordinary or regular school. So there is no place for them, once their special needs are detected either by a counselor or a teacher to appropriately place them.

EFL teaching in our country (The Dominican Republic) only offers regular programs for people in general. So, out of the five or six colleges or universities that are currently offering either in their undergraduate or graduates programs for English Language Professors,[including the State College known as UASD], which is the biggest one in the country and one of the biggest in the Caribbean region (with an enrollment of more than 200,000 students) do not include any specialty for people with any kind of incapacities or special needs, as a result of that situation, sometimes EFL teachers have to deal with that situation in their classroom at any level, mostly at preschool levels, and to a lesser extent at primary and middle school levels.

The aim of this chapter is to examine and to discuss, the appropriate teaching strategies employed in other countries, as well as trying to compares such similitudes and differences within the framework of the most helpful EFL teaching methodologies and strategies as well.

In that respect let us take a look, in what it is happening in other latitudes no matter how far or near they appear to be, but before doing that , and for the enlightenment of the reader let us see a list of the most outstanding organization that bring some hope and life for people with special needs: Tavarez DaCosta (2016).

Pool of Service Association in the Dominican Republic

- 1.-El Consejo Nacional de Discapacidad (CONADIS)/The National Council for Disabilities .an "autonomous and decentralized institution with legal personality, administrative, financial and technical autonomy, responsible for establishing and coordinating disability policies". CONADIS is attached to the Presidency of the Republic, under the supervision of the Minister of the Presidency. (Article 24 of the Organic Law on Equality of Rights of Persons with Disabilities No. 5-13).
- 2.-El Instituto de Ayuda al Sordo Santa Rosa, Inc./ The Institute for Helping the Deaf Santa Rosa, Inc., through the Dominican Audiological Center, offers its services to the population with hearing disabilities in general, from newborns to older adults. They have an efficient physical structure and easy location. Their staff is highly trained and works with the most modern equipment, to ensure excellent care and accurate and reliable hearing results.
- 3.-La Asociación Nacional de Sordos (ANSORDO)/The National Association for Helping Deaf ones.
- 4.-Patronato Nacional de Ciegos/ The National Patronate of Blinds, is a Dominican Institution that works for the rehabilitation of people with visual disabilities.
- 5.-La Asociación Dominicana de Síndrome del Down/ The Dominican Association of Down's Syndrome. "We are a nonprofit institution founded on November 19, 1992, approved by presidential decree on December 24, 1993. It was born thanks to the efforts of a group of parents who understand that only by joining their efforts can improve the condition of life and optimize the development physical, intellectual and emotional of people who have this condition".
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approved by presidential decree on December 24, 1993. It was born thanks to the efforts of a group of parents who understand that only by joining their efforts can improve the condition of life and optimize the development physical, intellectual and emotional of people who have this condition”.

6.-La Fundacion Starkey/ Starkey Hearing Foundation gives the gift of hearing to people in need in the U.S. and around the world. We believe hearing is a vehicle to reflect caring and to improve the lives of individuals, their families, and communities.

7.-La Asociacion Dominicana de Rehabilitacion/The Dominican Rehabilitation Association (ADR) is a nonprofit organization, pioneer in the Dominican Republic in the comprehensive rehabilitation of people with physical and intellectual disabilities, whether congenital or acquired.

The ADR provides a comprehensive service that includes everything from physical rehabilitation to cognitive development.

Instituted by the decree of the Executive Power no.126 of April 3, 1963, begins its work in October of that year with the name Asociación Pro- Rehabilitación.

Currently it offers services in 33 centers distributed throughout the national geography, which focus on:

- Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation

- School of Special Education

- Training and employment

8.-La Fundacion Dominicana de Autismo/ the Dominican Autism Foundation

It is a private non-profit institution, created under the protection of Law 520 and incorporated by Decree 386-97 of the Executive Power issued on September 4, 1997. The members of this organization are the parents of children with Autism. Within the membership there are assets, which are those that are systematically integrated into all the activities of the Institution and liabilities that are those that only participate sometimes, by invitation.

9.-Hogar Crea, Inc., (Dominican), emerged in the country as a response to the serious problem of drug abuse, opening the first treatment center on February 15, 1975. One year later it acquired legal status, the 6th February 1976, by Decree of the Executive Power

number 1708, protected under Law 122-05, which allows it to function as a non-profit civic and private entity and without distinction of race, sex, social status or religious beliefs.

Those institutions among other ONG's are the pool of institutions in charge of offering people with special needs programs, the only thing is, that there is not a connection between them and the universities in order to professionally train their personnel with appropriate EFL programs.

Strategies for EFL Teaching to People with Special Needs.

The primary aim of teaching and learning English as a foreign language is to develop students' communication skills because these skills are necessary in school and society. In the globalization era, English has become one of the most important languages of communication in the world. As Lewis (2011) puts it, "In today's world where a high percentage of students need or will need to be able to speak English outside the classroom, there is an absolute necessity to develop communicative competence as an integral part of an effective EFL syllabus" (p. 54). In school, oral communication skills are the bridge to literacy because they form the basis for literacy development at the beginning-level. Students cannot write what they cannot say. Oral language is a precursor to written language even if we do not write exactly the way we speak (Williams and Roberts, 2011). Moreover, both teacher-student and student-student interactions are important sources for EFL learning in the classroom. Through such interactions, input can be made comprehensible and meaning can be made clearer. Most importantly, communication makes language teaching more thoughtful, involves students in thinking and turns the language classroom into a community of thinkers. Therefore, it can develop students' higher order thinking skills. As Logan (2007) states, "Communication facilitates thinking and thinking facilitates communication. Dialogue and questions provoke new thoughts, new ideas, and new forms of language which require new vocabularies, and those new vocabularies then make new thoughts and insights possible" (p. 104). Therefore, in order for language learning and thinking to go hand-in-hand, students need to share their ideas with their teacher and other students. In the global society, English communication skills have become essential for attaining and performing many high- level jobs. They are amongst the most sought after skills by many employers. Many if not all employers rank communication skills among the most

important skills for graduates to possess upon their entry in the workplace. Furthermore, a variety of reports identify oral communication skills as the most important workplace skills for employees (e.g., Bauer 1995; Howe 2003; Wayne and Mitchell 1992). Therefore, Benson (1983), among many others, regard communication skills as one of the most important courses, business schools can teach their students, to prepare them for management positions, and to increase their occupational success.

Communication skills are also central in developing informed citizens who are capable of participation in the global society and democratic deliberation. Through communication, citizens can share perspectives for the benefit of the society as a whole. In recognition of this, the European Parliament and the Council of the European Union (2006) recommend that lifelong learning skills should include communication in the mother tongue and communication in an international foreign language.

Moreover, communication is a vital part of all aspects of life. As Bakhtin (1984) states, life by its very nature is dialogic and we need to freely engage in open ended dialogue to fully engage with life and learning. He states:

To live means to participate in dialogue: to ask questions, to heed, to respond, to agree, and so forth. In this dialogue a person participates wholly and throughout his whole life: with his eyes, lips, hands, soul, spirit, with his whole body and deeds. He invests his entire self in discourse, and this discourse enters into the dialogic fabric of human life, into the world symposium. (p. 293).

In a nutshell, it is clear that communication skills are vital to student success within and beyond school. These skills have been shown to increase academic, occupational and personal success. Therefore, Freire (2000) claims that “without communication there can be no true education” (p. 92).

Communication Strategy

Definition of communication strategies

There are a number of definitions for communication strategies. From different perspectives, linguists defined communication strategies in different ways. From a psycholinguistic perspective, communication strategies are defined as internal cognitive techniques used by a speaker to solve communication problems. In this respect, Corder (1981) defines communication strategies as systematic techniques employed by a speaker to express her/his meaning when faced with some difficulties. In a similar way, Færch and Kasper (1983b) define communication strategies as “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal” (p. 36). Likewise, Wenden (1986) defines communication strategies as techniques used by learners when there is a gap between their knowledge of the language and their communicative intent. Along the same line, Bialystok (1990) defines communication strategies as “strategies [that] are used only when a speaker perceives that there is a problem which may interrupt communication” (p. 3). From a psycho-social perspective, a broader definition of communication strategies was proposed by some linguists (e.g., Chuanchaisit and Prapphal, 2009; Dornyei and Scott, 1997; Malasit and Sarobol, 2013) who believe that a speaker does not only cooperate with his or her interlocutor to solve communication problems, but also finds a solution without the help of others and that communication requires the speaker to use inter- and intra- individual communication strategies. It is clear then that there is no universally accepted definition of communication strategies because these definitions, as mentioned before, are derived from different theoretical perspectives.

The psycholinguistic perspective views communication strategies as individual or cognitive processes for overcoming communication barriers, and neglects the role of the partner despite the fact that “language is [...] a living organism created by both speaker and hearer” (Tarone, 1981, p.288).

Chapter IV: Case Studies

1.-) Bilingual Programs for Deaf Students/A Mexican Case.

Summary

Teaching English to deaf students represents a re- of the curriculum and the adjustment of the teacher in this situation, who has to learn to observe their adaptation practice and their environment in a different way. Due to the many conditions that we as teachers must handle when attending students with hearing disabilities. This presentation was made which will discuss the importance that an English teacher should have to use the practical tools to teach English classes where there are students with hearing disabilities. These tools are the result of a research project that was carried out independently with a second semester group of the Baccalaureate of Special Education of the City of Colima with eight young people with hearing disabilities.

The research period was twenty-four sessions of one hour each and three times a week. During these sessions the observation of the class was made and the strategies employed by the teacher were noted. He used a field diary and twenty-four observation sheets. At the end of the treatment all the data were analyzed and from there the eight practical tools for teaching English to deaf young people were selected.

Reasons why this subject is decided

At the moment they ask us to choose a research topic to start this project, a moral commitment arises in me that I have in mind, contributing to something useful for the silent community, since I have been in contact with this community more than twenty years for the reason of having a child with profound hearing loss in both ears. In education always played me to side with the parents and often did not understand why the teachers were handled in a class in a certain way and did not know if they were really positive these activities, I often thought that the work of the teacher not It was enough to serve the deaf students. For many years

I had this idea and suddenly in my life there arises the opportunity to be on the other side and be part of the teaching work, that is why I have changed my place and I have put into practice the knowledge to be based on an observation and to be able to reach to answer the

questions of what should be the practical tools to teach English to students with hearing disabilities. Zavala (2009).

Hearing impairment

Hearing impairment It is the total or partial absence of the sense of hearing, which generates that the person who suffers it has a communication isolation, because it is absent from the sound stimulus. OECD (2007) In other words "... auditory disability is the total or partial loss of the sense of hearing that makes it difficult or impossible to grasp, recognize, discriminate and understand the auditory stimulus and the information it carries" (Mendoza, 2005 p.20). According to the same author

he says that this definition does not determine what are the characteristics of the auditory disability and its communicative modalities Disabled is "... one who, for physical, psychological and social reasons, requires support to interact with his environment and, if not provided, will live below his potential" (SEP, 1997 (1997

p 27, pxx). The person with disabilities has restrictions on their abilities and limitations to develop activities, but such condition should not limit the full exercise of the rights they have as a human being, and also points out that this difficulty for the disabled to exercise their rights depends on individuals, public and private institutions and society, guarantee a framework of dignity, respect and equity that it deserves to guarantee full access to opportunities and their future incorporation into the development of the country.

