

UNIWERSYTET IM. ADAMA MICKIEWICZA W POZNANIU

**INTERDYSCYPLINARNE
KONTEKSTY
PEDAGOGIKI SPECJALNEJ**

ENGLISH EDITION

21

Redaktor tomu
MAGDALENA OLEMPKA-WYSOCKA



POZNAŃ 2018

INTERDISCIPLINARY CONTEXTS OF SPECIAL PEDAGOGY

The scientific journal of the Faculty of Educational Studies

Adam Mickiewicz University issued as a quarterly

EDITORIAL BOARD

Chief Editor – Iwona Chrzanowska (Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznan)

Deputy Editor-in-Chief – Magdalena Olempska-Wysocka (Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznan) Assistant Editor – Aneta Wojciechowska (Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznan)

Andrzej Twardowski (Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznan), Agnieszka Słopień (Poznan University of Medical Sciences), Beata Jachimczak (Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznan), Katarzyna Pawelczak (Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznan), Miron Zelina (Univerzita Komenského v Bratislave), Jana Rapuš-Pavel (Univerza v Ljubljani), William Brenton (University of Maine Presque Isle), Jacek Pyżalski (Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznan), Amadeusz Krause (The University of Gdansk), Jarmila Novotná (MBA Dubnický technologický inštitút v Dubnici and Váhom, Masarykova Univerzita v Brně), Magdalena Olempska-Wysocka (Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznan)

SUBJECT EDITOR

Iwona Chrzanowska	(inclusive education, pedagogy of people with special educational needs)
Andrzej Twardowski	(psychology of human development, early support of child development)
Agnieszka Słopień	(psychiatry of children and adolescents)
Beata Jachimczak	(inclusive education, pedagogy of people with special educational needs)
Katarzyna Pawelczak	(psychology of people with disabilities)
Aneta Wojciechowska	(special education, logopedics)
Miron Zelina	(pedagogy, psychology)
Jana Rapuš-Pavel	(social pedagogy)
William Brenton	(special education)
Jacek Pyżalski	(media pedagogy, resocialization)
Amadeusz Krause	(special education)
Jarmila Novotná	(pedagogy)
Magdalena Olempska-Wysocka	(psychology, deaf education, logopedics)

LANGUAGE EDITORS

Karolina Kuryś (Polish)

Wendy Ross (English)

Nicol Ross (English)

STATISTICAL EDITOR

Paweł Mleczek

© Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznan, Scientific Publishers UAM, Poznan 2018

„Tłumaczenie zawartości 8 numerów czasopisma „Interdyscyplinarne Konteksty Pedagogiki Specjalnej” na język angielski – zadanie finansowane w ramach umowy 792/P-DUN/2017 ze środków Ministra Nauki i Szkolnictwa Wyższego przeznaczonych na działalność upowszechniającą naukę”.



Ministerstwo Nauki
i Szkolnictwa Wyższego

ISSN 2300-391X



Contents

Preface (Magdalena Olempska-Wysocka)	5
--	---

ARTICLES

BOGUSŁAW ŚLIWERSKI

The uniqueness of the phenomenon of the scouting-based education ...	11
--	----

BEATA BOROWSKA-BESZTA

Ohyake (公) or watakushi (私) and puraibashii (プライベート)? Space and Artefacts in Special and Inclusive Education in Japan: Report on Visual Educational Microethnography	29
--	----

DOROTA PODGÓRSKA-JACHNIK

Special and non-special. Dilemmas of the modern approach to the needs of people with disabilities	63
--	----

IWONA CHRZANOWSKA, BEATA JACHIMCZAK

Student With Migration Experience in Education. Diagnosis of Needs and Areas of Support Within Inclusive Education: A Foreign Student	81
---	----

TERESA SERAFIN

Information & Co-ordination Point for Persons with Disabilities (PIKON) as a form of information support aimed at improving the quality of life of persons with disabilities and their families	97
---	----

EWA GACKA

The prevention of disorders in the articulation development of children at the infancy and post-infancy stages	119
---	-----

AGNIESZKA KAMYK-WAWRYSZUK	
Pre-verbal communication behaviours in children with Cri du chat syndrome in the opinion of parents	135
MAGDALENA MAGIERSKA-KRZYSZTOŃ, MAGDALENA OLEMPKA-WYSOCKA	
Linguistic competence of children with prelingual hearing loss implanted up to the age of two	157
KORNELIA CZERWIŃSKA, AGNIESZKA PIKORSKA	
Blindness and pragmatic competence in communication	179
MAŁGORZATA JEDYNAK	
Teaching a Foreign Language to Partially Sighted and Blind Learners: Overview of Research Findings	199
IZABELLA KUCHARCZYK	
Analogical reasoning based on geometric material in blind pupils	215
Elżbieta Lubińska-Kościółek, Jolanta Zielińska	
A person with hearing impairment as a recipient of art – the borderline of special needs education and neuroaesthetics	233
WANDA HAJNICZ, IWONA KONIECZNA	
Open Problems in Medical Pedagogy	247
BEATA ANTOSZEWSKA	
Self-interpretation of the Medical Profession: Physicians' Narratives ...	263
OLEKSANDRA YEHOVA	
Perspectives of Civic Upbringing as in Non formal Education	287
REPORT	
JUSTYNA SOCHA	
Report on the 7 th Yes! Meeting – Scientific Conference (Non-)directively, Poznań, 17 th –18 th November 2017	307
AGNIESZKA NYMŚ-GÓRNA	
Report on the Polish Conference <i>Creating Intimacy. Daily challenges</i> (Wrocław, 4 December 2017)	311

Preface

The 21st volume of “Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Education” constitutes a compilation of papers pertaining to the current issues in the realm of special education. The first paper in the publication was penned by Professor Bogusław Śliwerski and pertains to the uniqueness of scouting education. The author attempts to answer the question about the degree in which the modern educational accomplishments refer to the phenomenon of scouting education. Is it possible to talk about scouting education or scouting pedagogy? As Professor Śliwerski notes in his article, such issues cannot be settled exclusively on the level of normative models – it is necessary to reach to prior studies and to show the necessity of making an academic turnaround in this respect.

“Ohyake (公) or watakushi (私) and puraibashii (プライベート)? Space and Artefacts in Special and Inclusive Education in Japan: Report on Visual Educational Microethnography” is the subject matter of a paper presented by Professor Beata Borowska-Beszta, PhD (Nicolaus Copernicus University in Toruń). As noted by the author, the purpose of a portion of studies analysed in the report was to understand and to assess space and selected types of behaviour, along with physical and material artefacts of six schools and one support facility for mentally handicapped adults in the contexts of organisational culture of emic Japanese understanding

of space, and space as a cultural reservoir of coding the construct of disability. In the next paper, Professor Dorota Podgórska-Jachnik, PhD (Kazimierz Wielki University in Bydgoszcz) discusses problems of disability seen through the prism of needs, both these determined as special (special educational needs, development and vocational needs), as well as the universal ones. The author analyses both the concept of (special) needs, as well as its theoretical and practical explorations in reference to care, compensatory, educational and therapeutic activities.

Issues pertaining to support as part of inclusive education offered to one of student groups with special educational needs, namely foreign students, are presented by Professor Iwona Chrzanoska and Professor Beata Jachimczak, PhD (Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań). As shown by the authors, problems of foreign students, both in reference to education and social integration in the country in which they reside, are specific even within the group of students with special educational needs.

In the next paper, Teresa Serafin, PhD sets forth the initiatives undertaken by the social organisations and the office of the capital city of Warsaw aimed at improving the quality of life of persons with disabilities and their families. As noted by the author of the text, such initiatives refer to the continuation of activities of the education system as far as the levelling of the chances of students with disabilities is concerned on the part of institutions performing tasks in the realm of various areas of social policy, including support for professional and personal functioning of adults.

Preventing irregularities in the development of articulation in infants and toddlers is the issue explored by Ewa Gacka, PhD. The author sets forth activities preventing emergence of irregularities in development of articulation addressed to infants and toddlers. The issue of pre-verbal communication development of children suffering from the Cri du Chat syndrome in the assessment of parents is the content of another paper prepared by Agnieszka Kamyk-Wawryszuk. The pre-verbal communication behaviour of children with Cri du Chat syndrome discussed by the author shows that it is

diversified; such behaviour encompasses gestures indicating what the child needs, vocalisation with the aim of provoking contact with the other person; the behaviour of daughters/ sons described by parents may provide a basis for the process of teaching pre-verbal communication. Magdalena Magierska-Krzysztoń, PhD and Magdalena Olempska-Wysocka, PhD present their own studies pertaining to linguistic competence of children with pre-lingual deafness who received implants before turning two. The aim of the study was to determine the level of linguistic competence of children with pre-lingual deafness who received cochlear implants before the second year of life, with the application of 6 Sounds Linga Test, MAIS and MUSS scale, as well as the TAPS scale.

