Including students who are deaf or hard of hearing: Principles for creating accessible instruction

Tamby Allman, Samantha Wolters Boser, and Eileen M. Murphy

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Including students who are deaf or hard of hearing: Principles for creating accessible instruction Tamby Allman, Samantha Wolters Boser, and Eileen M. Murphy

Including students who are deaf or hard of hearing: Principles for creating accessible instruction

Tamby Allman^a, Samantha Wolters Boser^b, and Eileen M. Murphy^c

^aTexas Woman's University, Denton, TX, USA; ^bSenaca Highlands, Smethport, PA, USA; ^cTexas Woman's University, Washington, USA

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> O_5 The majority of teachers agree that students who are deaf or O_6 hard of hearing (DHH) should have the opportunity to learn alongside their hearing peers (Luckner, 1999). However, the strategies and instructional modifications necessary to make the general education classroom accessible to students with hearing loss have not been part of their professional training (Knoors & Marschark, 2014; Krywko, 2012). Advances in technology, new legislation, and a deeper understanding of pedagogy are significantly changing teaching practices for educating students who are DHH (Krywko, 2012; Rekkedal, 2012; Yoshinaga-Itano, 2003). As a result of these changes, more students who are DHH are receiving instruction in general education classrooms (Antia, Kreimeyer, & Reed, 2010). Further, knowing how to address the learning needs of students who are DHH can be challenging because students with hearing loss are not a homogenous group, and individual instructional needs may vary greatly (Knoors & Marschark, 2012). While classroom teachers understand the significant impact of not having early and complete access to language on student learning, they are often less familiar with how even a mild hearing loss can similarly impact long-term academic success (Richburg & Goldberg, 2005; Werfel & Hendricks, 2016) or how to how make their teaching more accessible for these students.

In this article, the authors share six key principles for creating effective language and literacy instruction for students who are DHH. These principles address the most frequently recurring questions general education teachers asked during professional development workshops. Within these key principles, we suggest practical instructional modifications to complement general classroom instruction in order to effectively teach literacy skills across all educational settings. The six principles are (1) optimize the learning environment, (2) pre-teach vocabulary, (3) determine how to teach skills related to sound, (4) include print to support comprehensible word learning, (5) provide authentic opportunities for language growth, and (6) individualize writing instruction and support as needed.

Strategies to create an optimal learning environment and successfully teach academic content are shared recognizing that classroom instructional patterns are one of the most common barriers students who are DHH face in the general education setting (Berndsen & Luckner, 2012). The authors recognize that challenges beyond the typical general 69 education classroom can complicate classroom instruction 70 and may need to be addressed. Some of these additional 71 challenges may include multiple teachers, alternate commu-72 nication methods, and different settings including self-73 contained, co-taught, and general education classes. To 74 illustrate teaching modifications in a variety of situations, 75 we share the learning journeys of a few students who 76 are DHH that are likely to be similar to other students' in 77 classrooms across the nation. 78 79

Optimize the learning environment

Access to spoken language

Designing a flexible and inclusive learning environment 84 from the beginning provides a foundation for successful 85 learning. In order to create this optimal learning environ-86 ment a teacher must analyze how each student will access 87 spoken language. To optimize the auditory environment for 88 students who access language through listening, teachers 89 may need to meet with the school district's educational 90 audiologist or specialists who can interpret a student's 91 audiogram. Educational audiologists or other specialists can 92 explain what the student can or cannot hear and will be 93 able to recommend classroom modifications to optimize 94 both the auditory and visual learning environment, such as 95 the best seating arrangement for the student. While our 96 focus in this article is on ways a teacher can optimize the 97 classroom environment, we want to emphasize that a collab- 98 orative partnership with families and related professionals is 99 essential for positive outcomes, regardless of the age of the 100 student (Yoshinaga-Itano, 2014). 101

Another factor in optimizing the learning environment is 102 managing background noise: Classrooms can be noisy, and 103 noise can greatly impact academic learning. Background 104 sounds need to be continually monitored and addressed in 105 order to create effective learning environments for all 106 students. A free application that can be downloaded on a 107 personal smartphone can help teachers and their students 108 monitor classroom noise levels: http://www.healthyhearing. 109 com/report/47805-The-best-phone-apps-to-measure-noise-110 levels (Almutlaq, Kanjo, & Alsafadi, 2014; Plotnick, 2018). A 111 112

Check for updates

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115 decibel meter app that can be displayed on a classroom 116 SMART board gives students in the class immediate feed-117 back and a visual representation of the impact of reducing 11802 their volume. The decibel meter can also be used by adults 119 working in the classroom to identify simple environmental 120 modifications that may make a significant difference to the 121 noise level in the classroom. The American Speech-122<mark>Q7</mark> Language-Hearing Association (2015) recommends turning 123 off noisy equipment such as projectors when not in use, 124 reducing white noise from fans and heating and other 125 machines, or adding carpet or rugs to absorb noise (Werfel 126 & Hendricks, 2016).