The author Mendoza (2005) comments on the term disability was accepted by the Royal Spanish Academy more than ten years ago and appears in the dictionary of the Spanish language. In recognition of the great power of language to influence and create impressions, the term disability is used to indicate that the subject has other abilities, meaning a lack of ability in a specific field.

The use of the term recognizes that all individuals with disabilities have a lot to contribute to our society. Other terms that are perhaps more common, such as disability or handicap, may imply that they are people without skill or of lesser value. Integration and educational inclusion of the deaf.

The meaning of the word integrate is not restricted to students with needs special (who suffer some disability) but also covers those who come from marginal sectors relegated by

their own culture. Veirberg (2002) When a student with different abilities arrives (for example deafness) the teacher must consider the details of the characteristics of the new member of the group in order to design their class planning in advance. Vierberg (2002). Of the types of integration mentioned in the Warnock Report (Warnock, 1978), those in which the students share classrooms with their regular classmates, requiring special contents individually or in a subgroup, seem to be the most suitable for the deaf. (It refers to the identification of similar needs to work with these small groups in the classroom. (Torres, 2009) It is necessary that the deaf student be prepared in a specialized center until he is autonomous in the comprehension of Spanish, unless the classroom where the integration takes place has an interpreter and the deaf student has to sign in. Intensifying the support for the gradual incorporation will have repercussions on the development of competences Torres (2009) Carton (1860) indicates that "There is no in which the language of the isolated deaf-mute is as limited as his circle of ideas; but it develops so quickly when they [...] are reunited in society "Starting from the experience of the National Institute of Human Communication (INCH) since 1974, it has generated different types of integration and nowadays its teaching strategies based on the oral method are preserved . Sánchez (2010).

On the other hand According to the author Veirberg (2002) states that the teachers who incorporate the group to students (called integration) ask themselves what will be the appropriate methodologies to work with integrated students? Also what contents should include and how to select them.

Geographical Background

In the city of Colima, the technological and industrial high school baccalaureate center, it is a study center that offers education at the upper secondary level. Dependent of the General Directorate of Industrial Technological Education, technical baccalaureate courses in accounting, electricity and tourism administration are offered, these careers within the baccalaureate modality schooled with morning and evening shifts.

Within this institution, there is an open system of Industrial Technology Education (SAETI), which is a non-school Saturday format, offering the bivalent Technological Baccalaureate in the upper secondary education system. Likewise, in this institution, a

space is offered to the baccalaureate not enrolled for students with disabilities. This program has the purpose of offering educational services to young people and adults for the acquisition, official accreditation and certification of knowledge. Students enrolled in this program have some disability such as: auditory, visual, language, mental, motor. In this baccalaureate the general curricula of the open system not schooled are taught, attending counseling sessions on Tuesdays and Thursdays in the afternoon shift; Saturday in the morning. Subjects such as reading methodology, history, writing workshop, English, mathematics and others are accredited through an exam and are the only means to carry out the evaluation of the subject; the exams are prepared and qualified by the national central management in Mexico City and the passing grade is from six. Each student of this program has a scholarship that is an element of motivation to complete their studies. Within the requirements to register, they need to present a medical certificate that diagnoses some of the aforementioned disabilities.

The teaching staff has to make use and practice of the Mexican Sign Language, special recordings of the lessons for weak visuals and use of the Braille system, as well as necessary strategies to attend students with intellectual deficit. There are five groups and an average of twenty-five students per group is served. Students who do not attend their classroom counseling are also enrolled and they only show up at the school the day the test will be applied. Complying with the expectations of educational incorporation for students with disabilities, is this unique center in the state of Colima, thus serving students from all neighboring municipalities and some of the state of Jalisco as it is the case of Tonila.

Observation

The present investigation is based on the observations of the observation made to the English class for the deaf, in such a way that a group of students with hearing disability was selected to observe and record the events that occurred during the class. Because "qualitative research is based more on an inductive process such as exploring and describing and then generating theoretical perspectives, they go from the particular to the general" (Hernández et al, 2010, p.9). This means that the observations provided meanings to interpret whether the adjustments to the curriculum were assertive to teach classes to students with hearing impairment.

Results of the Observation

When analyzing the instruments of observation, it was discovered that there was a series of activities that were repeated continuously because the instructor teacher analyzed their usefulness. The students showed interest in some cases and in others they were easily distracted, with respect to the adaptations implemented to teach the class they were throwing utility or failure in its use. The following strategies were used by the teacher of the group described below:

- 1.- The use of sign language. Because it is a merged group that includes students with different disabilities, it is necessary to pay attention to communication with each one of them. That is why the teacher has to be giving the explanation orally and manually at the same time. The interpretation of sign language is in Spanish because it is the language that students know and the English class can only work on reading and writing skills only.
- 2.- Use of visual support. It has been a little used strategy due to the ages of the students, they like it when the teacher uses a didactic game on the computer and projects it but it is a bit slow to install it, because the classroom conditions are austere and do not have the technology what the teacher should bring portable equipment.
- 3.- Use of the textbook. It is a tool of great use because all the contents of the course are there, also the teacher has found a good way to put them to practice because it is a book that contains the explanation and practice exercises
- 4.- Detailed explanation so that they understand. Considering that it is a group of students with disabilities it is necessary to repeat the explanations in a very clear way to achieve understanding. If the students do not understand, for example, a grammatical theme, the teacher has to provide another way of explaining it as many times as necessary for the students to understand, that is why when the explanation the teacher asks if there is any doubt.
- 5.- Explanation on the board. It is a very common activity in the classroom, the teacher for explain any topic makes use of the board, as well as when you put some work in the notebook and when he presents some work for the class. It also serves to indicate

instructions of tasks or exercises. The use is extended beyond the above by serving also as a group work sheet where students go to the board and participate doing some exercise.

6.- Interpretation of meanings to explain vocabulary. In the search that the students can reach to understand the vocabulary the interpretation has been used manual, with many examples and synonyms so that they can understand the word they are explaining as well as, it also uses mime to give more strength to the interpretation.

7.- Use of the self-study method. For the modality of this school that is not school, that is, they only attend three days a week for counseling, it is necessary to make a strong effort so that students get used to working on their own because they have very little time to take face-to-face classes. In this tool the book of work and the teacher asks that the exercises of the subject that they are seeing in that. At the moment, in the next class it is reviewed that they have fulfilled the work at home, they ask if they had any questions.

8.- English Club only students. This tool consists in taking an additional half hour or forty minutes(once a week) to the classes so that the most outstanding students explain to those who least understood the topic and they can understand each other in their own words. It is also a time to exchange opinions and find the way that has been easier to understand. In this club there is no intervention of the teacher is only performed by the same students. For those who perform the role of explaining is as a privilege or prize because they have considered that they have knowledge of the subject. There have been students who refuse to attend because they have no interest in learning and for them it is easier to say is that I do not understand. The way of working is only with the blackboard and the students sitting on a half-moon so that each of them can express themselves.

Conclusions

Strategies can be many for teaching English to deaf students, but the important thing to consider as a teacher instructor is the utility and the result of a strategy that can be adapted according to the context. In this group of students in particular these eight strategies are the most useful and useful for both the student and the teacher. The results have been optimal and this has made progress in learning a second language. Zavala (2009).

2.-) Bilingual Programs for Deaf Students/ A Spanish Case.

Navarro (2011) presented the following classification on audiological classification among Other considerations as part of her Doctoral Thesis presentation *The Teaching of Languages to Deaf. Study of Programs in Spain and France (XVII-XX)* (Universidad de Granada)

Audiological classification

Depending on the degree of hearing loss after the application of tonal audiometries, measured in decibels (dB), several categories are established:

1) Mild or slight hearing loss It is mild or light hearing loss. The hearing threshold ranges between 20 and 40 dB. The subjects with this deficiency show certain difficulties in hearing, oral comprehension and articulation of words. Speech and language therapy is required for a specific time.

2) Average or moderate hearing loss. It is moderate or moderate hearing loss. It oscillates between 41 and 70 dB. From the 41 to the 55 dB, moderate hearing loss of the first degree is considered, and from the 56 to the 70 second degree. Although it is usually possible for these subjects to acquire linguistic competence through the auditory pathway, they are very likely to need

hearing aids, speech therapy support and lip-facial reading.

3) Severe hearing loss. It is a severe hearing impairment. With a hearing threshold between 71 and 90 dB (first degree: from 71 to 80 dB, and second: from 81 to 90 dB). Since it is not possible for them to learn the language in a spontaneous way, these subjects need speech therapy intervention to learn and achieve intelligible speech.

In addition, auditory stimulation and training is required, with the aim of taking advantage of the auditory remnants in the discrimination of phonemes, with the help of lip reading.

4) Deep hearing loss or profound hearing loss. The auditory threshold is greater than 90 dB and can reach up to 120 dB (first degree: 91-100 dB, second degree: 101-110 dB and third degree: 111-120 dB). People who have this type of deficiency do not perceive speech in an auditory way. They only perceive strong noises by vibration. Speech therapy and auditory stimulation are also required with the help of special resources of vibrotactile nature and above all, visual.

5) Cofosis, anacusia or deafness. It is a very deep deficiency, whose hearing thresholds are above 120 dB, which prevents the subject who suffers from the perception of the most common sounds of the context that surrounds us.

2 According to the presented audiological classification, the use of the term deafness is restricted to those cases whose hearing thresholds are above 120 dB. For others, as long as the classification is followed according to the degree of hearing loss, the denomination of hearing loss is used. (Navarro, 2011, pp. 47-48)

Otological classification

This classification is made according to the criterion of the affected physiological structure or area of the injured auditory apparatus, distinguishing (Marchesi, 1987):

Conductive or transmission deafness. The injured area is located in the outer or middle ear. The effects of this type of hearing impairment are mostly reversible with a good pharmacological and / or surgical treatment. There is no great obstacle to the acquisition and development of language. Actually, it implies that the bone pathway is normal but the airway is pathological.

2) Neurosensory or perception deafness. The lesion is located in the cochlea or cochlear nerve or area of the temporal lobe. They affect not only the amount of sound but also the quality. Both the bone and air pathways are affected. This deficiency does prevent the natural acquisition of oral language and verbal thinking,

altering the perception and construction of the environment, in addition to socio-affective development. Currently, cochlear implants have become a means to approach with hopeful results.