In the subsequent article, Kornelia Czerwińska, PhD and Agnieszka Piskorska tackle the issue of teaching a foreign language to a group of blind and visually impaired students, and reviewed studies pertaining to foreign language typhlology. The studies presented in the paper offer insight into acquisition of the native language or acquisition of a foreign language by visually impaired students. Reasoning via analogies based on geometric materials in blind students is an issue discussed by Izabella Kucharczyk, PhD. The author presents results of studies pertaining to reasoning via geometric analogies of blind students aged 10, 12 and 14. The study covered a group of 63 blind and 63 fully able students. Twelve series B tables of Progressive Matrices of John C. Raven were used in the study. As noted by the author, a detailed analysis of dependencies among variables allowed for determining differences between groups of students in the area of reasoning via geometric analogies.

Elżbieta Lubińska-Kościółek, PhD and Professor Jolanta Zielińska, PhD (Pedagogical University of Krakow) discuss the issue of an adult person with hearing impairment as a recipient of art. The authors present studies on the perception of art by persons with hearing impairment, which were conducted from the perspective of special pedagogy and neuroaesthetics with the application of EEG and QEEG analysis with the use of Mitsar-EEG-202. As stressed by the authors, the results of this study proved the usefulness of the

proposed research process for the identification of new research subjects in the areas of special education.

In the next article, Professor Wanda Hajnicz, PhD (Maria Grzegorzewska University) and Iwona Konieczna, PhD show that problems of specific specialisations in the area of special education overlap or exceed the constraints of a given sub-discipline. The presented article addresses the issues related to outlining the major problems that are crucial for the lives of people suffering from a chronic illness in various areas of their functioning.

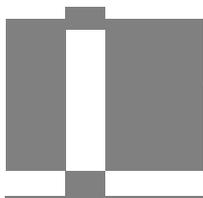
Beata Antoszevska, PhD, in her paper entitled "Auto-Interpretation of the Medical Profession: Physicians' Narratives" makes an attempt at presenting the meanings assigned by physicians to their profession. The materials collected by the author are a part of a more extensive project, which pertained to the relations between physicians and patients, reconstructed in individual narratives of physicians. The studies are closely related to the quality perspective – the interpretive paradigm.

In the last paper, Oleksandra Yehorova, PhD, presents the prospects of civic education. The author discusses theoretical aspects and significance of the broadly-understood civic education in the modern times and analyses its role, tasks, out-of-school programmes, best experiences and practices of extracurricular education in the United States in the area of civic education. The compilation ends with reports from conferences prepared by Justyna Socha and Agnieszka Nymś-Górna.

It is with greatest pleasure that I am handing over this volume of "Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Education" to you; simultaneously, I wish to thank the authors for their efforts in sharing their findings and for inspiration for coming up with new research questions.

Magdalena Olempska-Wysocka

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.01>



ARTICLES



The uniqueness of the phenomenon of the scouting-based education

ABSTRACT: Bogusław Śliwerski, *The uniqueness of the phenomenon of the scouting-based education*, Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 11-27. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.02>

The world scout movement, including the Polish scout movement refers to a lesser or even to an orthodox extent to the pedagogical ideas and assumptions of Scouting by Robert Stephenson Baden-Powell and the successors of his pedagogics. In the article I respond to the question, to what extent does contemporary pedagogical thought refer to the phenomenon of scout movement education? Can we speak of the pedagogy of scouting or rather of scouting pedagogics? These issues cannot be solved solely on the level of normative models if one would not reach to former studies without indicating the necessity of conducting a scientific turn in this regard.

KEY WORDS: scouting, scout movement, education, pedagogics, scouting pedagogy, pedagogics of scouting

The practice of scouting is very broad. In pedagogical circles as well. Thoughts on scouting, the theory of scouting, are in Poland almost non-existent¹.

¹ A. Kamiński, *Przedmowa*, [in:] *Skauting i Harcerstwo. Wybór pism charakteryzujących ruch młodzieży i system wychowawczy*, ed. by Aleksander Kamiński, Kraków,

Introduction

The issue of education through scouting, which has in its Polish history taken on a very proprietary name – *harcerstwo* – necessitates the embedding in scouting pedagogy, which in the 21st century must be embedded in the humanities and in social sciences. There already exists rich subject literature on this movement and the sources of its evolution along the ages, with particular consideration for the period after the turnaround in the Republic of Poland since 1989. At times, due to the utilised sources, when writing about scouting I will refer my analyses to the Polish scout movement, irrespective of whether I would be speaking of the Polish Scouting and Guiding Association (Polish: Związek Harcerstwa Polskiego, ZHP), the Scouting Association of the Republic of Poland (Polish: Związek Harcerstwa Rzeczypospolitej, ZHR) or any other scouting and guiding organisation from Poland. I refer to the sociological indications by Florian Znaniecki, who in his study on the sociology of education finds the interaction in societies of various social groups, whereby despite the multitude characterising them, their diversity and the differences between them, there exist those that focus their activity around the influential group that, for me in this case is precisely scouting. As the sociologist put it: (...) *the interference of interacting subordinate groups is not always unilateral, meaning that the weaker, smaller group, to a certain extent subordinate to the more numerous and powerful group, by itself, through its members, strives to, often successfully, influence it, and subordinate it to itself in certain respects*².

Every scouting organisation in Poland refers to a lesser or even an to orthodox extent to the pedagogical ideas and assumptions of Scouting by Robert Stephenson Baden-Powell and the successors of his pedagogics. In this sense, scouting is to a certain extent dependent on them, infusing scouting pedagogics with factors that partly

Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls” 2015, p. 5 (Reprint of author’s typewritten text from 1946).

² F. Znaniecki, *Socjologia Wychowania*, vol. I. Wychowujące społeczeństwo, Warszawa, Książnica – Atlas Tow. Naucz. Szkół Wyższ. 1928, p. 49.

differentiate it from other scouting organisations. *Noteworthy is the fact that in most countries there exist separate guiding and scouting organisations, frequently these are separated into catholic, protestant, YMCA-related, or even party organisations. We pride ourselves in the fact that despite many odds we were able to maintain unity*³. After dozens of years of imprisonment, enslavement during Nazi and subsequently Soviet physical, structural and symbolic power, following the dissolution of political censorship, we can finally print monographies and results of basic studies on the socialisation and education environment, the primary axionormative assumptions, the modes of work with people from three generations – children, adults and the elderly, and the time-delayed achievements of which may facilitate their continued implementation under social, economic, political and personal conditions suitable to the changing reality.

Pedagogy and scouting pedagogics

The fact that scouting by its nature primarily has a socialising function, meaning – indirectly referring to education and upbringing, was the subject of many scientific dissertations during the IInd Polish Republic, which were excluded from public access to their content for dozens of years until the year 1990, when censorship was lifted in Poland. Thus, they did not become the basis for the update of the notions and arguments contained in them⁴. It is worthwhile to look back at the thesis of historian Adam Massalski: (...) *that scouting in Poland is scouting plus independence and pedagogical thought. The pedagogical thought, the level of which distinguishes*

³ J. Tworowska, *Równajmy krok. O współpracy z Ruchem Harcerskim Nauczycielstwa i Rodziców*, Kraków, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls” 2016 (reprint of a publication from the year 1931), p. 36.

⁴ In the years 2014–2017, the “Impuls” publishing house, under editor Wojciech Śliwerski, published 141 reprints of publications from the years 1909–1939 that were for a total of 80 years unavailable to Polish science, scouting and instructor circles due to occupation, censorship and the distribution of sources.

*Polish scouting from among other scouting organisations*⁵. The proceedings from the conference, where this scientist from the city of Kielce had published his letter to the participants of the scientific debate, include a paper by Kazimierz B. Schütterly, in which he admits that scouting pedagogy was not named a separate scientific field. This was despite the upper education course of 'Education methodology of the Polish Scouting and Guiding Association' taught until the year 1989. *In the beginning of the 1990s, scouting education was a scientific field that was striven for. It was spoken of as if it had been a class or course*⁶. Following the year 1990, the class was withdrawn from pedagogical education curricula, however, a few methodological studies were published afterwards, aimed at indicating – in the view of this author – that such a pedagogy did exist.