127 Students who are DHH may use different personal ampli-128 fication systems, such as hearing aids, a bone-anchored 129 hearing aid, or cochlear implants (CIs). To ensure maximum 130 benefit, any amplification system needs to be checked daily. 131 While most students will take personal responsibility for this 132 task, some younger students may need some support for 133 self-advocacy tasks such as routines to replace batteries that 134 have died during class. A one- or two-minute daily routine 135 with younger students learning to use their amplification 136 systems can be completed by a classroom teacher, speech 137 language pathologist (SLP), or paraprofessional. The gold 138 standard for quickly checking to be sure the amplification 139 system is working is the Ling six-sound test, which checks 140 speech sounds across different frequencies (Ling, 1989). A 141 link to a daily chart and "how to" video of the Ling 142 six-sound daily check (Central Institute for the Deaf, 2016) 143 can be viewed online at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v= 144 Ot1zRYY9Lbg.

145 A classroom-based sound system that can work with 146 personal amplification to bring added benefit to all students, 147 especially students who are DHH, is a frequency modula-148 tion, or FM, system. An FM system can be anything from a 149 small piece coupled with a student's hearing aid to a sound 150 field system in the classroom. For some FM systems, a class-151 room teacher wears a transmitter microphone and the 152 student uses an FM receiver that connects to their hearing 153 aids so that the student hears the teacher's voice as if she 154 were standing close to them. Newer systems also include 155 microphones for peer use (Werfel & Hendricks, 2016). 156 Regardless of the type of FM system chosen, the speaker's 157 voice is amplified for the listener over the noise in the class-158 room. Research has documented multiple benefits of using a 159 classroom-based amplification system, including increased 160 student attention and listening, increased auditory analysis, 161 improved general student performance, decreased teacher 162 fatigue, and improved student performance for English 163 language learners (Hall, Meyer, & Rose, 2012). Most manu-164 facturers also provide connectivity options for use with 165 iPads, computers, or other technologies for FM systems and 166 personal amplification. When well used, sound field systems 167 can benefit all students. 168

170 Accessibility of visual environment 171

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Optimizing the classroom environment to ensure that 172 the visual environment is accessible and distractions are 173

174 minimized is crucial to learning success for any student who 175 is DHH (Smith, 2010). In the same way that it is critical to 176 understand the hearing loss and make adjustments to the 177 auditory environment for students who access information 178 auditorily, it is equally necessary to understand how students 179 use a sign language interpreter, facial expressions and 180 gestures, or lipreading to access classroom content through 181 a visual language. The best seating option varies for each 182 student and each classroom situation. Optimal solutions will 183 come from collaborating with the student and educational 184 team members.

185 A sign language interpreter is a critical member of the 186 inclusion team and participates in the daily life of the class-187 room (Cawthon, 2001). Students who use a sign language 188 interpreter need visual access to both the interpreter and 189 teacher to get critical nonverbal information from body lan-190 guage and facial expressions. Strategic seating arrangements 191 that provide a clear visual line to the teacher, interpreter, and 192 visual media used during classroom instruction are critical to 193 providing accessibility for students with hearing loss. Good 194 lighting is also important, so it is necessary to address poor 195 lighting and glare from windows that might occur during the 196 day. Teachers need to make accommodations for activities 197 that might include turning off the lights in the classroom, 198 recognizing that a student who is DHH will need to see the 199 interpreter and/or teacher as well as the visual screen or 200 demonstration. Suggestions for working with a classroom 201 interpreter can be found at http://www.classroominterpreting. 202 org/Teachers/potential limits.asp (Boys Town National 203Research Hospital, n.d.). 204

Teaching videos are frequently shown in classrooms and should always have captioning options activated. However, teachers need to be aware that captioning often runs at approximately 140 words per minute and many young children do not read at that level (Jensema, McCann, & Ramsey, 1996). Teachers can manually caption their own videos using several of the tools available in YouTube's video manager. The National Center on Disability and **Q**⁸²₂₁₄ Access to Education (2015) provides clear directions on how to caption YouTube videos: http://ncdae.org/resources/ cheatsheets/youtube.php.