3) Mixed or combined. Also called central, cortical deafness. The pathology is as much in the way of sound conduction as of perception. It is one in which the two previous types of deafness concur simultaneously. (P.49)

Universal Verbal Auditory System (SUVAG)

People with hearing impairment need to train their hearing, learn to discriminate sounds and associate them with facial lip reading. For this purpose, the equipment for auditory

training is needed. One of the most well-known instruments in the specialized educational environment is the Universal Verbal Auditory System of Gubergine, an instrument that is part of the verbotonal methodology initiated by Petar Guberina (Ferrer, 2002, Alonso and Cruz, 2003). It consists of an electronic filter device that modifies the reception of sound. It facilitates the auditory perception of speech, filtering it by the optimal hearing field of each person. It requires a specific adjustment of the filters for the user and a solid training for its management. The purpose of this methodology is to develop oral language by reeducating the audition. It has complements for the transmission of sound in a vibro-tactile way. The team is designed to work in group programs for early attention, training and auditory stimulation, articulation and speech acquisition. There is a similar device, inspired by the same principles of the SUVAG, the GAES 100 KT for auditory training adjusting to the hearing curve of each user and the amplification of the voice between 0 and 100 dB using headphones (P54-55)

Linguistic Development of the Deaf Child

In this section, we try to show, in general terms, what the communicative-linguistic development of a supposed child with deafness would look like. The study of the communicative and linguistic development of these children entails multiple difficulties. The lack of hearing imposes limits on communication. In principle, the possibility of making profitable the auditory rest, according to the degree of loss and the quality of the prosthetic adaptation, hearing aids or implants (Silvestre and Valero, 2006), as well as the stimuli received from the surroundings define the mechanisms by which the person affected can access the oral language. In addition to the obvious individual differences, the communicative-linguistic development of the child with deafness also usually occurs in non-uniform linguistic environments. As we will describe in the section dedicated to communicative modalities: in some cases, the first language (L1) of these children is sign language; in others, communicative exchanges occur exclusively in the language of the speaking community and, in certain situations, other children with deafness perform their interactions orally or with the support of a complementary or augmentative communication

system. For this reason, the variables related to the communicative modality used should always be taken into account.

In general terms, the initial development of communication in the deaf child follows similar patterns to those of the hearing child. The dyadic mother-child relationships help the child in the construction of his first schemes of social interaction and contribute to his development as a person (Alonso, Gómez and Salvador, 1995).

The lack of hearing will deprive the child of important information (capture of the sounds of language and environment, intentionality of the interlocutor) of special importance for the development of pre-verbal communication, losing in the interaction the character of reciprocity. Thus, gradually, the acquisition and development of language in the deaf child becomes a slow process and full of difficulties. For a of the patterns of communicative-linguistic development in the hearing child and the deaf child, see Gallego Ortega (2008).

Below, some characteristics of the evolution of the communicative-linguistic development of the child with hearing disability are exposed, within the speaking community (Silvestre and Valero, 2006, Jiménez and López, 2003):

The laleo and the emission of the first syllables, which appear in the hearing child between 6 and 9 months, occur later in the deaf child.

- The first words do not appear before 18 months, while in the hearing children they appear around the year.
- The combination of two words to form sentences (12-18 months in listeners), is also later.
- If in the listener there is an acceleration in the acquisition of the lexicon from 50 first words (24 months), in the deaf no. Commits a greater number of grammatical errors than listeners (omission of elements with less significance load such as prepositions, conjunctions, determinants).
- The telegraphic stage (which appears at 2 years in listeners) does not occur in deaf children before 5 years of age.
- They present more difficulty than listening children to internalize complex syntactic forms.
- His speech is unintelligible due to lack of feedback.

Regarding the main difficulties they present at the time of speaking, those associated with pronunciation stand out. The joint becomes inaccurate and slow and with greater errors in the emission of sound phonemes than in the deaf. Audiological dyslalias are common (difficulties in the phonemic articulation, due to loss or diminution of the hearing). The child who presents an audiogenic dyslalia "(...) will have special difficulty in recognizing and reproducing sounds that offer a similarity to each other, due to the lack of auditory discrimination" (Pascual García, 1988). The treatment of functional dyslexia may also be valid for the hearing aid. Frequently, in this type of dyslalias there are different kinds of phonological processes:(P56-58)

Other characteristic difficulties of the child with deafness are:

- On multiple occasions they show irregular breathing (due to a lack of coordination of the organs involved) and an absence of melody in the discourse that conditions the reception of the listener's message.
 - Often the voice is badly imposed, it is hoarse, poorly controlled. These children present specific alterations of the voice that is too acute or very severe, commonly nasalized, with a hoarse and guttural timbre and lack of control in the tone (severe / acute) and intensity (weak / strong).
 - The production and fluency of the word is usually irregular, shock, abrupt, too slow or even run over.
 - Sometimes there is no melody or is distorted; the intonation is rarely controlled.
 - The form of the words and expressions is imprecise, poorly captured, badly reproduced, which produces confusion of meanings.
 - Frequently the vocabulary is poor, imprecise and very confusing.
 - Incorrect language of various types persists in the language. (p 59)
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Hearing: type of deafness, degree of hearing loss, etiology of deafness.

In addition, it is necessary to know the benefits that, if applicable, provide the deaf child with the aids or technical resources used (hearing aids, frequency-modulated equipment) for capturing, adapting and amplifying acoustic signals. In this sense, it is interesting to know the degree of autonomy that the child has for the placement and maintenance of the prosthesis, the degree of general acceptance of the help, the family supports that it demands, the use it makes, the hearing gain it obtains, the degree of compensation that this help represents, etc. Other significant information must also be obtained about the receptive capacity of the student, which can be provided by other agents (especially by the speech therapist and the tutor). Hearing: type of deafness, degree of hearing loss, etiology of deafness.

On the other hand, following the substantive dimension of evaluation of the communicative capacity of deaf people, it is necessary to evaluate the context, both environmental and personal, in which the child develops. Assessing the environment of the deaf child is also important in planning the intervention, since the physical condition and personal factors determine, to a large extent, the communicative potential of these people. The following are of special interest:

- The acoustic conditions of the classroom.
- The degree of luminosity and orientation.
- The communicative modality used in the family and social environment of the student.

- The quality and quantity of the most common communicative interactions in the student's school environment.
- The presence of visual obstacles that the speaker himself presents (such as, for example, an oversized mustache that partially hides the mouth ...), or the use in some moments of objects (for example, playing with a pencil or ballpoint pen near mouth...).
- The speed at which verbal messages are issued.
- The communicative adaptations made by the interlocutors (simplifications, expansions, alternating the look ...).
- The degree of grammatical complexity used by the interlocutors.

A. Language tests (or intelligence with verbal factor). These are tests or instruments that have proven their reliability and validity, very useful in the evaluation process, but they should not have an exclusivist character. In spite of its many advantages, the evaluation of communication and language, in general, and of a deaf child, in particular, can not be reduced to the application of a test, given the inconveniences that this entails (Gallego, 1999). These are essential instruments to assess the communicative and linguistic development of a subject, but not unique. Evaluating a child's language is somewhat more complex than applying a standardized test, since it exceeds the simple assignment of a score and implies a deep knowledge of the subject's evolutionary and cognitive development.

Among the tests of language (or intelligence with verbal factor), we can mention, for its relevance, the following: Objective and Criterial Language Battery (BLOC) (Puyuelo et al., 2002). It is a normative test and referred to the criterion in the language area to identify specific aspects at linguistic level and have a method to follow the evolution of the individual. It is applied in an age range ranging from 5 to 14 years. The authors have divided each module into blocks, each composed of 10 items, which allow the evaluation of the acquisition of rules and repertoires in the areas of morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics.

- Exploration of the Comprehensive and Expressive Language (óE pLezCE) (LGINés and others,2007). This test allows to evaluate different processes related to the understanding and expression of language.

Its application range is from 2.5 to 9 years. Evaluate aspects of phonetics-phonology, semantics, analysis-synthesis and thinking. It has been designed for professional use in the diagnostic functions of language assessment in the school context. The understanding of language is valued at the sensory-perceptual level (semantics, analysis-synthesis and thought) and pure verbal (phono-articulatory organs and praxies, phonetics and phonology, perception and auditory discrimination).

- Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT). With this test you can assess the recognition of a restricted repertoire of 100 words, ordered by their difficulty. Use as stimuli sheets containing four images for the child to choose the one that corresponds to the word-stimulus. Evaluates receptive vocabulary and is applicable from 2.5 years.

- Development of Syntax in children (TSA) (Aguado, 1989). Designed to assess the comprehension and expression of morphosyntactic forms acquired, emerging or absent.

Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities of Kirk, McCarthy and Kirk (ITPA). The main objective of this test is to detect possible failures or difficulties in the communication process (deficiencies in perception, interpretation or transmission) that are the cause of most school learning problems. At the same time, in a complementary way, it tries to highlight the skills or positive conditions that can be used to support a recovery program. Now we have a new version with completely updated stimuli and with a typification based on a large representative sample of the Spanish population. This new version allows professionals to apply one of the most prestigious and used tests for the evaluation of language problems, with stimuli and current scales, maintaining the original theoretical approach of ITPA. It covers three processes (receptive, associative and expressive),two channels (auditory-verbal and visual-motor) and two levels of organization (representative and automatic). It has an application range ranging from 2.5 to 10.5 years of age.

1 The language samples. The analysis of language, based on samples obtained in natural communication contexts, is considered a useful evaluation procedure. The chosen sample

must be representative of the child's language, for which it is necessary to record about 30 minutes of interaction, which will probably be obtained around the 100 linguistic productions of the child. During the collection of the sample, it is essential that the evaluator respects the interests and needs of the child, so that it is expressed without restrictions, that it uses an appropriate syntax and a vocabulary that is close and comprehensible to the child, and that it avoids making corrections to the verbal productions that the child emits. All this through the use of resources or suggestive materials, which incite the child to speak and do not suppose their initiatives. (P78-85)

Educational intervention in the communicative-linguistic field

In general, the intervention of language is understood as a dynamic, multidimensional and interactive process, which aims to stimulate the development of language and communication, preventing possible alterations from being reinforced or rehabilitating existing ones (Gallego, 1999). To establish an intervention project, it is necessary to determine the linguistic elements that the child needs to generalize the communication that allows him to build a functional and structured system of verbal exchange.

The education of language and communication in the deaf child has undergone significant changes over time, ranging from the defense of oral methods to the passionate protection of gestural methods. At present, however, the positions have softened and the bet on bilingual approaches seems to gain strength every day. The reason may be, according to different authors, that bilingual options are considered more suitable to alleviate the gap between the performances achieved by deaf students compared to listeners, since educational communication is only possible if it is developed in a language to which all students have access. From a bilingual perspective (sign language / language of the listening community), it is considered that the knowledge of a visual-gestural language favors the learning of oral language. However, the defense of a certain methodology can not be transformed into a "crusade", nor should it be ignored that if the deaf child can not spontaneously acquire a language, it must be thought in terms of "education" of the same. In all cases, early stimulation is seen as an essential action in the intervention process. For the intervention to be successful, the professional must consider the parents as the primary recipients of the education program. The teaching of language in the child with hearing impairment does not

have special difficulties in those cases of slight hearing loss, following a language acquisition process similar to hearing children; it suffices, in these cases, with the fulfillment of some norms and the follow-up of certain guidelines that can be useful in the classroom to favor the communicative and linguistic development of the children (Valmaseda, 1999):

- Try to adapt to the communicative and linguistic capacities of the child, following a criterion of joint construction, that is, of scaffolding.
- Respect the motivations and experiences of the child, to try to make the learning meaningful.
- Facilitate interaction through the use of open questions or comments on tasks, avoiding question-answer confrontation.
- Carry out extensions of the child's expressions, favoring their communicative initiatives.
- Prevent the child from reproducing his erroneous or incomplete productions.
- Prolong the duration of the child's intervention shift.
- Offer positive feedback about what you do correctly.
- Promote different uses of language (describe, express ...)
- Promote the use of language referring to situations beyond the "here-now".
- Support understanding with non-verbal information (gestural and visual).
- Enhance the game as a context that gives rise to spontaneous language.
- Ensure the transfer of information between the family and the school.