The greatest impact on the self-education dimension of Polish scouting was exerted by ideas promoted by the „Eleusis” society, where the most prominent creators of Polish scouting worked, its initiators such as: Andrzej Małkowski, Jerzy Grodyński, Ignacy Kozielewski, Tadeusz Strumiłło or the creator of Polish guiding, Olga Drahonowska-Małkowska. Thanks to them and their clear influence on the entire movement, the scouting educational ideal was expanded by Polish national notions through reference to the Eleusian idea of brotherhood, austerity, the ecumenical dimension of the deaconry, discipline and loyalty as well as perfectionism and harmonious development of personality. This rule underwent varied changes, gaining in its current edition of 2017 a vastly different wording – *The scout works on themselves, his thoughts, words and acts*

⁵ A. Massalski, *Przewodniczący Związku Harcerstwa Polskiego*, [in:] *Dorobek pedagogiki harcerskiej. Materiały z konferencji naukowej zorganizowanej w 50. rocznicę powstania „Nieprzetartego Szlaku”*, Kraków, Wyższa Szkoła Filozoficzno-Pedagogiczna „Ignatianum”, Komisja Historyczna Krakowskiej Chorągwi ZHP 2008, p. 9.

⁶ K.B. Schütterly, *Pedagogika ZHP – mity a rzeczywistość*, [in:] *Dorobek pedagogiki...*, op. cit., p. 105.

*pure; he is free of addictions*⁷. Adapted English scouting in the ideological sense was on the one hand expanded upon, infused with Polish national characteristics, yet on the other hand, through excessive fears of accusations against contemporary scouting of ties to the doctrine of *bourgeois* upbringing, it was “shallowed” or completely deprived of educationally valid ideas of universal, ideology-free character. However, the idea of perceiving scouting as a movement of self-education that among its methods promotes self-reliance, initiative, creativity, independence as well as psychological and physical abilities, remained. Contemporary scouting, however, was not able to avoid the hazard referred to R. Baden-Powell as (...) *overphilosophising scouting, turning nothing into a very smart thing, a scientific theory*⁸. The participants of the 1922 Geneva International Moral Education Congress, its third edition, considered scouting to be (...) *the most profound pedagogical act of our time*⁹.

Behind us is already the attempt to include in times of the Polish People’s Republic practical and theoretical knowledge (including historical knowledge) about scouting in the field of sciences concerning education and upbringing, disclosing therein, among others, scouting pedagogy, which, however, did not gain a foothold. Accordingly, there is no scouting pedagogy, however, there exists the pedagogics of this environment, meaning, the universal art (and partially – method) of inculturation, the support of individual development and socialisation of children and youths in scouting as a unique environment of socialisation – due to its specific properties. Just like it is in the education system, one may speak about the systematic, theoretical foundation and equipping the assumptions

⁷ The scout is free of addictions – item 10 from the Scouting Laws, amended, [in:] <https://zhp.pl/2017/harcerz-jest-wolny-od-nalogow-10-punkt-prawa-harcerskie-go-zmieniony/> [access: 10.01.2018].

⁸ H. Glass, *Gawędy z drużynowym. Zbiór rad i wskazówek dla instruktorów harcerskich*, Warszawa 1923, p. 48.

⁹ Quoted from: T. Strumiłło, *Harcerstwo a szkoła*, [no publication place or date/article] W. Błażejowski, *Bibliografia Harcerska 1911–1960*, Warszawa 1980, p. 163. suggested publication year 1921.

and theories concerning the education and upbringing of man, referred to the components of cognition of this concept, with a rich system of concepts, collected over a century of existence and development of this movement. Scouting is a pedagogical doctrine, if one would state that it has its own knowledge about how one should perceive (scouting) education within it, what it is, what is its meaning, what are its specifics and properties.

In course of the evolution of this movement, this phenomenon had not lost its fundamental determining factors. Scouting is everything what people learn within it outside of the officially available and known programme of the Association. So, scouting is all that is taught by the very fact of remaining within it like in a socialisation and education environment, and what was not its assumed function. The pluralism of the scouting movement stems from the differences in the pedagogical doctrines and education ideologies existing among its ranks. However, each of its kinds is touched by a covert education programme. So, the conviction that this or that scouting [organisation] is better, more valuable or politically correct does not protect against that, to which it would not like to lead, and despite it facilitates possible, e. g. personal, disillusionment, weak recruitment, simulations, lies, boredom or slackness.

As Józef Sosnowski wrote in 1946: *The synonymous word "pedagogics" describes specifically the art of education. (...) a person guided by so-called intuition, without knowledge of pedagogy, practising pedagogics, may effectively educate. Pedagogics is practised certainly by most mothers with respect to their children*¹⁰. Contemporaneously, the term pedagogics has several meanings: 1) it is the art of effectively influencing children and youths for the purpose of achievement of specific education goals, metaphorically speaking, the "cultivation of the human spirit"; 2) it is a kind of pedagogical doctrine, an education ideology or a covert education programme; 3) in the English-

¹⁰ J. Sosnowski, *O wychowaniu w ogóle i wychowaniu harcerskim*, Kraków, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls” 2016 (Reprint of an unpublished print from the year 1946), p. 11.

speaking world – it is a fairly coherent and stable set of educational practices, through which the individual takes up new (or expands hitherto existing) forms of behaviour, knowledge, abilities and the criteria of their evaluation, taking them over from someone (or something) that they believe suitable as their supplier (conveyor) and evaluator¹¹. Pedagogics is thus a social educational practice supported by reflection, a biography of experience, meaning, common knowledge, but partially scientific knowledge as well. Pedagogy in turn is a term reserved in science for the description of the distinctiveness of a scientific field (or an area of knowledge) concerning educational processes, the task of which is the production of knowledge about the entirety of educational practice and theory – former and current. *Thus, the subject of research by pedagogy thus understood are pedagogies in all their meanings*¹².

Scouting as pedagogics is both a pedagogical doctrine, a pedagogical ideology, as well as a covert – in the positive meaning of the word – concept of self-education of all its participants: children, youths, adults and the elderly. Stanisław Sedlaczek wrote of the writings of Baden-Powell that (...) *they are pedagogical and journalistic in character. From this stems the basic difficulty to most precisely determine what is the key expression of the views of Baden-Powell, and what, to a lesser or larger extent, was caused by an educational strategy. I believe that it may be assumed that Baden-Powell actually did not subordinate his basic views to pedagogical assumptions, that in this regard his statements on the basic issues can be perceived as a material, true image of his views*¹³.

Scouting as pedagogics need not lead to academic pedagogisation of its staff or personnel, meaning, the inscription, clarification and interpretation of the process taking part within this movement in the same way as contemporary pedagogy does this in the course of education of future education specialists, as it may make use

¹¹ T. Hejnicka-Bezwińska, *Pedagogika ogólna*, Warszawa, WAiP 2008, p. 493.

¹² *Ibidem*, p. 495.

¹³ S. Sedlaczek, *Podstawy etyczne skautingu Baden-Powellowskiego*, Kraków, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls” 2015, p. 6. (Reprint of a 1928 edition).

from resources while not striving to achieve some kind of internal scientific autonomy. It suffices for pedagogical sciences to sufficiently strongly react to the most modern streams of theoretical thought in the humanities and in social sciences, as well as in other areas of life, that thanks to the enrichment of the process of education of the instructors and leaders even by a part of this knowledge to be moved to better understand and explain the processes on which one could have a greater influence, or about the influence of which one could be better aware. The uniqueness of pedagogy as a science for scouting pedagogics entails the fact that when asking about the patterns of criticality and their hidden assumptions, it permits the formulation of questions about its own identity. It discloses the variety and ambivalence, among others, of good and evil, of truth and lies, of beauty and kitsch, of hope and failure, life and death, chaos and order, compulsion and freedom, influence and resistance, tradition and future, responsibility and irresponsibility in education and upbringing, permitting at the same time a reading through these categories of the fate of the authenticity of these processes, perception of their dynamics and real assumptions tensions, situations and processes. Thanks to the recognition of the system of polar dynamisms, pedagogy emphasizes and respects at the same time the weight of oppositional phenomena, bringing forth sensitivity to the doubling of the dangers, limitations or threats hiding within this tension, underscoring dramatic dilemmas and disquiet.