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Providing direct and comfortable sight lines and minimal visual distractions creates a physical environment conducive to learning. Guardino and Antia (2012) researched classroom modifications for students who are DHH and reported that modifying the seating arrangements, organizing classroom materials, and reducing visual distractions increased student engagement and decreased levels of disruptive behaviors. Other modest classroom arrangement modifications related to visual distractions included changing the lighting, facing students away from doorways and windows, and placing barriers or partitions in the classroom to influence where attention was drawn. Teaching classmates to make minor changes in their classroom communication routines such as raising their hands and talking one at a time helps all students, but especially students with hearing loss who are trying to follow multiple speakers.

233 Pre-teach vocabulary234

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Teach target word in multiple formats

As previously stated, academic success is highly correlated with language abilities (Edwards & Feun, 2005). Teachers know that children learn language through incidental learning or learning by overhearing. Due to hearing loss, students who are DHH have much less access to the words around them unless they have comprehensible language input at home from the start (Suskind, Suskind, & Lewinter-Suskind, 2015). Consequently, their teachers must make a conscious effort to pre-teach vocabulary that the student will need to effectively participate in the learning activities.

One of the challenges with pre-teaching vocabulary is ensuring that the student clearly understands the target vocabulary word. Deliberately providing the word in multiple ways reinforces the long-term learning of target vocabulary (Hall et al., 2012). Discussion and spoken or signed language during class is impermanent and easily forgotten. Providing the word in English print form provides a permanent and clear version of the word. For a student who uses sign language, a technique called "chaining" was documented by Humphries and MacDougall (2000) and can be intentionally included in any teacher's toolbox. "Chaining," making an explicit connection between different forms of the same word, might include saying or signing the target English word, pointing to a picture of that word, writing the world on the board, or finger spelling the word.

Equally essential to pre-teaching vocabulary is making instruction visually comprehensible for students who are DHH as well as emergent bilingual learners (Roberts, 2017). **O**3 For example, younger students who are reading picture books benefit from a planned interactive picture walk through the new book. The picture walk provides labels for unknown words and allows students to connect new vocabulary and clear images to their prior experiences. Digital media offers unlimited opportunities to provide vocabulary learning opportunities in other formats for diverse learners. Google Images allows teachers to create a dictionary of key terms quickly by importing the images into a PowerPoint presentation. Cannon, Fredrick, and Easterbrooks (2010) reported increased vocabulary learning for students who were DHH and English language learners when explicit pre-teaching of target vocabulary included both visual cues using multimedia that provided examples and non-examples. One important consideration when teaching with visuals is that unlike hearing students who can take in new information through simultaneously listening and watching visual support, students who are DHH cannot watch an interpreter or lipread a speaker and look at a visual at the same time. Teachers need to allow time for students to preview images information before beginning the classroom discussion.

Case example

Ki's classroom provides an example of how teachers personalize these principles. Ki is profoundly deaf, uses a CI, 318

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and communicates with simultaneous communication of 292 both sign and spoken language. As a bimodal trilingual 293 student, he often uses both English and Korean spoken 294 language to communicate expressively with his family and 295 hearing teachers and friends, but he depends on American ²⁹⁶ Sign Language (ASL) in a receptive academic setting. His ²⁹⁷ second-grade class includes five students who are DHH ²⁹⁸ and is co-taught by Ms. Hernandez, a general education 299 teacher, and Ms. Clifton, a teacher of the deaf. They $\frac{300}{200}$ 301 noticed that Ki's literacy assessment results stalled at a beginning first-grade level. During guided reading in small groups, Ki's teachers plan picture walks through the books 304 with him as a strategy to pre-teach vocabulary that he 305 needs to comprehend the books he is reading in English. $\frac{306}{306}$ During whole-class instruction, new vocabulary words are $\frac{307}{307}$ purposefully printed on the chart paper next to the 308 teacher's easel, and students are asked to watch or listen 309 for the words as the story or lesson is being read aloud. 310 Math problems are displayed on the projector and math 311 word problems are prepared ahead of time and displayed 312 so that key words can be highlighted visually. Ki has know- 313 ledge and experiences to share, but he needs additional 314 instruction to learn, recognize, and use the new vocabulary 315 words in order to connect his experiential knowledge with 316 his growing language skills. 317