However, when there are severe or profound hearing losses, the circumstances change considerably. In addition to respecting the proposed indications, one should not ignore the difficulties to implant a verbal behavior to many of these subjects, so it may be advisable to resort to other communication systems, whose choice will depend on the peculiarities that each specific case requires. However, far from any hasty decision and within the methodological complexity, the following aspects should be taken into account (Torres and Santana, 2002):

- The method of intervention must serve to establish an effective communication system between the deaf child and his environment.

- Although the chosen method is gestural, the development of oral language should be stimulated through a program of auditory stimulation.
- The work program must necessarily consider the participation of the family.
- Language development is only part of the intervention program.
- Parents must be informed to know and choose and trained to act appropriately in the chosen communication system.

Communication Modalities

The most significant modalities¹ for communication and language in children with hearing difficulties are described below (Torres, 1988, Valmaseda, 1995, Torres and Rodríguez, 1995, Gallego, 2008), taking into account that early auditory stimulation, whose aim is to preserve the quantity and quality of the child's spontaneous vocalizations, it is essential if we want to favor the passage from vocal productions to verbal productions and then to linguistic productions (Morrow-Lettre, 1991). Communication requires the presence of a code, which needs to be shared by the interlocutors.

Oral mode

The oral methods use the auditory remains and the lip-facial reading to stimulate the development of the language. The lip-facial reading (LLF) is transcendental for the understanding of the language, when the sound perception lacks sufficient acoustic stimuli (Calvo, 1999); it is a complementary path to the auditory and necessary for the acquisition of language in subjects with hearing problems. It is based on the recognition of words and the reception of messages, based on the movements and positions of the visible articulatory organs of the interlocutor. Despite its limitations (illumination, distance and position of the speaker ...), the LLF represents a considerable help for the child with hearing impairment, because, when it is able to decipher the words that come from the lips of the speaker, it can enrich their linguistic knowledge, establish other relationships of meaning among the words, discover new terminological meanings or infer the meaning of the words by the context (Silvestre Benach et al., 1998). For the communication to be facilitated, it is necessary that the subject with deafness have an adequate level of intellectual development, as well as that the interlocutor adopts a frontal position, of proximity to it and that he speaks slowly. Eye contact is essential for the LLF.

The LLF requires continuous inferences and deductions from the interlocutor, which depend on: a) the knowledge that the listener has of the language itself (phonological-morphosyntactic-semantic-pragmatic) and b) its ability to understand the context in which it is situated the conversation (Silvestre and Laborda, 1998). However, the visual perception of speech is never clear and ambiguity always masks the LLF, since certain words, having different acoustic realizations, have the same visual articulation (mom / dad-kiss / weight).

While the vision, for children born deaf or acquire this condition before conquering the language, will be their bond with the world and the main channel of communication (Alonso, Gómez and Salvador, 1995).

Among the oral methods, the Verbotonal Guberina method stands out for its popularity, which is based on the use and optimization of the auditory remains of the subject and emphasizes the possibilities of auditory perception through aerial and tactile, by means of an apparatus (SUVAG) that acts as amplifier and encoder of the sounds until obtaining a field of optimal perception (Torres and others, 1995). For this methodology, prosthetic adaptation is essential.

The verbotonal methodology pursues two objectives: a) the discovery of sound by the subject; b) the development of the linguistic stages through which the hearing child transits. For this purpose, auditory reeducation is essential, as well as the correct use of speech and prosodic speech elements. According to this method, auditory learning is organized according to the following sections (Gajic et al., 1985):

- 1) Learning to listen: education of attention towards sound stimuli. Location of the sound source:
- 2) identification of the sound and its meaning.

Oral modality complemented

This modality includes, as most representative, the Bimodal System or signed language and the Complementary Word (PC). Bimodalism (Schlesinger, 1978), introduced in Spain by Monfort and others (1982), consists in the simultaneous use of signs and words. The auditory oral modality joins the visual-gestural modality, so that the messages are

expressed in two communication systems at the same time. It is an augmentative system of the oral, with the peculiarity that some words (mainly those of semantic content: verbs, adverbs, nouns and adjectives) are articulated simultaneously with the mouth and hands, while others, the so-called functional words (conjunctions, interjections, articles ...), they are always present at the oral level, but they are usually not at the signed level.

The base language is always the oral one.

A special mention deserves the PC or "Cued Speech" (Cornett, 1967), adapted to Castilian by Torres (1988). Cornett (1967) devised this method to overcome the limitations of teaching language through the LLF, completing the information provided by the lips with the hands. The PC, designed for the education of deaf students, is a system composed of two sources of information: the lip reading, which has linguistic value, and the manual keys, without linguistic value. Its main objective is to facilitate the understanding of speech sounds by means of manual signals, which are made on the subject's face so that lip movements and manual signals can be perceived globally by the interlocutor. The configuration of the fingers informs about the consonants and the position of the hand over the vowels (Cf. Torres, 1998). This methodology consists of eight manual configurations, which allow to identify the consonants and three locations for the "articulation" of the vowels. The speaker's hand can be in three positions: side of the face (/ a /), chin (/ e /, / o /) and throat (/ i /, / u /).

Their learning is usually not expensive and the simplicity of their combinations make the PC a simple system to assimilate and easy to combine with the usual speed of speech.

Complements the LLF.

Gestural Modality

The sign language, of very restricted use, is the most common gestural communication system. In fact, it is also a complementary system of oral communication, a means of transmitting language based primarily on the movement of hands, which make up the letters of the alphabet. It should be noted, however, that sign language, in principle, is a manual system other than sign language and is equivalent to spelling the written

words by hand. Its biggest disadvantage, probably, is the impossibility of synchronicity between the succession of letters (sign language is writing in the air) and the rhythm of

speech. Actually, digital spelling is not fast. It has survived only as a complement to other methods. Especially to spell proper names and technical words within the framework of sign languages. You can not do without an alphabet.

Signed Modality

Sign language (LS) is a visuo-gestural communication system, used mainly by the adult deaf community. It is considered as an adequate means of support and an instrument that facilitates the learning of the language. Indeed, if at first it was considered as a form of communication that hindered the acquisition of the spoken word, being considered as a set of iconic gestures barely structured and unable to express abstract ideas, today, together with the recognition of sign languages, tend to be considered as a facilitator of language, since gestural communication is the appropriate response for the deaf child to organize the language at a normal age. Six formational parameters of the gestural sign have been indicated (Rodríguez,1992):

- 1) the queiremas or configurations of the hand;
- 2) the toponemes or places in which the sign is made;
- 3) the kinemas or movements of the hand;
- 4)the kineprosemas or directions of the movements of the hand;
- 5) the queirotopemas or orientations of the hand;
- 6) Prosopnemes or expressions of the face.

Written mode

Children with hearing impairment have difficulties in the acquisition and development of literacy and its obvious incidence in the social integration of deaf children, including school (so that very few who get to overcome Secondary Education, to access studies higher and to achieve a good level of professional qualification), qualified intervention is essential. Even with the caution implied by generalizations and affirmations about the difficulties of deaf children, given the specific needs of each one, according to the internal and contextual factors that interact in their development, certain educational needs can be proposed or inferred. must respond to education professionals. The most relevant needs, for these children to be able to understand and express texts written properly, are the following (Gutiérrez Cáceres, 2005): Navarro (P94-98).

One of the most relevant aspects of the topic being examined is that of the EFL teaching methodology to people with hearing impairments; the following chapter of her work (Chapter II) offers us her reflections on that matter.

The Teaching-Learning of Languages in Deaf Persons Linguistics and Didactics.

For Mounin (1982) language is any system of double-articulated vocal signs, typical of a given human community. However, the language is seen as the aptitude observed in all human beings to communicate through languages, also called languages. As far as the term speaks, we will refer to it according to the Saussurian definition, collected by the etymological dictionary of languages: "individual act of the exercise of language, produced by choosing certain signs, among those offered by the language, through its oral or written performance ", Without forgetting that it has a second meaning:" means of linguistic communication of a homogenous human group from a sociocultural point of view "(Mounin, 1982, 91).

For some cognitivists, language is defined as a psychological faculty, a mental organ, a neuronal system or a computational model. Within the field of evolutionary psychology, Pinker's studies (1994) attempt to explain how language appears in man as instinct. The instinct of language understood as an instinct to learn, to speak and to understand language is considered "an oeuvre maîtresse du genie de la nature" (Pinker, 1994,cited in Suso, 2003, 19). Around the question of the origin of language, highlights the concept of "action language" of the sensualists (Presneau, 1998): its main representative is Condillac (creator of sensualist philosophy, synthesis of that of Descartes, Newton and Locke). Interrogating the origin of languages, according to Lucretius, Vitruve, Vico, Warburton, Vossius, he invented the concept of "action language" as a primitive language made of gestures, body movements and onomatopoeias and screams. For Condillac and his disciples, everything came from the senses, the problem was to imagine how the first men had started talking. The language of action was imagined as natural, but at the same time learned. Therefore, the signs of the deaf could serve as an illustration of the theories about the origin of languages and led to the approach towards those who were responsible for the education of the deaf: first to Pereira and then to the abbe L'Épée. "Rousseau croyait

trouver chez Pereire the confirmation of are hypothèse, antinomique de celle sur le langage d'action, sur le langage" donné "(...)" (Presneau, 1998, 45). Prior to Condillac, others had made the gestural signs of the creator of sensualist philosophy, synthesis of that of Descartes, Newton and Locke). Interrogating the origin of languages, according to Lucretius, Vitruve, Vico, Warburton, Vossius, he invented the concept of "action language" as a primitive language made of gestures, body movements and onomatopoeias and screams. For Condillac and his disciples, everything came from the senses, the problem was to imagine how the first men had started talking.

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According to Suso and Fernández, the concept of language varies according to the uses of the term and the evolution of the adopted point of view: (...) a second way of approaching the concept of language consists in examining the uses that are made of such a term, the definitive way of proceeding of the encyclopedic disciplines (...) the language has been conceived thus, according to the evolution of the point of view adopted, in very different ways.(Suso and Fernández, 2001, 47)

On the other hand, Carrillo López (2008) points out the distinction of two opposing theoretical models. One of them, the Cartesian, is more oriented to the formal or linguistic paradigm; while the Hegelian framework emphasizes the functional or communicative paradigm. Similarly, Forrester, cited by Rio, summarizes the state of the question and opposes: "(...) the" representationalists "to the" sociofunctionalists "(...)". According to this

author,(...) The representational point of view unites Chomskians, connectionists, constructivists and those who feel "computational inclinations" being the preferred approach of the students of artificial intelligence. For its part, the socio functional point of view, "Forrester continues," arises from behavioral and ethological orientations and serves to construct pragmatic and sociolinguistic conceptions, being the preferred approach for professionals working in the field of language psychopathology.