Scouting instructors, even though they do not need to be, and for the most part probably are not, teachers or professionals in the broadly understood field of education, yet due to the roles they fulfil that are also institutionally structured, they become or already are pedagogues. Aleksander Kamiński discerned between two types of pedagogues: professionals and amateurs. Among the former, only those teachers and educators are pedagogues, who subject to research control, comparative analyses and theoretical reflection *the issues of education, who theorise with respect to issues of education*. There exist, however, pedagogues treating their calling without referring to professionalism, thus including that part of the leading personnel

in scouting, which subjects their activity to reflection, penetrates the environmental causes of developmental, cultural and social successes and failures, and seeks and activates factors that may support (...) *the educational rectification of distortions, the initiation of situations facilitating success in the comprehensive development of individuals, groups, communities (...)*¹⁴, being – (...) *the intellectual salt of its collegial circles*¹⁵.

Scouting educators or leaders may be included in the broadly understood group of social pedagogues that can be better prepared to undertake actions within the social structures with respect to three categories of people: those threatened by exclusion, those being actively excluded and those already excluded from social life. Instructors understood in this way orient their activity towards care and aid, education, inculturation, upbringing and the facilitation of processes supporting the development of another or of social groups. This was the strength of scouting in its various national forms, that it was from the very beginning inclusive and not exclusive, elitist, reserved for a specific social group. There is an overlap here with the expectations of A. Kamiński, to make social pedagogy environmental pedagogy in the sense that scouting will be treated as an environment of human life that requires not as much its institutionalisation, as the permeating thereof with educational intentionality and the perception within it of possibilities spanning better support for the personality development in children, youths and adults that the instruction personnel did not appreciate until then.

Kamiński unequivocally spoke in favour of humanist pedagogy within scouting that would take the side of education of other beings with full respect for their dignity. In this view, the pedagogue organises, reorganises and improves the environment (...) *not as much for persons from this environment, and not as much by people of this environment, but foremost together with the people of that environment, when the educator remains among the people as their confidant, advisor,*

¹⁴ A. Kamiński, *Studia i szkice pedagogiczne*, Warszawa, PWN 1978, pp. 6–7.

¹⁵ *Ibidem*, p. 5.

*activity organiser, leader and advocate*¹⁶. The educator-pedagogue (...) perceives those under their care always dually, seeing in them not only the object, but also the subject of the education process. They perceive this process in cooperation with an individual with their own self-awareness, even if this individual is a child. For the pedagogue unacceptable is the subdivision into the manipulated and the manipulating, the moulding and the moulded. The pedagogue sees the educator as a specialist operating among people, rallying them around higher-order values and motivation¹⁷.

The uniqueness of intermediate upbringing within scouting

The power of scouting lies in the fact that it include one in social life and facilitate the reclaiming of the power of one's own value, aspirations, the chances of a better life for those stripped of such hope in their family (which may be a socially-hazardous, dysfunctional environment), scholar, extrascholar or professional environment. Scouting always prevailed best exactly in this area of social existence, in the rescuing and bringing back to life of valuable persons who despite this were marginalised, neglected, bullied somewhere and by others, even those with reduced self-esteem, uncertain of themselves, with unfulfilled desires of affiliation, security or belonging and self-realisation, seeking socially valuable goals, seeking to prove themselves or devote themselves to others.

Particular value of scouting rests in appropriate work together with the candidates looking to join its ranks, as after the act of initiation performed by them, one needs to care for the vows and pledges they made were not violated. In this respect, Baden-Powell was right when he designed the paramount law of self-education for all its members, including functional members – both scouts and leaders: who became a scout once (meaning: who once gave their word,

¹⁶ Ibidem, p. 29.

¹⁷ Ibidem.

obligated themselves to something in the presence of witnesses), they remain one forever or never are one. In view of A. Kamiński, the quality and force of educational influence *depends decisively on whether (...) the organisational structure encompasses stimuli encouraging improvement, self-perfection spanning the aim and effectiveness of educational processes) (...)*¹⁸. This is why such an important role in scouting is played by all kinds of impulses of self-education, but also conditions facilitating the correct selection of the leading personnel and the self-government processes across the entire movement. In this process, pedagogy perceived as knowledge being private, personal in character, stemming from practice-based experience collected over the years cannot be avoided. The cognition system of educators understood as such is made up of their abilities, patterns of perception, their expectations, evaluation and strategies of personal pedagogical work¹⁹.

Despite the intense growth of general pedagogy in the world, scientific papers concerned with the conceptual categories of theoretical and practical pedagogy, trainers from within scouting are resistant to assimilation and application of scientific knowledge, providing their musings, reflections and the majority of publications rather informal traits. Their analyses are the persistent repetition of the eclectic substantiation of the uniqueness of scouting assigning the alleged multidimensionality of its nature to the contemporary thought on it. As Jakub J. Czarkowski writes: *Scouting is neither just an organisation or an educational institution, nor just a social movement (frequently quite a spontaneous one), it is partly all these things at once*²⁰. What is more interesting, the author proceeds with exactly such a characterisation of the nature of scouting in the subchapter

¹⁸ A. Kamiński, *Studia i...*, op. cit., p. 77.

¹⁹ J.-L. Patry, *Dlaczego nauka o wychowaniu ma tak mały wpływ na wychowanie?*, „Edukacja” 1993, no. 4.

²⁰ J.J. Czarkowski, *O metodzie harcerskiej i jej rozwoju*, [in:] *Na tropach harcerskiej metodyki. 100 lat harcerstwa polskiego*, ed. by Grażyna Miłkowska, Krystyna Stech, Zielona Góra, Oficyna Wydawnicza Uniwersytetu Zielonogórskiego 2011, p. 16.

entitled „At the source of emergence of the method”. Krystyna Stech took a similar approach to a scientific analysis of scouting, concluding that one may speak of a multicategoriality of its concepts, (...) *whereby this stems from the impossibility of the unequivocal determination of the nature of the complex and multi-dimensional phenomena that scouting is*²¹. This focus on attempts to capture scouting in its entirety actually causes the disappearance of insight into what constitutes its unique property, which is specifically the uniqueness of indirect education. Wherever scouting is assigned a description – as a movement, system, organisation, union, lifestyle, game, wandering or even a method of education and/ or upbringing, one loses sight of what is experienced and made up in their mutual relations by scouts and their leaders. Treatises on what scouting is do not yield the answer to what scouting education is.

Aleksander Kamiński accurately identified the phenomenon of scouting that was over the generations instrumentalised, reduced to a method despite at its core not being one. *Scouting in the English sense is foremost a game, an educating yet at the same time free, simple and joyful way of spending time. Polish scouting is also a game, but a game that aims to treat the scouting educational ideal very seriously. One could perhaps say that the Polish youth increases the stakes in the game of scouting.*²² Such an approach to education makes us focus on the instrumental dimension of scouting forms of activity, identifying in them the components of this game, this play, the exercises, improving specific abilities or skills. We would thus be interested in the leisure function of scouting, for which key is the archetype of the “game/ play” (...) *that is not “ordinary life”, but that selflessly ventures outside of the “process of direct satisfaction of needs and cravings, even interrupting this process – “serving culture: or even more: becoming culture itself”. The game-play “unifies and divides”. Attracts. Awe: it charms. (...) it subjectifies the person, as long as they control it and*

²¹ K. Stech, *Spółeczny zasięg metodyki harcerskiej*, [in:] *Na tropach...*, op. cit., p. 53.

²² A. Kamiński, *Nauczanie i wychowanie metodą harcerską*, Warszawa, Nasza Księgarnia 1948, p. 24.

*adhere to its rules. So, the stronger the leisure function in the scouting movement, the more fully other functions are implemented (e. g. education, self-education, preparation to organised social life)*²³. This shows that education takes place as part of an education function that is implemented differently, not being a leisure, self-education or preparatory function.

Stanisław Czopowicz suggests looking at scouting in the heuristic model dimension as a social movement that is value-oriented and aims (...) *to their implementation through the execution of its own programme of work according to the scouting method of education, under guidance of scouting instructors, within its own organisation serving the movement, the values, the programme, the education method and the personnel ranks, and subordinate to these. One must thus see not the theoretical construct, but a dynamic, experienced reality within which its basic constituent components may be differentiated between: 1. A social movement of children, youths and adults, 2. An idea determining a purpose, values, rules and a lifestyle, 3. The instructors – managers, leaders and educators, 4. The organisation and the organisational structures, 5. The work programme, and 6. The education method*²⁴.

The author adds that this components permeate, amend and condition each other to create an independent whole, hence their discerning is only theoretical in character. In this view of the instructor, and at the same time the scientist, theologian, who – as he writes – used the method of pastoral theology with the use of the method of analysis (induction) of data of the humanities (history, sociology, social pedagogy), one can see, how difficult it is to notice when education is a phenomenon amending someone's and some kind of actions, which was in this case referred to as the "education method", but one remains with its behavioural character becoming a part of instrumental rationality. Moreover, S. Czopowicz takes

²³ S. Czopowicz, *Szczera wola i zniewolenie. Harcerstwo w Polsce 1945–1980. Zarys problematyki ideowej i wychowawczej*, Warszawa, Niezależne Wydawnictwo Harcerskie 2010, p. 15.