Determine how to teach skills related to sound

Finding ways to present auditory information challenges 321 even highly experienced teachers. To add to this 322 uncertainty, the efficacy of teaching phonological aware- 323 ness tasks to students who are DHH is often debated in 324 the literature (Paul, Wang, Trezek, & Luckner, 2009). 325 Teachers need to know that embedding phonological 326 awareness instruction as a part of literacy instruction is 327 appropriate for many students with hearing loss (Schirmer 328 & Schaffer, 2010). However, it is necessary to understand 329 that this instruction may require specific modification 330 for students who are DHH, depending on how they 331 access sound. 332

Lederberg, Miller, Easterbrooks, and Connor (2014) 333 implemented a five-year study using "Foundations for 334 Literacy: An early literacy intervention program for DHH ³³⁵ children." They provided experiences that included visual, ³³⁶ multimodal, and meaning-based vocabulary taught in mean- 337 ingful context. The children involved in the intervention 338 339 made significant gains on tests of phonological awareness, 340 letter-to-letter sound knowledge, and expressive vocabulary 341 when compared with the comparison group of children that 342 did not receive the intervention. Even though improved 343 technologies provide many children who are DHH with 344 more access to spoken language than ever before (Bergeron, 345 Lederberg, Easterbrooks, Miller, & Connor, 2009), the class- 346 room teacher needs to know how each student accesses 347 phonological cues and plan instructional modifications not 348 only for phonological awareness but for all types of learning 349 throughout the school day. 350

351 Integrate visual options to teach auditory information

352 Gardner, Cihon, Morrison, and Paul (2013) reported that 353 general education teachers who work with hearing students 354 struggling with letter-sound skills have experienced success 355 by adding a visual component such as See the Sound/Visual 356 Phonics (STS/VP) to their teaching (See the Sound/Visual 357 Phonics International Communication Learning Institute, 358 2011). Visual phonics is a system of 46 hand shapes used to 35**92**9 represent the phonemes of English and has been researched 360 and recommended as a way to make the phonemic aspect of 361 spoken language visual. Visual Phonics can be added to any 362 school literacy program simply by including the STS/VP 363 cues. The hand cues represent how the sounds are created 364 in the mouth: For example, the sound associated with the 365 letter f includes a hand shape that moves out from the 366 mouth like the air released when the sound associated with 367 the letter f is articulated. These hand shapes can be learned 368 in a one-day workshop and multiple resources, such as 369 charts, videos, and professional workshops are available 370 online at http://seethesound.org/. 371

Consistently using STS/VP is one way to modify phon-372 emic awareness instruction to visually teach the sounds to 373 students who cannot identify them auditorily. For example, 374 Nussbaum, Waddy-Smith, and Doyle (2012) recommend 375 using STS/VP when teaching rhyming words and homo-376 phones by presenting words using the STS/VP hand cues. In 377 the same way that hearing students hear the similarities, 378 students who are unable hear those similarities can see them 379 using the hand shapes. See the Sound/Visual Phonics also 380 uses written symbols, which can provide additional cues. 381

There is often little correspondence between a word's 382 sign and its English spelling. For example, the sign for 383 "children" comes from a gesture that looks like someone is 384 patting the heads of imagined children, not from any of the 385 letters or sounds of English. In contrast, finger spelling, 386 which is a manual representation of the English alphabet, is 387 a way for students who are profoundly deaf to use a system 388 that has a direct relationship to alphabetic print (Hirsh-389 Pasek, 1986). 390

Finger spelling has also been found to aid in retaining 391 new vocabulary words more than print for learners who use 392 sign language (Haptonstall-Nykaza & Schick, 2007). New or 393 targeted words can be introduced or emphasized with finger 394 spelling (Baker, 2010). For students who use sign language, 395 a strategy similar to the chaining strategy described earlier, 396 called "sandwiching," is an especially effective way to 397 incorporate finger spelling (Humphries & MacDougall, 398 2000). An example of using a sandwiching technique would 399 be signing the target word, then finger spelling the word, 400 then signing the word again, creating a "sandwich" around 401 the spelling of the target vocabulary word. The sign 402 language alphabet can be learned in an hour by any teacher 403 from a deaf individual or someone who uses sign language 404 or from a video and has been used to aid teaching letter-405 sound knowledge to all students, hearing or DHH. For 406 example, a teacher may explain that the letters gh are said 407 with the f sound in words such as tough or rough but are 408 silent in the word though. Teachers and students can have 409

fun incorporating finger spelling of new vocabulary or spelling words into their weekly spelling work. Students can finger spell the new spelling or vocabulary words to each other and have their partners say, sign, or write the words as part of their weekly spelling practice.