(Rio, 1997, 16). Another concept that can be defined is that of teaching and learning, conceived as the process or act in which a series of dimensions and agents come together, among which the teacher, students, content and contexts are essential. In modern didactic perspective, within the teaching staff is admitted both classroom teachers and support teachers and specialists, in the case at hand, hearing and language teachers, speech therapists and specialists in attention to students with hearing impairment. Regarding the student body, and based on the Inclusive School that illuminates our current educational legislation, the student is included with their abilities intact and also those who have some impaired skills, in our case, hearing ability, classified in our legal system as students with special educational needs related to hearing loss. The contents are the object of the teaching, without prejudice to the objectives, skills, abilities and more currently, competences. In order to adapt the contents to students with hearing deficiencies, appropriate curricular adaptations should be made. From the contexts, it is worth noting that it is not only limited to the classroom context, not even the center context, but also to the family context and other specific institutions that, in this case, dedicate their efforts to the education of deaf children, such as of attention to the deaf and hearing impaired, deaf federations, the educational community, etc. Didactics of languages is a young discipline whose object of study is the teaching-learning process of languages, with the purpose of improving this process, providing it with greater systematicity and efficiency. For Comenius, in the words of Germain founder of the "Didactics of languages" as a scientific discipline, "La" didactique "(...) means" art d'enseigner "(...) (Germain, 1993, 85). The content of teaching-learning of it are the languages, first, second and foreign. By first language (L1) is understood the communication system that the subject acquires and / or learns in the first place and is also called the native or mother tongue. Complementary to

this first language, second languages(L2) are acquired and learned after the first. From this concept can be defined the third and successive languages, which are also considered second languages although they refer to a language that chronologically is not the second. If they are acquired after the first language, foreign languages are also considered second languages.

The difference lies in the following fact: foreign languages come from contexts foreign to those in which they are studied or acquired. The languages of past eras that are no longer spoken are considered dead languages and in this sense, foreign languages (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1994). Both the second languages, understood as those that are acquired in an environment where it functions as native, such as foreign languages, can be learned simultaneously with the first. In this case, what has been called bilingualism occurs, a term that we will address later because it is considered the most appropriate approach at present to address the linguistic education of deaf people. Because of its difference, it is convenient to define the acquisition of language. It is about the apprehension of a linguistic code used by the community in which the child develops, and that under normal conditions occurs spontaneously (Muñoz Liceras, 1992), although only in its oral aspect. The learning of the written dimension (reading and written expression) is understood as a more artificial, planned and more conscious process that culminates with the acquisition and mastery of this code, and that takes place in a specific context, in our society in the system educational. The truth is that both processes are complementary and coincide in their objective: the development and use of a communication system / s useful in the society in which the student is inserted. In the words of Germain: The language teaching programs are didactic proposals that guide the realization of a teaching-learning process of the language, in certain contexts and with specific students. They usually appear at present in courses, methods and manuals of practical application, like those that have been object of analysis of this thesis. In our study, this term has a less restrictive consideration than the one pointed out by Richards and Rodgers (1998), which incorporate it only to refer to the design part of a teaching system, which is related to the selection and organization of content linguistic. In addition, these authors associate the term "program" with methods more focused on the result than on the process:

Traditionally, the term program has been used to refer to the way in which linguistic content is specified in a course or method. Inevitably, the term has been closely associated with methods more focused on the result than on the process (...). The term program, however, is used less frequently in process-based methods, in which content considerations of the language are often secondary (...). (Richards and Rodgers, 1998, 28)

And they distinguish in the method three aspects: focus, design and procedures. In contrast, Germain chooses to consider synonyms the terms method and approach and gives them the meaning given by H. Besse: "a raisonné ensemble of propositions et de procédés (...)

destinés à organiser et à favoriser l'ensei l'apprentissage d 'une langue seconde.' (Germain, 1993, 16) seconde.' (Germain, 1993, 16) On the other hand, the concept of teaching-learning languages, from the point of view of the teaching programs that are the focus of this Thesis memory as well as its evolutionary character, can be defined, according to Martí Peris, as:

(...) set of procedures aimed at directing learning in formal contexts. Traditionally, the teaching elaborated programs focused on the linguistic forms to learn (derived from a structuralist analysis of the language); Subsequently, programs focused on linguistic functions (obtained through discourse analysis) were developed; and more recently, programs focused on the learner are proposed, which incorporate linguistic forms and functions, but which are organized from a perspective: that of the personal development of the learner. In this perspective, the teacher stops being a transmitter of knowledge to become an interpreter of the performance of his students.

(Mendoza Fillola, 1998, 94) as cited by Navarro (PP 105-111)

Results of the Investigation. Concrete Analysis of the Programs Analyzed

Here [In this chapter] the results that have been obtained from the contrast of the different programs object of this study and whose description appears in the previous section are presented. We proceed to present the results of the comparative and global analyzes of the programs described in their relevant dimensions in the previous chapter, which serves as the basis for this. The results presented here are more oriented towards the concise response to the objectives set out in this research, that is, towards the elaboration of the conclusions. The dimensions compared have been those described above with emphasis on the chronological moment, the methodological orientation, the contexts in which it is designed and implemented and the links of the programs. Prior to this deeper analysis, a preliminary analysis is made of the nomenclature used by the authors in the different methods and the evolution, if any, of the previous concepts, some nonexistent, wrong and currently repealed. Attention is also paid to the social and scientific consideration of hearing impairment and its evolution throughout the different historical moments in which the different selected programs have been generated. This is essential, as is justified in the chapter on

methodology, to pretend the full understanding of the documents analyzed, because they can not be interpreted in a timeless way regardless of the context in which they appear.

Preliminary Contrast

Through the retrospective historical analysis of the different programs has been detected the evolution of many determining aspects to frame and understand the education of deaf people and their social insertion, not so much in other areas as the labor, although institutional, at least as far as to the ecclesiastical institution given its importance at the time of the programs analyzed, as will be seen later. Obviously, this is the most superficial type of analysis that has been carried out in the framework of this research, but not the least relevant. Superficial, because it is easily appreciated without hardly needing to apply any registration formula or any specific data analysis. Relevant, because it deals with aspects that inform sharply about the approach or perspective of work of the authors of the different selected programs. In this sense and for this occasion, the terminological or lexical-semantic dimension has been taken into consideration as well as the contextual social consideration of people with deafness, as fundamental and determinant issues by themselves, from an evolutionary point of view (as length of the different programs) and for the understanding of the programs and their later attempted contrast, a company to which the following sections culminating in the chapter are dedicated. And this is dealt with in this section due to its easy perception in the selected programs, which is not an obstacle for these aspects to be treated in a more detailed way in the successive sections, as a result of a more detailed analysis. *Lexico-semantic contrast* with regard to the issue of nomenclature, it is appropriate to note an obvious and important fact. Most of the methods employ, even explicitly in their titles, the concept of "deaf-mute". A concept that is currently in disuse because it is considered at least erroneous, since muteness is not a direct consequence or derived from deafness, but the consequence of the lack of a linguistic code. In any case, we would speak of a mute person when he has some malformation, dysfunction or extirpation of some of the organs that intervene in the production of sound, but not when the pathology he presents is exclusively of an auditory nature. The funny thing is that this fact had already been warned far in advance, as Luigi Selva affirms, by

such influential authors as Aristotle, Hippocrates, Pliny the Elder and others: "(...) among authorized men like Aristotle, Hippocrates, Pliny the Elder and others, it was generally believed that muteness was due to some defect of the phonoarticulatory organ "(Selva, 1973, 10). But this confusion or error is even more surprising, given that in one of the first programs analyzed in chronological order: *Pronunciaciones generales de lenguas*, by Juan Baptista Morales, it is noted that the manual alphabet included in this method was already used by Manuel Ramírez de Carrión, teacher of the deaf and author of *Maravillas de la Naturaleza*. In this book, he collects the testimony of one of his disciples, D. Luis de Velasco, Marquis of Priego, who in the seventeenth century, expressed with utter resounding claims that are so current in the following way: "I am not mute, but deaf. "(Ramírez de Carrión, 1629). And he was right, because he spoke. His teacher noted:

(...) where it is also proved that the impediment of the dumb, is born of the lack of hearing, and not of the language, which is free, and willing, to be able to speak, if the memory will minister words, and they knew the form of their articulation. Whose doctrine is proved by the example of the dumb taught to speak by art, which move the language, and articulate without impediment.
(Ramírez de Carrión, 1629, 129). As quoted by (Navarro, 2011)

In the works of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the denomination of "mudo" or "mudo deaf" is chosen: *Legal treatise on the mutes of Lasso*; *The unfortunately disappeared doctrine for the mute deaf, of the master fray Pedro Ponce, inventor of this miraculous art*; or the one of Juan Pablo Bonet *Reduction of the letters and Art to teach to Speak the dumb ones*. The new denomination "deaf and dumb" or "deaf-mute", which replaced that of "mute" or "mute deaf" is situated in the period of the creation of the first deaf schools, in the period of institutionalization of education for these people. And it arose in that struggle for the clarity of words and things. The abbe L'Épée, after others and with others, insisted that muteness was the consequence of deafness. He would generalize, on the eve of the French Revolution, the formula *Sourd et muet*, "deaf and dumb" and its use supposed a greater understanding of the silent world in which these people lived. The new denomination accompanied the greatest achievement in the History of Education. That change occurred in the last third of the eighteenth century, where the term deaf and dumb,

in the work of Lorenzo Hervás and Panduro, the Spanish School of Deaf-Mutes or art to teach them to write and read the Spanish language is already chosen.

In the nineteenth century, the formation of the compound "deaf-mute" occurs and we find it in the title of the works of Sicard, Bébien and other French authors. In Spain, the term "deaf-mute" is preferred, except in the works of Tiburcio Hernández, Plan to teach deaf-mutes the Spanish language and in that of Juan Manuel Ballesteros and Francisco Fernández Villabril, Elementary course for the instruction of the deaf- dumb, to name just a few of those that appear in the analyzed programs. Today, the use of the term "deaf" implies considering the sociocultural conception of the members of a community with its own identity: the deaf community. During the twentieth century the precise name of this group appears and the erroneous and pejorative connotations that from the current prism can be attributed to the first programs are eliminated.

Social Consideration of Deafness

Another key issue is the social consideration of people with deafness, given that it is known that formerly it was thought that these people were not educable, this being one of the least execrable qualifiers but without any basis, since they were assigned many others as the divine punishment, without ability or ability to socialize or, therefore, be sociable. Such was his meager consideration that he even advocated the sacrifice of the children who presented this handicap. Only the "art" to teach the "mutes" to speak could operate this transformation considered so many times until then as a "miraculous" thing.

Regarding the educability of these people and the possibilities of learning languages and all kinds of scientific knowledge, as early as the sixteenth century, Ponce de León left testimony of his teaching. The evolution of socio-educational consideration of people with deafness is also reflected in the programs analyzed. With the chronological progression of the same the progression of the concept and consideration of the deafness is observed. And not just in terms of nomenclature, as described above. The own conception of the deafness progresses towards an absolute conviction around the integral educability of people with deafness, with a foundation and evident proof of the achievements made since the first programs of our promoters Pablo Bonet and L'Épée up to our contemporary authors, such as Moody and others and Perelló and Frigola.