²⁴ *Ibidem*, p. 13.

over from social pedagogy its institutional point of view to analyse historical and sociological data on scouting indicating how they turn *scouting into an educational institution, or one that would hinder it. This kind of pedagogy does not focus on the relationship between the caretaker or the (group) cared for, but the education process, observing in each environmental circle a potential educational (or anti-educational) environment, with intersections of influences of the individual and the environment viewed as a factor dynamising educationally desired (or undesired) shaping of attitudes and behaviour patterns*²⁵.

Every researcher of the youth union should treat the uniqueness of the education process as a component of the state education structure. It is for this cause that surely the majority of researchers treats scouting as an educational environment, the sovereignty of which is limited through its inclusion by those in power to frameworks of institutions of facilities of extrascholar or extrafamilial education, regardless of the fact that the case does not concern a total lack of mutual relations between these. The analysis of the discussion on the introduction of legal changes that precede speeches concerning projects of modifications of laws or acts in documentations of meetings of various scouting management bodies, their basic units, etc., permits the interpretation of how life of the union imposed, solidified or blocked the emergence of new solutions, a reorientation of ideas, of the organisation and of methods. *The stubborn struggle for the inclusion within the framework of conscious educational processes if possible of as much of the entire life of man as possible, and for the treatment of the entire richness of forms of social activity as education functions is the work of social pedagogues*²⁶. The above sources indicate what raised concerns, doubts, the need for corrections or the necessity of formal legalisation of required changes among the leader ranks, but also outside of the union, and to what extent these were founded or perhaps superficial, apparent. The content included in the statutes, organisational documents of scout-

²⁵ S. Czopowicz, op. cit., pp. 27–28.

²⁶ A. Kamiński, *Prehistoria polskich związków młodzieży*, Warszawa, PWN 1959, p. 26.

ing, as these were translated into the language of methods of education and the pragmatic issues of promotions of the personnel ranks is not without meaning.

Kamiński clearly indicated the need for inclusion in educational studies of the view not only of the history of pedagogy, but primarily of social pedagogy, for which the key aspect is focusing not (...) *on the educational relationship perceived as a kind of dialogue: caretaker – the person under care, or caretaker – such a group, not on the educational process, seeing in each environmental circle a potential environment of education, and in the interactions of influences of the individual and the environment – a factor dynamising required educationally desirable shaping of human behaviour in the process of development of the environment of their lives – the family environment, colleague circles, the neighbourhood, etc. – by interested parties*²⁷. This was a partial departure from the primary perception of scouting education as intermediate education for the benefit of dominance of environment influence, including spontaneous ones that instructors could (...) *potentially make purposeful, hence, included in education processes*²⁸. The point of view of this social pedagogue from Łódź, Poland, permits a clear placement of their ontological and epistemological preferences in terms of the perception of education and the research on its presence in the youth union as characteristic for sociological functionalism. He himself had undertaken a scientific analysis of the concept of education in treatises published after World War II. During the time of the Polish People's Republic, non-behavioural definitions of this concept prevailed as part of pedagogy philosophically subordinated to Marxism-Leninism, however A. Kamiński distanced himself from them with a substantiation transgressing the above complications of

²⁷ A. Kamiński, *Analiza teoretyczna polskich związków młodzieży do połowy XIX wieku*, Warszawa, PWN 1971, p. 11.

²⁸ *Ibidem*, p. 25.

meanings, writing that *we need to focus (...) on social pedagogy and on how this field construes education*²⁹.

A very clear departure from ideology for the benefit of perception of the education process in its environmental and personal considerations is in accordance to the identity of social pedagogy and scientific ethic. Stressing the holistic dimension of man as a bio-socio-cultural being, Kamiński referred to the philosophy of man by education philosopher Sergey Hessen³⁰. The congruence of views on the core of education in social pedagogy of the pedagogue from Łódź is amended by his philosophy that is par excellence humanistic and personalistic, stemming from Sergey Hessen who was so dear to him, as his superior at the University of Łódź, and whose writings, due to neo-Kantian idealism and anti-communism were censored. As A. Kamiński wrote: *(...) in papers on social pedagogy one can see two different concepts of it: one – as an individual pedagogical branch, another – as a separate field. As a pedagogical branch, this is pedagogy treating the education process quite uniquely (...)*³¹. The core of this process was thus not only viewed from the perspective of social pedagogy as a separate scientific discipline on education, but specifically in the context of general pedagogical knowledge³². Contemporary papers on scouting pedagogy lack the necessary modifications of the theory of socialisation within this movement as well. We thus have ahead of us studied that would consider the multi-aspect and inter-disciplinary character of indirect education.

²⁹ A. Kamiński, *Podstawowe pojęcia pedagogiki społecznej w pracy socjalnej*, Warszawa, IW CRZZ 1976, p. 7.

³⁰ Conf. for a broader view: B. Śliwerski, *Wkład pedagogii Aleksandra Kamińskiego do współczesnej teorii wychowania humanistycznego*, [in:] *Bogactwo życia i twórczości Aleksandra Kamińskiego*, ed. by I. Lepalczyk, W. Ciczkowski, Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek, Toruń 1999, pp. 94–106.

³¹ A. Kamiński, *Pedagogika społeczna w dorobku nauk pedagogicznych w Polsce Ludowej*, Człowiek w Pracy i Osiedlu 1978, no. 1, p. 61.

³² Conf. for a broader view: B. Śliwerski, *Wkład pedagogii Aleksandra Kamińskiego do współczesnej teorii wychowania humanistycznego*, [in:] *Bogactwo życia i twórczości Aleksandra Kamińskiego*, ed. by I. Lepalczyk, W. Ciczkowski, Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek, Toruń 1999, pp. 94–106.

Bibliography

- Czarkowski J.J., *O metodzie harcerskiej i jej rozwoju*, [w:] *Na tropach harcerskiej metodyki. 100 lat harcerstwa polskiego*, red. Grażyna Miłkowska, Krystyna Stech, Zielona Góra, Oficyna Wydawnicza Uniwersytetu Zielonogórskiego 2011, s. 16.
- Czopowicz S., *Szczera wola i zniewolenie. Harcerstwo w Polsce 1945–1980. Zarys problematyki ideowej i wychowawczej*, Warszawa, Niezależne Wydawnictwo Harcerskie 2010, s. 15.
- Glass H., *Gawędy z drużynowym. Zbiór rad i wskazówek dla instruktorów harcerskich*, Warszawa 1923, s. 48.
- Hejnicka-Bezwińska T., *Pedagogika ogólna*, Warszawa, WAiP 2008, s. 493.
- Kamiński A., *Analiza teoretyczna polskich związków młodzieży do połowy XIX wieku*, Warszawa, PWN 1971, s. 11.
- Kamiński A., *Nauczanie i wychowanie metodą harcerską*, Warszawa, Nasza Księgarnia 1948, s. 24.
- Kamiński A., *Pedagogika społeczna w dorobku nauk pedagogicznych w Polsce Ludowej, Człowiek w Pracy i Osiedlu 1978 Nr 1*, s. 61.
- Kamiński A., *Podstawowe pojęcia pedagogiki społecznej w pracy socjalnej*, Warszawa, IW CRZZ 1976, s. 7.
- Kamiński A., *Prehistoria polskich związków młodzieży*, Warszawa, PWN 1959, s. 26.
- Kamiński A., *Przedmowa*, [w:] *Skauting i Harcerstwo. Wybór pism charakteryzujących ruch młodzieży i system wychowawczy*, oprac. Aleksander Kamiński, Kraków, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls” 2015, s. 5 (Reprint maszynopisu autorskiego z 1946 roku).
- Kamiński A., *Studia i szkice pedagogiczne*, Warszawa, PWN 1978, s. 6–7
- Massalski A., *Przewodniczący Związku Harcerstwa Polskiego*, [w:] *Dorobek pedagogiki harcerskiej. Materiały z konferencji naukowej zorganizowanej w 50. rocznicę powstania „Nieprzetartego Szlaku”*, Kraków, Wyższa Szkoła Filozoficzno-Pedagogiczna „Ignatianum”, Komisja Historyczna Krakowskiej Chorągwi ZHP 2008, s. 9.
- Patry J.-L., *Dlaczego nauka o wychowaniu ma tak mały wpływ na wychowanie?*, „Edukacja” 1993, nr 4.
- Schütterly K.B., *Pedagogika ZHP – mity a rzeczywistość*, [w:] *Dorobek pedagogiki...*, dz. cyt., s. 105.
- Sedlaczek S., *Podstawy etyczne skautingu Baden-Powellowskiego*, Kraków, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls” 2015, s. 6. (Reprint wydania z 1928 roku).
- Sosnowski J., *O wychowaniu w ogóle i wychowaniu harcerskim*, Kraków, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls” 2016 (Reprint z nieopubl. wydruku z 1946 roku), s. 11.
- Stech K., *Spółeczny zasięg metodyki harcerskiej*, [w:] *Na tropach*, dz. cyt., s. 53.
- Strumillo T., *Harcerstwo a szkoła*, [bez miejsca wydania i daty/ nadbitka] W. Błażejewski, *Bibliografia Harcerska 1911–1960*, Warszawa 1980, s. 163. sugeruje rok wydania 1921/