Case example

In Ms. Hernandez and Ms. Clifton's co-taught classroom, all of the students use finger spelling frequently. In stations, they sort words based on their word patterns. As two students who are DHH, Crystal and MiYoung, select word cards and pick up an unknown word, they deliberately finger spell the new word (*r*-*a*-*c*-*k*), then they flip the card over and see a familiar picture of a clothes rack and sign the word. They read the column of words, sometimes signing the words and sometimes finger spelling the words: black, track, back, sack. When they come to the new word, rack, they sign the word, finger spell the word, and sign it again using finger spelling as a coding system to remember the words, in the same way a hearing student uses an auditory representation of the word.

Include print to support comprehensible word learning

Word work instruction for students who are DHH must be 436 more extensive than word work for hearing students because 437 the very nature of hearing loss includes missing spoken 438 language (Schirmer & Schaffer, 2010; Suskind et al., 2015). 439 In general, high-frequency English words that are part of 440 most student's daily conversations such as because, for, 441 thought, do, saw, and went may be challenging for students 442 with hearing loss. Teachers often include a quick daily 443 review of English sight words to connect students' spoken 444 language with the printed words that they are learning to 445 read and write (Cunningham, 2004). However, these English 446 words are often not used in ASL and are signed inconsist-447 ently across English sign systems. For students who are rely-448 ing on audition only, these words are often the very words that are not heard. Some students may be clearly understanding only a portion of the words in a spoken sentence 451 and focusing on the key or meaningful words (e.g., grandpa 452 went hospital). Consequently, students who are DHH often 453 need more extensive instruction and time to integrate high-454 frequency English words into their own conversational or 455 written language. 456

In addition to reading and writing high-frequency words, 457 readers and writers need to internalize the spelling patterns 458 of English words beyond knowing the initial letters. Some 459 words, such as irregular past tense verbs, may develop more 460 slowly for students who are DHH. Word sort activities that 461 include seeing the printed words that students are sorting 462 support word learning for students who are DHH because 463 they (a) are taught visually, (b) engage learners to discover 464 the common patterns, and (c) expose students to words they 465 might not see otherwise (Cunningham, 2004). Word sorts 466 can be easily differentiated according to the learners' word 467 knowledge abilities. As students sort words, such as present 468

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and past tense words or regular and irregular past tense
words, they discover the similarities and differences across
visual patterns. Exposing students who are DHH to multiple
words with similar orthographic patterns allows them to
identify vocabulary that other students have heard through
incidental language exposure.

Provide authentic opportunities for language growth

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479 **Set expectations high by providing a model** 480

Students who are DHH often need additional instructional 481 support with English language skills compared to their 482 hearing peers (Cawthon, 2001) While students' language 483 proficiencies will vary greatly, some students may require 484 additional language support for several years to fully master 485 English grammar and vocabulary (Spencer & Marschark, 486 2010). Teachers can scaffold English grammar in the class-487 room using a modification of the commonly used word wall 488 and create a "question and answer wall" by posting com-489 490 monly used questions or sentences in their classroom. The authors watched a co-teaching team and their first-grade 491 students using a "question and answer wall" during the 492 school year. Common student questions were organized and 493 placed on the wall such as "Will you say that again? I didn't 494 understand what you said." The students referred to the wall 495 and contributed their own suggestions and requests. The 496 expectation of asking and answering questions in complete 497 sentences was clear, engaging, and visually supported in this 498 classroom. The teacher of the deaf collected and analyzed 499 500 spontaneous classroom language samples during the year and shared students' language growth with parents during 501 parent-teacher conferences. 502

A commonly used auditory strategy used by SLPs and 503 TODs to support students is acoustic highlighting, empha-504 sizing a specific sound, word, or phrase. Teachers and 505 04 parents can become more aware of grammar errors that 506 students make during informal conversations and respond 507 with a correct model, emphasizing the correct form or target 508 word. For example, a student may misuse or omit a prepos-509 510 ition, pronoun, or verb tense. The student may say, "Julie was mean. He pushed me." Acoustic highlighting can make 511 the student more aware of the communication errors by 512 repeating the sentence while highlighting or emphasizing the 513 correct pronoun, "SHE pushed me. Julie is a she." 514