The proliferation of programs of the nature of those analyzed in this paper and of another nature with the passage of time and fundamentally at present highlights the burning concern for the issue of educability of deaf

people, initiated by only some scholars of our ancestors. From the superficial review of the most current programs, we can easily see the opening towards new objectives proposed in programs specifically designed for deaf people, such as the development of social skills, early care, etc. Already in specialized literature based on research with deaf students have been banished certain myths and prejudices, of different nature: psychological, physiological, legal and religious (Selva, 1973), which have persisted for a long time on deafness. The most important to contextualize the essence of the programs is the time or, in any case, different learning capacity of the deaf child (for placing us in more recent historical moments, undoubtedly more encouraging).

Finally, from the point of view of the objectives or essence of education of deaf people it has been appreciated that the programs have undergone considerable changes from their inception to the present. The purposes of the pioneer programs were closely linked to religious education and the need / possibility to follow the precepts of a religious life, of marked transcendence in the context and time in which they arise. Subsequent moments marked by other educational objectives also show the change of objectives in educational programs, with a horizon in the full social insertion of people with serious hearing problems, to the detriment of the concern for religious education that becomes insignificant or null. And even, the formative perspective has changed, currently pretending the labor insertion of these people, which clearly has the support of other fields outside of education, such as the legal, social and institutional measures that contribute to this purpose. However, linguistic competence continues to be at the base of the education of people deprived of hearing or with it very impaired. The use of this Competence to complete the communication skills of these people, not only among them but also with the rest of society, becomes a constant that can be easily appreciated in the progress of the programs under study. In this regard, we also see a greater diversification of program approaches, because at present the Communication options of these people are greater, as a result of the medical advances that encourage, in addition to the use of the sign language,

the use of the auditory remains to increase their auditory perception, with the consequent benefit in the acquisition, development and mastery of the oral linguistic code, which improves by itself the communicative competence of the subjects. (Navarro, PP483-488)

Conclusions of the Investigation.

The history of education of people with hearing impairment is different in the Spanish and French contexts. On the one hand, it is likely that the first attempts of programmed education of these students occurred in Spain before in France, on the other hand, there is no doubt that the institutionalization of these programs and therefore the education of these students was produced before in the French context. Indeed, the date of beginning of this investigation can be considered, as it was presumed in the beginning of the same one, the XVIIth century, with the appearance of the first programs in the Spanish context, whereas in the French context a century is postponed. appearance of published programs. On the other hand, if the influence of the first program of the Spanish context exerts a notable influence on the first work of L'Épée, fundamentally in its chapter dedicated to the "art of teaching to speak to the deaf", the programs analyzed in the French context they will have a considerable influence on those analyzed in the Spanish context: an influence that has been observed since the end of the 18th century and which remains, with some exceptions, practically until the last quarter of the 19th century, at least in the National School of Madrid. The Spanish context, will cease to be the European reference, will receive and adapt in the early days of the institutionalization, practically all the nineteenth century, the proposals from France, mainly the Institutions of Paris and Bordeaux. With respect to the programs, they have been experiencing important changes throughout their preparation and implementation. Notable changes regarding its nature, application context, methodology, resources, orientation etc. In the first place, with regard to orientation, the programs of each age have been observed in the programs regarding the possibilities of deaf people. Thus, from initial approaches and isolated practices that attribute to the "miracle" and "gift" of the preceptor, the "secret" practices that allow the deaf to articulate words and also express themselves in writing, gives way to the first works that allow to give to know the paths to follow so that other deaf children can benefit from

these teachings, thus beginning the different proposals and alternating approaches that bet in different ways on the use of gestures for the teaching of the language to the deaf. The changes towards an oralist approach are determined by the general methodological tendencies of language teaching in the last quarter of the 19th century.

The direct methodology will have more force in the French context than in Spanish and the influence of the Milan Congress and the rejection of gestures in the linguistic education of the deaf will not be felt in Spain until the late or early twentieth century, going to receive the methodological models of the Italian context. Another important moment in evolution is marked by the commitment to communicative approaches, which strengthens, in terms of deaf education, the philosophy that came to be called total communication from the seventies.

At first, it will involve the use of the gesture and other resources for effective communication with the deaf child; later, the consideration of sign languages as belonging to deaf communities and bilingual educational approaches will mark the end of the XX. One of the previous dimensions refers, obviously, to the resources used by each author of the programs. From this perspective, the chronological location of each of the programs is easily observable, although as noted above, some of the means employed are surprising, if they are questioned from the point of view of the historical moment in which the program was designed. However, it has been surprising that the didactic of the teaching programs of each moment corresponds to a great extent with the didactics of the teaching of deaf people as it can be observed in the different stages considered. However, it should be noted that most of these programs present some specific and special didactic aspects for this education. For this reason, certain programs are truly innovative for the time in which they were developed, as can be seen in detail in the chapters before this, dedicated to the presentation of results. The advance in the teaching used in the education programs for deaf people has followed particular milestones of the education of this group, being the most obvious and significant example of this the Milan congress, whose incidence is unquestionable in the teaching programs for the group of deaf people, as can be easily seen in the preceding chapters. Therefore, although the analyzed programs must be framed within the methodologies determined for the teaching of languages and it can be asserted

that there is a parallelism between them, it is also necessary to affirm that although behind the contemporary methodological tendencies as can be observed in the presented picture last of the chapter previous to this that reflects this dimension, they have had a particular development. In short, it is observed over time the evolution of the methodology, on the one hand, the teaching of languages in general, and, on the other hand, the teaching of people with hearing problems in particular. Indeed, without going into great details that are made explicit in the chapter that precedes this has been passed in the programs of recourse to a traditional methodology of particular court, that is, developed in the framework of the precept and with a "practical" component "Characteristic of the traditional practical method that emerges in these centuries and that in the nineteenth century will be consolidated with the proposals of the reform movement, the step to the traditional methodology in another institutional framework, this time in properly educational institutions, created exclusively for the teaching of people with deafness. From this traditional methodology, the analyzed programs went through a direct methodology that focuses on the intuitive character and based on the oralist method, already consolidated at that time for the teaching of deaf people. Then we move on to the methodology of communicative approach, also called the method of total communication, inasmuch as the communication of people with auditory deficiencies takes precedence over everything. Finally, we have appreciated a methodology based on bilingual education, which recognizes the importance of sign language for deaf people, as well as their need to know and master oral language and especially written language, to promote communication with the rest of society, and whose implementation framework happens to be the very special or ordinary school, as can be observed in the last programs analyzed at the end of the last century. As a consequence of the change in the institutional framework in which the programs are implemented and especially the authors who design them, a significant change in terms of their contents is also observed. While everyone tries to teach grammar, gestural signs, different fingerprint alphabets or sign language with a different emphasis according to the prevailing approach at the time, the difference in content is that the first programs are strongly marked by the religious teachings while gradually one can observe the decline of this nuance, until discovering the absolutely secular character of the analyzed programs of the last centuries. In parallel, it is

encouraged more and more as the communicative competence advances in the time to which other dimensions are subordinated, as indicated in the previous paragraph; that is, a decided tendency towards the emphasis on the communication of people with hearing problems and not only the development of linguistic competence is observed. (PP. 522-525).

3.) Bilingual Programs for Deaf Students/ A Chilean Case.

Regarding the bilingual education for deaf students in Chile, we will present to your consideration an extract of the study entitled: *The Bilingual Approach to Deaf Education: Its Implications for the Teaching and Learning of the Written Language* as written by Lissi, M., Svartholm, K., Gonzalez, M. (2012), which is partially reproduced here as follows:

Abstract

This article reviews the background of the bilingual approach in deaf education, it describes more specifically how it has been implemented in Sweden, and it refers to the incorporation of this approach in deaf education in Chile. Further on, it analyzes the way in which Sign Language can be used to teach written language in bilingual education contexts, using examples from primary education classes for children at a school for the deaf. Finally the article emphasizes the implications of the bilingual model for the process of teaching and learning written language in deaf education, and it discusses some considerations for moving forward in this area in the Chilean education context.

Key Words: deaf, bilingual education, written language, sign language

a) The Swedish Model of Bilingual Education

The bilingual education for the deaf in Sweden, where the LS is considered the first language for deaf children and the language of the majority society the second, dates from 1981. That year, the Swedish Government decided that deaf people had the right to be bilingual in LS Swedish and Swedish. Two years later, the first National Bilingual Curriculum was introduced in special schools for the deaf and hard of hearing. At that time it was established that LS should be the language used in the instruction of deaf students and that the teaching of this language, as well as that of Swedish -mainly in its written form- should aim to guarantee a development towards bilingualism (LGR 80, 1983). The decision on the use of the LS instead of the "signed Swedish" was taken, to a large extent,

on the basis of the linguistic research that was in progress at that time. Pressure and information from the organizations involved, such as SDR, the Swedish National Association of the Deaf, in collaboration with parent organizations, was also important in this process (Svartholm, 1993).

In 1994 this National Curriculum was replaced by a new one where the demands of the schools for the deaf and hard of hearing were greater: thereafter, it is stated that after ten years of schooling, students must be bilingual. This means that they must read (i.e; understand) both in LS and in Swedish, and they must also be able to express themselves in signing and in writing. For the subject of English, which is compulsory for deaf students as well as for hearing students in Sweden, the objective is that they can communicate in writing. For all other school subjects, the objectives are explicitly the same as for hearing children (LpO94, 1994).

The period between these two curricula can be described as very intense, both in research and in development activities within schools. Two new academic subjects, the LS and 'Swedish as a second language for the deaf' were being developed at the University of Stockholm, making it possible for deaf students to study not only their own language, but also Swedish written from a comparative perspective. An important basis for understanding the specific processes involved in learning a language was found in the research in relation to interlanguage (e.g., Svartholm 1984, 1987a, 1987b, 1988). This refers to studies about the rules that are observed in the productions written in Swedish of the deaf they learn Swedish as a second language, compared to second language learners. Many of the "peculiarities" found in the written language of deaf children, described as such by early research, turned out not to be peculiar at all. On the other hand, the "errors" and "mistakes" found in his writings can be explained in the same way as in the second language learner listeners: as the result of the active strategies of language processing, such as simplification, about generalization and holistic learning of words and phrases. It is in this perspective that the misuse, for example, of prepositions and inflections should be seen, as well as the deviant, non-standard use of the vocabulary (Svartholm, 2008).

From the comparative analysis of the two languages, as well as the observation of the development of children within schools, researchers and teachers gradually learned more

about the written language from the perspective of the deaf child. In the bilingual model, from the beginning the teacher emphasizes that LS and written language are two different languages with different structures. Since there is no one-to-one correspondence between words and signs, there is no use of word-for-word translation of written texts. Instead, the meaning of complete sentences and paragraphs should focus on translation and subsequent explanations regarding vocabulary and grammar. Working with texts, "real" written for children, that are not for pedagogical use, but for entertainment or for the presentation of facts or other authentic purposes, is fundamental. Deaf children need, like any language student, a rich and varied linguistic imputation and the need for this can hardly be covered with short and simplified texts, specially adapted. This input is made intelligible to the child through the LS, in the explanations and translations presented by the teacher (Svartholm, 2008). On the other hand, given that the deaf child does not have or has only limited oral language skills, as to support them for learning to read, the learning processes of reading and learning the language can not be separated. one from another; the child builds knowledge about the language above all through reading.