Śliwerski B., *Wkład pedagogii Aleksandra Kamińskiego do współczesnej teorii wychowania humanistycznego*, [w:] *Bogactwo życia i twórczości Aleksandra Kamińskiego*, pod red. I. Lepalczyk, W. Ciczkowskiego, Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek, Toruń 1999, s. 94–106.

Tworowska J., *Równajmy krok. O współpracy z Ruchem Harcerskim Nauczycielstwa i Rodziców*, Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls” 2016 (koprint wydania



BEATA BOROWSKA-BESZTA

Nicolaus Copernicus University in Toruń

Ohyake (公) or watakushi (私) and puraibashii (プライベート)? Space and Artefacts in Special and Inclusive Education in Japan: Report on Visual Educational Microethnography

ABSTRACT: Beata Borowska-Beszta, *Ohyake (公) or watakushi (私) and puraibashii (プライベート)? Space and Artefacts in Special and Inclusive Education in Japan: Report on Visual Educational Microethnography*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 29–62. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.03>

The presented research is a microethnographic report from a visual ethnography undertaken in May 2016, in 6 Japanese schools and 1 adult support center with disabilities located on island Kyushu in Fukuoka Prefecture. The study deals with a issues of the educational material culture and refers to the study of space and school artifacts designed in schools for students with special educational needs – understood as intellectual disabilities and for adults with such potential as well. The research was grounded in E. Schein’s organizational culture, furthermore on the concept of private space and public space described by T. Tamura and my author’s concept developed at the reinterreted role of the handicapped human in stationary institution published by W. Wolfensberger’s (1969).

KEY WORDS: Japan research, cultural research, disability studies, special education, inclusive education, ethnographic research, visual research, microethnography

Foreword

Japan is a cognitively interesting culture of Asia Minor and an area of field research, as I had a chance to find it out for myself in May 2016, during a research internship on the Kyushu Island in Fukuoka. The authors Makoto Nakada and Takanori Tamura write that “Japan is a complicated country – even for Japanese people themselves!”¹. Researches observe that if Japan is complicated for Japanese people, then how much more complicated it must be for foreigners and foreign researchers. I agree with this statement. During my stay and internship in Japan, I had to be very focused and constantly mindful about my reactions to social situations. I also had to be active and open subtle and ritualised forms of professional contacts and fieldwork.

The following report on field research based on visual micro-ethnography, conducted by me on the Kyushu Island in Fukuoka in May 2016, is a part of educational research on educational organisational cultures in Japan. The purpose of the part of the research analysed in this report was to understand and analyse the space and selected behavioral and physical and material artefacts in 6 schools and 1 support facility for adults with intellectual disability in the context of organisational culture, *emic* understanding of space and space as a reservoir for cultural coding of the disability construct. The analytical work is based on the concepts of organisational culture according to E. Schein² the concepts of public space – *ohyake* (公) and private space called – *watakushi* (私) and *puraibashii* (プライベート) according to T. Tamura³ and my *concept of space as a reservoir for cultural coding of the disability construct*, founded on the expanded and reinterpreted concept of the role of the retardate in

¹ M. Nakada, T. Tamura, Japanese Conceptions of Privacy: An Intercultural Perspective, *Ethics and Information Technology March*, 2005, Volume 7, Issue 1, pp. 27-36, p. 31.

² E. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco 2010.

³ T. Tamura, Japanese feelings for privacy MANUSYA, *Journal of Humanities* (Special Issue No. 8, 2004), pp. 138-156 http://www.manusya.journals.chula.ac.th/files/essay/Tamura_p121-139.pdf [access: 4.07.2017].

a residential institution according to W. Wolfensberger⁴. Research was conducted within the framework of academic cooperation (informal since 2011 and formal beginning with 2013) with the professor of comparative education, N. Tasaki from Kyushu Women's University and University of Teacher Education in Fukuoka in Japan. Professor N. Tasaki was a guest at academic seminars organised at the Faculty of Education of Nicolaus Copernicus University on 11.09.2013 and 10.04.2017. In this report, I do not discuss the institutional or theoretical assumptions of the Japanese special and inclusive education system. These will be discussed in another paper.

Theoretical framework of the research project

This report illustrates the main results of visual microethnography and it is a section of broader ethnographic field research on Japanese disability studies, the concepts of disability in Japan and the special and inclusive education system in that country. The report on qualitative research, referred to in this article, is, in the methodological sense, both institutional educational ethnography and visual microethnography. One of the research objectives of the ethnographic research project within the framework of the research internship and field research was to identify, analyse and describe the space and artefacts of the special and inclusive education system for children and youth with intellectual disabilities, referred to as chiteki shōgai (知的障害) and/or developmental disorders, referred to as hattatsu shōgai (発達障害). When I was collecting field data, it turned out that the way Japanese people think about Japanese educational spaces and artefacts (behavioural and physical) and understand them is inherent in their norms and values, which is why I decided to analyse artefacts from the perspective of phenomena that

⁴ W. Wolfensberger, *The Origin And Nature Of Our Institutional Models In: Changing Patterns in Residential Services for the Mentally Retarded*, President's Committee on Mental Retardation, Washington, D.C. January 1969, <http://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=1909&page=all> [access: 4.07.2017].

are embedded in a continuum of symbols that culturally represent that which is public and that which is private. Material spaces and artefacts of the educational system are thus analysed in the context of organisational cultures and of space as a cultural reservoir for the coding of the disability construct. The main research question that I posed for this part of the project is:

- *What are the spaces, artefacts and their cultural meanings in the organisational cultures of the special and inclusive education system in Japan?*

This research on organisational cultures, both in the ontological, epistemological and axiological sense, was based on the theoretical and methodological concepts of culture anthropologists, including, among others: J. Spradley⁵, E. Hall⁶, H. Wolcott⁷, M. Hammersley, P. Atkinson⁸, M. Hammersley^{9,10}, N. Denzin and Y. Lincoln¹¹, M. Angrosino¹², J. Green & Bloome¹³, S. Pink¹⁴,

⁵ J. Spradley, *The Ethnographic interview*, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, New York 1979.

J. Spradley, *Participant observation*, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, New York 1980.

⁶ E. Hall, *Ukryty wymiar*, Muza, Warszawa 1997.

⁷ H.F. Wolcott, Posturing in qualitative inquiry. In MD LeCompte, WL Millroy & JPreissle, (Eds.) *The Handbook of Qualitative Research in Education*, Academic Press, New York, 1992, pp. 3-52.

⁸ M. Hammersley, P. Atkinson, *Metody badań terenowych*, Zysk i S-ka, Poznań 2000.

⁹ M. Hammersley, Teaching qualitative methodology: craft, profession or bricolage. In: Seale C., Gobo G., Gubrium J.F., Silverman D. eds., *Qualitative Research Practice*. Thousand Oaks: Sage, 2004 pp. 549-560.

¹⁰ M. Hammersley (ed.), *Educational Research and Evidence-based Practice*. In association with the Open University, Sage, London 2007.

¹¹ N. Denzin, Y. Lincoln, *Metody badań jakościowych*, Vol. 1, 2. PWN, Warszawa 2009.

¹² M. Angrosino, *Badania etnograficzne i obserwacje*, PWN, Warszawa 2010.

¹³ J.L. Green, D. Bloome, *Ethnography and ethnographers of and in education: a situated perspective*, [in:] Flood J., Heaths S.B., Lapp D. (ed.). *Handbook for literacy educators: research in the community and visual arts*. Macmillan, New York 1997, pp. 181-202.