In addition to less proficient language skills, social and 515 pragmatic language skills often lag behind and require repair 516 517 and practice for some students who are DHH (Goberis et al., 2012). Students learn from their classmates, and this 518 classroom talk forms the foundation of many research-based 519 instructional activities such as interactive reading instruc-520 tion, workstations, partner reading, and writing and reading 521 workshop. However, students may need clear and specific 522 strategies for communicating with their classmates who are 523 DHH. Elizabeth Rosenzweig (2014) posted suggestions 524 525 on helping classmates understand hearing loss at http:// cochlearimplantonline.com/site/helping-classmates-understand-526 hearing-loss/. Creating a classroom where students who are 527

DHH have opportunities to positively interact with their 528 peers benefits everyone (Antia, Jones, Luckner, Kreimeyer, & 529 Reed, 2011). 530

Case example

In MiYoung and Crystal's class, Ms. Hernandez and Ms. 534 Clifton gave their students tools to communicate with one 535 another effortlessly. The teachers modeled the fact that every 536 student was an important and equal member of the class 537 and both teachers worked with all of their students. Every ⁵³⁸ student was given a sign name and those names were used ⁵³⁹ by both teachers. Students all learned the signed alphabet ⁵⁴⁰ (finger spelling) as part of their spelling and word work. 541 The word wall included a picture of the sign next to the 542printed word, and sign language dictionaries were on book- 543 shelves and used often. Many of the general education ⁵⁴⁴ 545 teachers attended the weekly sign class and learned to communicate with students who used sign language. Students in ⁵⁴⁶ MiYoung and Crystal's class worked in flexible groups and 547 548 learning to sign came quickly to many of the children. On 549 the playground, it was difficult to identify who could hear and who could not, allowing for greater inclusion and 550further development of social learning and incidental ⁵⁵¹ 552 language exposure. 553

Individualize writing instruction and support

556 Writing is an essential component of literacy and an ideal 557 place to teach language skills because of the visual perman-558 ence of print. In contrast, spoken language and classroom 559 explanations are often elusive for students who are DHH 560 due to the speed at which they occur and the inability to 561 reexamine a statement after it has occurred. A language 562 lesson in print is something a student can refer to as often 563 as needed. However, when the writing task is arduous and 564 challenging, the student may not have enough time or stam-565 ina to complete the task. Classroom strategies to support 566 writers can make all the difference in the writing experience $\frac{567}{567}$ for students. 568

Provide strategy instruction

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The challenges that students with hearing loss experience in 572 English phonological awareness, vocabulary, and English 573 language knowledge impact the writing process, especially 574 for young students. While all of these challenges may occur 575 simultaneously during writing, they may need to be 576 addressed in different ways. For example, young writers may 577 struggle to write a sentence in their kindergarten journals to 578 match their drawings because they do not have enough let- 579 ter-sound knowledge to use the strategy of "sounding it out" 580 that young hearing students use. Some students may need 581 explicit instruction on how to use other strategies such as 582 (a) referring back to the word wall, (b) using classroom pic- 583 ture dictionaries or personal word banks that they create for 584 writing, (c) writing the first letter, (d) leaving a line or blank 585 space to go back to the word or (e) drawing an icon until 586

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587 they can find the word or ask someone for help, and 588 (f) partner writing (Graham, Harris, & Troia, 2000). As dis-589 cussed earlier, some students may need more individualized 590 instruction on letter-sound knowledge and those specific 591 strategies, such as using Visual Phonics as a visual cueing 592 system, can and should be incorporated into writing.

593 For other students, the roadblock to writing may be a 594 lack of vocabulary, not knowing the words for what they 595 want to write. A personal word bank with key vocabulary 596 can be generated together very quickly on a post-it note or 597 4×6 note card *before* the writing assignment for students 598 who need more vocabulary support. The student is held 599 responsible for creating the content and writing the senten-600 ces. Support for key words, especially story-specific words 601 that are not in the dictionary, can be provided to facilitate 602 the writing process. 603

Children who are DHH experience more delays in devel-604 oping English syntax skills than any other language area 605 (Lederberg, Schick, & Spencer, 2013). Lack of knowledge of 606 English syntax, especially for students who are learning 607 English as a third language, can also slow the writing pro-608 cess. Oral language errors can be seen in written language. 609 SMART board technology during the editing process pro-610 vides both teacher and students with a visual way to identify 611 612 errors and correct them. A strategy to edit sentences with a 613 younger student who is DHH and struggles with English 614 syntax is to write the sentence, cut it into individual words 615 or phrases, and ask the student to put the sentence in the 616 correct order and identify missing words.