After more than 25 years in which the bilingual model for deaf education in Sweden has been developed, the results have been very positive. When deaf students graduate - one year after the hearing students - they give the same national test in Swedish, as do the latter. Between 2002 and 2008, on average, the students of the deaf schools approved with a performance level of 59%, which demonstrates a level of reading that would allow them to also pass the regular school (SPM 2002-2007, SPSM 2008). It is important to note that students who have specific learning problems or present a complex linguistic situation in their home because they belong to immigrant families are included here, which is increasingly common in deaf schools in Sweden (Hendar, 2008) . A growing group are also children who have started their studies in a regular school and then have moved to a special school because of language problems. Clearly, these children can not be expected to develop bilingualism in such an efficient way since, in general, they lack knowledge of the LS before entering the special school (SPM, 2007). What then happens with the results of other bilingual approaches in the education of the deaf? Around 1990 there was a movement in the field of deaf education in the USA. and Canada towards the adoption of

what was called the bilingual-bicultural model (Bi / Bi) for the teaching of language and literacy of deaf students (Gibson et al., 1997, Mashie, 1995, Strong, 1995). However, this concept was not widely disseminated. Only 9% of the 45,000 deaf students in the US during the year 1999 attended a school or class that said working in a bilingual way, most of them, however, without a formal curriculum (LaSasso, 2000; LaSasso and Lollis, 2003). There is not much information available about the results of these experiences. Deaf education in the US still presents an approach based mainly on Total Communication / signed English, also revealing oral communication. However, American Sign Language (ASL) has a strong position within the deaf community. In a wider international context, it is even more difficult to find results that can be compared with those reported in Swedish schools, because: "... it is still relatively uncommon for students who are deaf and hard of hearing in special schools, to follow the governmental school curriculum of their respective countries. In this sense, we in Sweden place high demands on our students who are deaf and hard of hearing "(SPM, 2005: 9).

b) Deaf Education in Chile

As in most international studies, the results of the education of the deaf in Chile, specifically in regard to reading and writing, are far from satisfactory, finding that deaf students show a very high performance. below what was expected for their age (Lissi et al., 2003, Miranda, 1997). Formal education for the deaf in Chile dates back to 1852, the year in which the first school for deaf children was founded in the country, which is now called the Anne Sullivan School for the Deaf (Herrera, 2010, Oviedo, 2006). Currently, in educational establishments there is a diversity of pedagogical approaches, which correspond to different ideologies about education and deaf people: oralism, total communication, oral auditory, bicultural-bilingual. The strong roots of oralism, along with its ideology about deaf people and their education, have put a lot of resistance to change (Adamo, Cabrera and Acuña, 2008).

Starting in the 90's, a team of researchers at the Metropolitan University of Education Sciences develops a series of linguistic studies on Chilean Sign Language (LSCh) (Acuña et al., 1999, Adamo et al. , 1999, Adamo et al., 2003). These same authors, in parallel,

begin to raise the need for a bilingual education for deaf students in Chile (Adamo et al., 1997, Adamo, Cabrera and Acuña, 2008).

Towards the year 1998 in the school of deaf children "Dr. Jorge Otte Gabler ", begins to develop a model of bilingual education. In 2000 the Bilingual-Bicultural Education Educational Project was approved by the Ministry of Education. This is the first school in the country to adopt this educational model and currently has the participation of deaf people who act as models of the deaf culture and linguistic models of the LSCh. Deaf adults participate in the educational process inside the classroom, as LS teachers, co-educators or instructors. On the other hand, the teachers and hearing lecturers impart education through the LS. The program includes the teaching of Spanish as a second language, giving primary importance to the teaching of the written language (Adamo, Cabrera and Acuña, 2008).

Although there have been advances in the incorporation of LS to schools, it is far from adopting a model of bilingual education at the national level, although the new Law 20,422 (2010) recognizes the LS "as a means of natural communication of the deaf community "(Article 26).

2. Practices and Strategies Used in the Teaching of the Written Language to the Deaf in Contexts of Bilingual Education. The antecedents presented up to now account for the principles and guidelines that are considered central to a bilingual model, such as the one that has been implemented in Sweden for more than 25 years. As has already been mentioned above, in the Chilean context bilingual education experiences for the deaf have a more recent origin trajectory. On the other hand, educational policies at the national level and the legal framework are not yet comparable with the situation described in Sweden. This section describes some specific practices and strategies, which characterize the way in which bilingual education is used for deaf students, with an emphasis on how the LS is used in the teaching-learning process of the language. written in these contexts [4]. To make this presentation closer, we have opted to rely on examples taken from a Chilean context, which illustrate some important aspects of educational work in educational establishments that adopt a bilingual model for teaching deaf students. The specific examples included were selected from a large audio visual material that was collected as

part of a four-year project [5], in which three groups of children and their teachers were followed in a school with a project bilingual / bicultural education, with the objective of describing and analyzing the strategies used by the teachers and evaluating the development of LS competences and written language by the students. In the first place, some relevant aspects of the general structure of the class in the bilingual classroom are presented, to then analyze some examples of the specific work with written material [6].

General considerations regarding the organization of the class

Within the context of bilingual education for the deaf, it is important to consider not only the specific teaching-learning strategies displayed by the teachers, but also aspects of the organization of the class as well as the conditions and the environment in which it is developed. The general structure of the class is organized in such a way as to provide the children with a framework and a context prior to the topics and contents that will be addressed. At the beginning, the teachers talk with the children about the topics they have recently seen or remember some significant activity that is related to the class they will be doing. Then, they ask open questions to see what and how much the students remember and introduce the subject by pointing out what they will do in that class. A relevant area to consider is the maintenance of attention and access to information by students. The spatial distribution of the students within the classroom, as well as the format of the materials and support resources used during the classes, allows all children to visually access the information that is being delivered and that the communication between them does not be hindered. The children sit in a circle or semicircle with their eyes directed towards the teacher, while they can observe their classmates alternately. Ways of facilitating collective work in reading and writing are sought, for example, projecting the written texts and the visual support material on the blackboard or in a curtain. On the other hand, teachers perform various actions so that students visually follow what is happening in front of them and have full access to what their classmates say. For example, telling the children to move to the front of the room so that others can see them, as well as directing the attention of the rest to that child who is communicating something.

A relevant aspect has to do with the actions that teachers can take to ensure that students can follow the class at all times and not lose the thread of this during the process. It is extremely important that the teacher keep the children informed about the structure of the class and its development, since the deaf child is visually dependent, so if he looks the other way for a couple of seconds the teacher could change the subject and the child could get lost. For this, various supports can be used such as writing the class structure on the board, indicating the sequence of topics to be discussed and assigning numbers to refer to during the class. Another way to help the child not to lose the thread of the class is to rely on strategies that deaf people use to communicate in LS. For example, one way to locate the other when you are talking about more than one subject is to use the fingers of one hand and if, for example, there are four themes, I can refer to the first point, pointing to my index finger and so on using the other fingers, pointing to the corresponding finger again when I refer to that subject.

This strategy has been found in American, Swedish and Norwegian LS (Liddell et al., 2007). Another example is to use the sign "finish" when a topic is finished, so that it is clearly shown that it is passed to another topic. Conditions / requirements to continue advancing in the implementation of a bilingual education for the deaf in Chile

As mentioned above, although bilingual education for the deaf already exists in Chile, there is still a long way to go to approach models such as the one developed in Sweden.

One of the crucial aspects for this to be possible is to achieve a deeper knowledge of the LS by all the members of the educational community (Humphries and Allen, 2008). This implies, among other things, a greater emphasis on the development of LS competences in the initial training of deaf teachers; opportunities to deepen knowledge of this language once the teachers are in practice; policies that achieve a greater approach by parents to the learning of this language and the early stimulation of deaf babies and preschoolers to acquire a good development of LS as soon as possible (Kushalnagar et al., 2010). Teacher training should aim, not only at the development of competences in the effective use of the LS, but also at the achievement of a deep knowledge of this - as well as Spanish - that allows them to reflect on the characteristics of both languages and establish comparisons. In addition, it is important to develop in the teachers a theoretical and practical knowledge

about the bilingual approach. The need for teachers of the deaf to have more methodological tools to teach written language to their students has been reported in previous studies in our country (Lissi et al., 2001, Lissi et al., 2010).

One of the pillars of a bilingual approach for the deaf is the development as early as possible of the LS as the first language. To achieve this goal requires, among other things, an early diagnosis of deafness in the child and policies and programs that point to the learning of LS by parents. Considering that the majority of deaf children enter the school system without a command of Spanish or LS, the emphasis during the years of preschool education should be on the development of the LS and not on learning the formal aspects of the school. Written language Exposure to Spanish, should be done mainly through shared reading, in which the teacher reads to the children, in LS, authentic texts that are significant for them. Linked to the above is the role of deaf adults in the education of these students (Mugnier, 2006). It is necessary to continue increasing the participation of these in number and in the responsibilities that are granted to them in the educational process. Until now, the main function that deaf people have fulfilled in schools has been to serve as linguistic models or LSCh instructors, without fulfilling a role in the teaching of the written language. Collaborative work between a deaf adult and a hearing teacher has the potential to enrich the second language learning process for deaf students. For this, it is important that deaf adults are also trained to work the bilingual model, and to have more teachers who are deaf. We see then that the implementation of bilingual education contributes to the full development of deaf children and youth, by promoting the development of LS as a first language and by allowing it to be used to facilitate the teaching-learning process of Spanish as a second language, basically through the use of the written language. However, we have also seen that a bilingual approach requires a series of conditions, many of which are still in an incipient state of development in our country. We hope that this article constitutes a contribution in terms of pointing out some of these conditions and contributes to the debate on the best way to address the education of deaf children and young people. However, it is necessary to continue developing empirical studies at the national level, to help pinpoint where our shortcomings are and how to address them.

The Chilean educational system is increasingly pushing the integration of children with disabilities into the regular school. It should be cautioned that this does not undermine the right of deaf children to have full access to the LSCh and to be able to receive instruction in this language, since this could put this group of students in a situation of inequality, limiting their possibilities of a full participation in the teaching-learning process. This is one of the paradoxes of the movement towards inclusion, which often seems to be more focused on where children are educated than on the quality of the educational process. According to the approaches developed in this article, a truly inclusive education system for the deaf must offer the possibility of a bilingual education for them. (Lissi, M., Svartholm, K., Gonzalez, M. 2012).

4.) Gallaudet University/ An American Case

A university for the Deaf

Gallaudet University, the only university in the world whose programs are designed for Deaf people, is located in Washington DC, the capital of the United States. It is a private institution, which has the direct support of the Congress of that country. The first official language of Gallaudet is the American Sign Language (ASL), the sign language of the United States (English is the second). In that language, employees, students and professors communicate with each other, and most courses are taught. Even when priority is given to Deaf students, the university also admits a small number of hearing people each semester. These are required to master the ASL as a requirement to remain in the institution.