¹⁴ S. Pink, *Etnografia wizualna. Obrazy, media i przedstawienie w badaniach*, UJ, Kraków 2008.

M. Banks¹⁵, D. Jemielniak¹⁶. Moreover, the psychologist J. Creswell¹⁷, sociologists W. Wolfensberger¹⁸, T. Tamura¹⁹ and management science researchers: E. Schein²⁰, B. Wiernek²¹, M. Kostera²², and educationists: I. Kawecki²³, A. Nalaskowski²⁴, B. Borowska-Beszta^{25, 26, 27, 28}, D. Kubinowski²⁹, J. Nowotniak³⁰, E. Siarkiewicz, E. Trębińska-Szumigraj, D. Zielińska-Pękał³¹.

¹⁵ M. Banks, *Materiały wizualne w badaniach jakościowych*, Niezbędnik Badacza, PWN, Warszawa 2009.

¹⁶ D. Jemielniak, *Badania jakościowe, Metody i narzędzia. Vol. 2.* PWN, Warszawa 2012.

D. Jemielniak, *Badania jakościowe, Metody i narzędzia. Vol. 1.* PWN, Warszawa 2012.

¹⁷ J. Creswell, *J. Research, Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. 3rd Edition. Sage Publications, Inc, Los Angeles 2009.

¹⁸ W. Wolfensberger, *The Origin And Nature Of Our Institutional Models In: Changing Patterns in Residential Services for the Mentally Retarded*, President's Committee on Mental Retardation, Washington, D.C. January 1969, <http://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=1909&page=all> [access: 4.07.2017].

¹⁹ T. Tamura, Japanese feelings for privacy MANUSYA: *Journal of Humanities* (Special Issue No. 8, 2004) pp. 138–156 http://www.manusya.journals.chula.ac.th/files/essay/Tamura_p121-139.pdf [access: 4.07.2017].

²⁰ E. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. Jossey-Bass, 2010.

²¹ B. Wiernek, *Kultura organizacyjna przedsiębiorstwa*, Oficyna Wydawnicza TEXT, Kraków 2000.

²² M. Kostera, *Antropologia organizacji, Metodologia badań terenowych*, PWN, Warszawa 2003.

²³ I. Kawecki, *Dane wizualne w badaniach pedagogicznych*, „Pedagogika Kultury” 2009, vol. 5.

²⁴ A. Nalaskowski, *Przestrzenie i miejsca szkoły*, Impuls, Kraków 2000.

²⁵ B. Borowska-Beszta, *Pracownicy Fundacji (metoda etnograficzna)*, [in:] *Formowanie się wspólnoty w Fundacji im. Brata Alberta w Radwanowicach*, Wydawnictwo i Druкарnia Towarzystwa Słowaków w Polsce, Kraków 2001, pp. 260–322.

²⁶ B. Borowska-Beszta, *Etnografia dla terapeutów (pedagogów specjalnych) – szkice metodologiczne*, Wyd. Impuls, Kraków 2005.

²⁷ B. Borowska-Beszta, *Anatema(?) szoku kulturowego w andragogice specjalnej*, „Edukacja Otwarta”, 2008, no. 2, pp. 163–179.

²⁸ B. Borowska-Beszta, *Etnografia stylu życia kultury dorosłych torunian z zaburzeniami rozwoju*. UMK 2013.

²⁹ D. Kubinowski, *Jakościowe badania pedagogiczne. Filozofia – Metodyka – Ewaluacja*, Lublin, UMCS 2010.

Literature review

The theoretical framework of the project was based on M. Kostera's³² assumption that *an organisation is a culture*, which means that elements of the Japanese education system was perceived as organisational cultures. Moreover, in the ontological sense, the research presented in this report is based on the aforementioned triad of concepts concerning the model of culture and physical and material artefacts according to E Schein³³, the concept of space according to T. Tamura³⁴ and my own concept of *space as a reservoir for cultural coding of the disability construct* based on the concept of the roles of the retardate in residential institutions according to W. Wolfensberger³⁵. Accordingly, I performed detailed analyses of cultural scenes and artefacts in Japan:

First of all, in the context of E. Schein's reversed pyramid of the organisational culture³⁶, which contains: artefacts, values and tacit assumptions concerning tacit knowledge. E. Schein claims that, in order to understand the culture of an organisation, it is necessary to analyse its visible artefacts, i.e. "the physical environment of an

³⁰ J. Nowotniak, *Spoleczne swiaty pokoi nauczycielskich*, „Terazniejszość – Człowiek – Edukacja: kwartalnik myśli społeczno-pedagogicznej” no. 3(55), pp. 71–86.

³¹ E. Siarkiewicz, E. Trębińska-Szumigraj, D. Zielińska-Pękał, *Edukacyjne prowokacje. Wykorzystanie etnografii performatywnej w procesie kształcenia doradców*, Impuls, Kraków 2012.

³² M. Kostera, *Antropologia organizacji, Metodologia badań terenowych*, PWN, Warszawa 2003.

³³ E. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco 2010.

³⁴ T. Tamura, Japanese feelings for privacy MANUSYA, "Journal of Humanities" (Special Issue No. 8, 2004) pp. 138–156, http://www.manusya.journals.chula.ac.th/files/essay/Tamura_p121-139.pdf [access: 4.07.2017].

³⁵ W. Wolfensberger, The Origin And Nature Of Our Institutional Models In: *Changing Patterns in Residential Services for the Mentally Retarded*, President's Committee on Mental Retardation, Washington, D.C. January 1969, <http://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=1909&page=all> [access: 4.07.2017].

³⁶ E. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco 2010.

organisation, architecture, technology, office layout, clothing, observed and heard patterns of behaviour and official documents, such as: statutes, various information materials for employees, stories".³⁷ E. Schein defines organisational culture as a set of valid rules of conduct, discovered, established and developed by a group that help cope with the problem of integration and external adaptation and work well enough to be taught to new members as the way to think and feel in relation to those problems³⁸.

Secondly, my research is based on the Japanese concept of space according to T. Tamura, which divides the cultural space and artefacts into that which is public, called - ohyake (公) and that which is private, called watakushi (私) and puraibashii (プライベート). T. Tamura³⁹ explains the Japanese concept of space in the following way: watakushi (私) is a chronologically older word than puraibashii (プライベート) and in Japan, it symbolises that which is private (partial, secret, individual, or sometimes perceived as selfish). Issues and problems falling under the Japanese linguistic symbols watakushi and puraibashii are less important and less valuable for Japanese people than matters associated with the public space - ohyake (公). The author believes that Japanese people currently use the terms ohyake (公), watakushi (私) and puraibashii (プライベート) as equivalents, to define in space and determine the value of that which is public and that which is private for them. T. Tamura⁴⁰ continues to explain the etymology of the word ohyake (公) = "oh" means: great, and "yake" means: house, so ohyake (公) means

³⁷ E. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco 2010. p. 62.

³⁸ E. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. Jossey-Bass, [in:] L. Zbiegień-Maciąg, *Kultura w organizacji – Identyfikacja kultur znanych firm*, PWN, Warszawa 1999.

³⁹ T. Tamura, Japanese feelings for privacy MANUSYA, "Journal of Humanities" (Special Issue No.8 2004) pp. 138–156 http://www.manusya.journals.chula.ac.th/files/essay/Tamura_p121-139.pdf [access: 4.07.2017].

⁴⁰ T. Tamura, Japanese feelings for privacy MANUSYA, "Journal of Humanities" (Special Issue No. 8, 2004) pp. 138–156 http://www.manusya.journals.chula.ac.th/files/essay/Tamura_p121-139.pdf [access: 4.07.2017].

a “great house” (i.e. the imperial court, imperial house, government, nation and society). Ohyake (公) also means things that are “open” as well as “being impartial”. T. Tamura believes that “that which is public” and “the government” mean almost the same⁴¹. The above theoretical division of space in Japan at first seemed legible for me, a European researcher, but in practice, when collecting data, I confronted various cultural nuances concerning the subtleties and vague meanings of artefacts, and blurred lines between them. Let me add that Japanese people, too, sometimes have problems classifying artefacts to the respective areas: ohyake, watakushi or purai-bashii. My problems with understanding meanings resulted in certain restrictions and limitations I encountered in field research, in schools and institutions for children, youth and adults with disabilities. Consequently, however, the limitations imposed by gatekeepers who introduced me to the area of my research turned out to be the critical moment for understanding the educational spaces, their value and the significance of (behavioural and physical) artefacts in the context of the ohyake (公) (public) as well as watakushi (私) and puraibashi (プライベート) (private) categories.