619 **Case examples** 620

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Suzie was identified at kindergarten with hearing loss that 621 622 greatly impacted her learning. At the beginning of first 623 grade, Suzie worked with a TOD to develop early writing 624 skills twice a week. Part of Suzie's daily classwork was a 625 response to a written journal prompt, and she struggled 626 with answering the prompt by drawing a picture and writ-627 ing. Suzie and the TOD would talk about Suzie's picture 628 part of the response and brainstorm words that she would 629 need to write her journal entry, and together they would 630 formulate a sentence. At first, Suzie could only identify the 631 letter that corresponded to the initial sounds of a word, but 632 they worked together to spell words as they wrote the 633 response. As Suzie learned more letter-sound correlations, 634 writing support was slowly reduced.

635 Mateo is an example of 21st-century learning, using video 636 technology to translate his expressive language to print. He 637 is a fifth grader who is deaf, communicates through ASL, 638 and uses a sign language interpreter in his general education 639 classroom; he also struggled with putting his thoughts on 640 paper in an organized way. He completed brainstorming 641 and graphic organizers with his classmates, but when it was 642 time to write the first draft, he signed and recorded his story 643 in ASL first. Then using the recording, Mateo was able to 644 translate his ASL version of the story to written English. 645

Conclusion

647 Creating an accessible classroom learning environment for 648 students who are DHH is possible and promotes learning 649 for all students. Teachers can create an effective language 650 and literacy teaching environment for DHH students as they 651 work collaboratively with a team, optimize the physical 652 classroom, and implement instructional modifications such 653 as those shared here. At first it may seem overwhelming, 654 but students who are DHH can be included more easily by 655 addressing these key principles and walking through the 656 checklist provided. Looking at the individual strategies out-657 lined in this article, a pattern very similar to teaching lan-658 guage and literacy skills to students without hearing loss is 659 evident. Effective educators take the time daily to create an 660 optimal learning environment in which to effectively teach 661 literacy and language skills in their daily instruction, inte-662 grate learning across multiple modalities, and individualize 663 instruction as needed. While it is easy to forget the inherent 664 challenges that students who are DHH face, the strategies of 665 accessible instruction coupled with added awareness of the 666 challenges facing students who are DHH will allow teachers 667 to create accessible language and literacy instruction for 668 all students. **O10**669

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Appendix

Checklist of Strategies

- 815 Optimizing the Learning Environment
 - Analyze how each student will access classroom language. 816
 - Know what a student can and cannot hear (collaborate with an 817 audiologist or specialist). 818
 - Monitor classroom noise with a decibel meter (free app). 819 Determine who will check personal amplification system daily
 - 820 (Ling six-sound test).
 - 821 Consider classroom FM system if appropriate. 822
 - Analyze the visual environment.

823 824 825 826 827 828 829 830 831 832 833 834 835	 Read suggestions for how to collaborate with the educational interpreter. Enable the captions on videos. Pre-teach Vocabulary Plan pre-teaching of words with multiple formats (chaining strategy). Implement picture walks (teach new vocabulary through visual pictures). Use Google Images and other technologies to provide visuals. Allow time to process visual images and visual language. Determine how to teach skills related to sound Include visual and multimodal instruction. Consider using a visual cueing system such as Visual Phonics. Explore ways to incorporate finger spelling in instruction. Include Print to Support Comprehensible Word Learning Teach high-frequency words at the sentence level. 	 Include word sort activities in literacy stations. Provide Authentic Opportunities for Language Growth Provide a sentence wall to help students communicate in full sentences. Practice acoustic highlighting strategies. Create opportunities for student interaction. Teach classmates how to communicate with classmates with hearing loss. Individualize Writing Instruction and Support Use the permanence of print and the visual accessibility to teach English skills. Create student word dictionaries or word banks. Implement partner and shared writing. Cut sentences apart and reorder to support editing. Consider having students record their story before they write.
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