Origins of the University of Gallaudet

The main campus of the university, located very close to the administrative center of the city, was donated in 1856 by Amos Kendall, a wealthy politician who wanted to establish a boarding school for deaf and blind children there. The institution, which opened in 1857, was called Columbia Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb and Blind. Edward Miner Gallaudet, the youngest son of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, who had founded and directed the first Deaf school in the United States for many years, was chosen to direct it. Seven years later, in 1864, the country's congress authorized the school to confer university degrees. The enrollment of students in that program was then 8 people. In 1954, another decision of the congress changed the name of the institution to that of

Gallaudet College, to honor the memory of the founder of deaf education in that country. And in 1986, the academic progress achieved by the institution was recognized when Gallaudet University declared it. The current enrollment of the university is around 2000 students (of which about 25% attend postgraduate programs).

The University of Gallaudet today offers education for the Deaf at all levels (from primary school to doctorate). There are about 40 different careers, in practically all areas of knowledge. In some fields of research, such as linguistics and teaching of sign languages, this university has a recognized world leadership.

The Empowerment of the Deaf in Gallaudet

The institution that we know today as Gallaudet University was governed, from its origins, by hearing people. Only in 1988 did the Deaf have the opportunity to see one of them elected in the rectory of the institution. This was, however, the result of a colorful series of street protests from the entire university community, known as Deaf President Now (DPN) (Rector Deaf already!). As a result of this movement, a Deaf person was elected to the post of rector (Dr. I. King Jordan), and an administrative reform process was initiated so that at least 51% of the university's management positions were occupied by Deaf.

Shortly after the events of the DPN the University of Gallaudet organized a world congress for the Deaf, called the Deaf Way, which brought together several thousand Deaf people from all over the world, and which symbolizes the beginning of a planetary consciousness about the existence of the languages and cultures of Deaf people, and of the call of these to organize themselves to claim their essential rights. In 2002, the second Deaf Way was held there, which brought together more than 10,000 participants from 120 different countries. (Oviedo, 2016).

History and Tradition

The First 100 Years

In 1856, Amos Kendall, a postmaster general during two presidential administrations, donated two acres of his estate in northeast Washington, D.C. to establish a school and housing for 12 deaf and six blind students. The following year, Kendall persuaded Congress to incorporate the new school, which was called the Columbia Institution for the

Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb and Blind. Edward Miner Gallaudet, the son of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, founder of the first school for deaf students in the United States, became the new school's superintendent.

Congress authorized the institution to confer college degrees in 1864, and President Abraham Lincoln signed the bill into law. Gallaudet was made president of the institution, including the college, which that year had eight students enrolled. He presided over the first commencement in June 1869 when three young men received diplomas. Their diplomas were signed by President Ulysses S. Grant, and to this day the diplomas of all Gallaudet graduates are signed by the presiding U.S. president.

In 1894 the name of the college portion of the institution was changed to Gallaudet College in honor of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet and through an act of Congress in 1954, the entire institution became known as Gallaudet College.

A Time of Expansion

In 1969, President Lyndon Johnson signed an act to create the Model Secondary School for the Deaf (MSSD). That same year, the secretary of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare and Gallaudet President Leonard Elstad signed an agreement authorizing the establishment and operation of MSSD on the Gallaudet campus. A year later, President Richard Nixon signed the bill that authorized the establishment of Kendall Demonstration Elementary School. Today, the two schools are part of Gallaudet's Laurent Clerc National Deaf Education Center, which is devoted to the creation and dissemination of educational opportunities for deaf students nationwide.

By an act of the U.S. Congress, Gallaudet was granted university status in October 1986. Two years later, in March 1988, the Deaf President Now (DPN) movement led to the appointment of the University's first deaf president, Dr. I. King Jordan, '70 and the Board of Trustees' first deaf chair, Philip Bravin, '66. Since then, DPN has become synonymous with self-determination and empowerment for deaf and hard of hearing people everywhere.

In the 1990s, a generous contribution from the W.K. Kellogg Foundation enabled the University to construct the Kellogg Conference Hotel at Gallaudet University, which has become a popular venue for meetings, seminars, receptions, and other events for both on- and off-campus groups.

The new millennium has brought events such as the Deaf Way II festival that attracted 10,000 deaf, hard of hearing, and hearing people from around the world; the opening of the technology-rich I. King Jordan Student Academic Center; and, thanks to the generosity of James Lee Sorenson, chair of Sorenson Development, Inc., the James Lee Sorenson Language and Communication Center, a unique facility that provides an inclusive learning environment totally compatible with the visu-centric "deaf way of being."

The University's undergraduate students can choose from more than 40 majors leading to Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science degrees. A small number of hearing undergraduate students-up to five percent of an entering class-are also admitted to the University each year. Graduate programs at Gallaudet are open to deaf, hard of hearing, and hearing students and offer certificates and master of arts, master of science, doctoral, and specialist degrees in a variety of fields involving professional service to deaf and hard of hearing people.

Through the University Career center, students receive internships that provide a wealth of experiential learning opportunities. Recent internships were offered at Merrill Lynch, National Aeronautics and Space Administration, National Institutes of Health, and the World Bank. Students also benefit from an array of services provided by such campus units as the Burstein Leadership Institute, Language Planning Institute, Hearing and Speech Center, Cochlear Implant Education Center, and the Center for International Programs and Services. Today, Gallaudet is viewed by deaf and hearing people alike as a primary resource for all things related to deaf people, including educational and career opportunities; open communication and visual learning; deaf history and culture; American Sign Language; and the impact of technology on the deaf community. [Cited from:<https://www.gallaudet.edu/about/history-and-traditions>].

Discussions/Conclusions:

As it has been observed throughout the whole course, throughout the whole journey of this work; The teaching of foreign languages and / or bilingual programs for people with special needs, reflects a common reality in many countries and to which our country (Dominican Republic) does not escape and what is lacking, the absence of the

aforementioned programs in a very contrastive way with what the educational reality of the XXI Century should be.

And this contractive reality is not an exclusive phenomenon of the so-called Third World Countries and to our surprise, it also occurs in societies that are considered as leaders in the field of education, not only in the region, but also all over the world.

As far as we are concerned with that aforementioned reality, we offered what could be called a Pool of Associations that certainly have a history of services for people with different disabilities and who have certainly earned a commendable and honorable place in the Dominican Society in pursuit of the inclusion and assistance of these special human beings.

In what we believe that these good practices and initiatives fall short; it is in regard to the systematization of bilingual educational programs, say for deaf-mute, blind, autistic or students with detrimental degrees of dyslexia or the same syndrome of Down, among others. It is also noticeable, a divorce that no longer corresponds to the new times, nor to the new technologies; with regard to what would be a Strategic Alliance between the Academy, and the universities and those humanitarian service organizations. It does not escape our attention either, the fact that the only university in the world exclusively for Deaf-Mutes exists in the United States and not in any other country (See Gallaudet University).

In the interim of this journey we have examined in a comprehensive and comprehensive way three cases in three different latitudes where the realities of the inclusion programs of people with hearing disabilities are exposed, through bilingual projects or through the study examining magnifying glass made in those nations.

The three cases that occupied most of our attention were:

- 1.-The First Case was a Bilingual Program for Deaf Students in Mexico at the Technological and Industrial High School Baccalaureate Center in the City of Colima, which offers a space for students with such disabilities, in which the limitations and vicissitudes are shown. Zavala (2009).

2.-The Second Case consisted of a thoroughly academic exposition through a Thesis work which brilliantly and historically exposed the situation of program for deaf students in Spain, with the academic rigor that this type of work demands. Navarro (2011).

3.-Third Case exposed to us, it took us to the latitudes of the Andean country of Chile, where the State-of- the-art of the bilingual programs for the deaf is examined in a brilliant way. Lissi, Svartholmm, and Gonzalez (2012).

4.-The Fourth Case was the exposition of the Gallaudet University, worldly recognized for being the only university for Deaf Students.

It is necessary to highlight that in the course of this research, we limited ourselves to a kind of *comparative study or analysis* of Bilingual Education for Deaf Students only. A Comparative Analysis has been defined as follows: Pickvance (1986 and 2001) established that: Comparative analysis needs to be distinguished from the juxtaposition of descriptions of a series of cases. While sequential presentations of descriptive data are undoubtedly informative about the cases concerned they are only comparative in the weak sense of making the reader aware of differences and similarities. They whet the appetite to know more. Comparative analysis also needs to be separated from the sense in which all analysis is comparative: all attempts to find causes involve comparing what happened with a mental image of what is likely to have happened in the absence of certain

features (Smelser, 1976, 160-2). Two features define comparative analysis as understood here: 1. an interest in the explanatory question of why the observed similarities and differences between cases exist, and 2. reliance on the collection of data on two or more cases, ideally according to a common framework.

Pickvance went on by establishing “Two features define comparative analysis as understood here: 1. an interest in the explanatory question of why the observed similarities and differences between cases exist, and 2. reliance on the collection of data on two or more cases, ideally according to a common framework.

2 The primary reason for comparative analysis is the explanatory interest of gaining a better understanding of the causal processes involved in the production of an event, feature or relationship. Typically it achieves this by introducing (or increasing) variation in the

explanatory variable or variables. The strength of comparative analysis as a research design is its ability to introduce additional explanatory variables (or to allow variation in variables which take a fixed value in the initial case of interest), and to show that relations are more or less general than had been initially thought. Its weaknesses are that it requires the commensurability of concepts across cases (e.g. terms like ‘environmental regulation’ must have consistent meanings so we are not comparing apples and oranges), the introduction of new variables brings with it the introduction of unknown variation too, and that like all non-experimental research it has to rely on ‘naturally occurring variation’ which rules out many combinations of values of interest to the researcher. The two conventional types of comparative analysis focus on the explanation of differences, and the explanation of similarities. This sounds like a straightforward contrast but is not. The reason is that what counts as a similarity or a difference depends not only on the observed values but also on the analyst and should therefore be regarded as a social construct rather than as an objective reality”.(P.2) He [Pickvance] finally added: A more elaborate classification of types of comparative analysis is set out by Tilly (1984) who distinguishes four types: individualizing, universalizing, variation-finding and encompassing. Individualizing comparison contrasts ‘a small number of cases in order to grasp the peculiarities of each case’ (1984, p. 82) b. Universalizing comparison ‘aims to establish that every instance of a phenomena follows essentially the same rule’ (1984, p. 82) c. Variation-finding comparison seeks to ‘establish a principle of variation in the character or intensity of a phenomenon by examining systematic differences between instances’ (1984, p. 82) d. Encompassing comparison ‘places different instances at various locations within the same system, on the way to explaining their characteristics as a function of their varying relationships to the system as a whole’ (1984, p. 83), e.g. as in Wallenstein’s world system analysis.

Thus avoiding to enter in matter with respect to the other physical or mental disabilities defined and described in the first chapters of this work, for an obviously logical matter, in the above-mentioned nations and that in our particular case (the Dominican Republic) we dealt with and limited ourselves to the exposition of a list, of a Pool of Service Associations

existing in our country, some for more than four decades, sufficient time, in our humble opinion to expand the range of opportunities through the Bilingual Program.

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