Thirdly, a pillar for research, in a form reinterpreted and expanded by me, was the concept of the 7 roles of the retardate determining the models of institutional support, published in the late 1960s by W. Wolfensberger⁴². W. Wolfensberger believes that “in institutions, role performance is influenced not only by the interpersonal stimuli to which an institution resident might be exposed on the part of the institution personnel but also by the opportunities and demands of the physical environment”⁴³. W. Wolfensberger

⁴¹ T. Tamura, Japanese feelings for privacy MANUSYA, “Journal of Humanities” (Special Issue No.8 2004) pp. 138–156 http://www.manusya.journals.chula.ac.th/files/essay/Tamura_p121-139.pdf [access: 4.07.2017], p. 138.

⁴² W. Wolfensberger, The Origin And Nature Of Our Institutional Models In: *Changing Patterns in Residential Services for the Mentally Retarded*, President’s Committee on Mental Retardation, Washington, D.C. January 1969, <http://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=1909&page=all> [access: 4.07.2017].

⁴³ W. Wolfensberger, The Origin And Nature Of Our Institutional Models In: *Changing Patterns in Residential Services for the Mentally Retarded*, President’s Com-

identified 7 roles of *retardates* and their perception in residential institutions in various historical contexts. By critically analysing past spaces that historically existed in the culture, and material and physical artefacts in support systems, the author identified the typology of the 7 roles of the *retardates*. The concept was published in 1969, and the author used the term *retardation*, a term that was used at that time for diagnosing intellectual disability. W. Wolfensberger⁴⁴ identified 7 roles of the *retardate* that determine institutional support models. The author enumerated: (a) the retardate as a sick person, (b) the retardate as a subhuman organism, (c) the retardate as a menace, (d) the retardate as an object of pity, (e) the retardate as a burden of charity, (f) the retardate as a holy innocent and (g) the retardate as a developing person.

Let me note that, from a contemporary perspective, categorising persons with disabilities outside clinical research raises many objections among academics in disability studies and, in my opinion, is awkward; nonetheless, I believe that the author created the above labels consciously, at the same time highlighting the oddity and limitations of those roles. All the same, the terminology and content of W. Wolfensberger's concept falls under the criticism of the institutional support systems of the late 1960s. The original concept is limited by the time when it was created and by changes in designing space for persons with disabilities in the Western culture. Following conceptual work, I thoroughly reinterpreted W. Wolfensberger's constructs⁴⁵ in the contexts of: the terminology used, the semantic scope of the concepts, rooting in the contemporary studies

mittee on Mental Retardation, Washington, D.C. January 1969, <http://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=1909&page=all> [access: 4.07.2017], p. 64.

⁴⁴ W. Wolfensberger, *The Origin And Nature Of Our Institutional Models In: Changing Patterns in Residential Services for the Mentally Retarded*, President's Committee on Mental Retardation, Washington, D.C. January 1969, <http://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=1909&page=all> [access: 4.07.2017].

⁴⁵ W. Wolfensberger, *The Origin And Nature Of Our Institutional Models In: Changing Patterns in Residential Services for the Mentally Retarded*, President's Committee on Mental Retardation, Washington, D.C. January 1969, <http://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=1909&page=all> [access: 4.07.2017].

on disability, adding non-residential institutions, developing a universal cultural pattern and shifting the centre of gravity from the subject to the space that I perceive as a dominant reservoir of cultural knowledge and disability constructs. I called that model a *10-dimensional cultural and spatial reservoir for the coding of disability constructs*. Among the reinterpreted theoretical construct, I identify 10 constructs, listed in chronological and historical order:

Table 1. Cultural and spatial reservoir for the coding of disability constructs

1. cultural space as a reservoir of the construct of <i>treating a disabled person as a subhuman organism</i>
2. cultural space as a reservoir of the construct of <i>treating a disabled person as a subhuman organism</i>
3. cultural space as a reservoir of the construct of <i>treating a disabled person as an object of pity</i>
4. cultural space as a reservoir of the construct of <i>treating a disabled person as a burden of charity</i>
5. cultural space as a reservoir of the construct of <i>treating a disabled person as a holy innocent</i>
6. cultural space as a reservoir of the construct of <i>treating a disabled person as a sick person</i>
7. cultural space as a reservoir of the construct of <i>treating a disabled person as a developing person</i>
8. cultural space as a reservoir of the construct of <i>treating a disabled person as an excluded person</i>
9. cultural space as a reservoir of the construct of <i>treating a disabled person as an independent person</i>
10. cultural space as a reservoir of the construct of <i>treating a disabled person as a self-determining creator of his own life</i> ⁴⁶

Source: Own elaboration Beata Borowska-Beszta

To conclude the literature review, I would like to add that, based on ethnographic field research in disability cultures and the dominant culture, which I performed in the period from 1999 to 2017 (or which was performed under my supervision), I believe that

⁴⁶ The model will be analysed in more detail in another paper.

the above 10 categories of cultural space are universal, both in the dimension of material culture and in the space of actual cultures: residential or non-residential support and education of persons with disabilities, and in the virtual spaces of online cultures. The above three theoretical pillars, i.e. the concepts developed by E. Schein⁴⁷, T. Takamura⁴⁸ and my own concept, which is an elaboration and reinterpretation of W. Wolfensberger's concept⁴⁹ served as the foundation for analyses at the stages of coding and categorisation, and generation of cultural themes during and after completion of field research in Japan. I also applied them in the discussion on field research presented in this report.

Method – visual ethnography – microethnography

The research on school artefacts was designed in accordance with the concepts of ethnographic, microethnographic and visual research and based on the cultural anthropology of scholars quoted within the theoretical framework of the project and in the literature review. The purposive sample in this research report consisted of visits in 6 special and inclusive public schools for children and youth with disabilities and 1 support centre for adults with multiple intellectual disabilities: moderate, significant and severe. During field visits, I performed participant and non-participant observations and took the total of 414 pictures that constitute the visual documentation of the places I visited. Access to research in 7 educa-

⁴⁷ E.H. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco 2010.

⁴⁸ T. Tamura, Japanese feelings for privacy MANUSYA, "Journal of Humanities" (Special Issue No. 8, 2004), pp. 138-156 http://www.manusya.journals.chula.ac.th/files/essay/Tamura_p121-139.pdf [access: 4.07.2017].

⁴⁹ W. Wolfensberger, *The Origin And Nature Of Our Institutional Models In: Changing Patterns in Residential Services for the Mentally Retarded*, President's Committee on Mental Retardation, Washington, D.C. January 1969, <http://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=1909&page=all> [access: 4.07.2017].

tional and support institutions and the time of data collection determined the microethnographic nature of the research, limited in this report to one specific aspect of the analysed school reality, namely the space and physical and material artefacts. In the analysis, I used only the pictures that present the internal spaces and school artefacts. I was somewhat limited by the prohibition to photograph student's faces in school space, making the schools and spaces presented in the report look like deserted places, which was not the case. Moreover, in some practical classes I learned practical skills from junior high school students with intellectual disability, such as making papier-mâché or weaving, etc. Again, I was not allowed to record such data with my camera. The subsequent research steps were based on the research concept developed by J. Spradley⁵⁰ and T.L. Whitehead⁵¹, and they included:

- scholarly literature analysis
- secondary analysis of other existing data
- fieldwork: collecting visual and verbal data, preliminary analysis of data
- recurrence, discussion and qualitative data analysis
- writing a research report and ethnographic essay

Data collection

I collected data for the visual microethnography with my Huawei mobile phone camera. I believe it was important to use

⁵⁰ J. Spradley, *The Ethnographic interview*, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, New York 1979.

J. Spradley, *Participant observation*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, New York 1980.

⁵¹ T.L. Whitehead, Basic Classical Ethnographic Research Methods Secondary Data Analysis, Fieldwork, Observation/Participant Observation and Informal and Semi-structured Interviewing, 2005. <http://www.cusag.umd.edu/documents/workingpapers/classicalethnomethods.pdf> [access 4.07.2017].

a small device so as not make Japanese people feel uncomfortable. I collected data openly, with all the necessary permits of the principals of the 6 schools and 1 support centre for adults and of the supervisor of my research internship, Professor N. Tasaki, to take 414 pictures and to talk to teachers or therapists. The purposefulness of taking pictures for the research had been discussed by the internship supervisor and the principals of the respective schools and the support centre, and it was based on a verbal agreement, as suggested by the methodologists: Green & Bloom⁵². I was told by my internship supervisor that it was not easy to obtain a permit for entering the schools and collecting data. It required diplomacy and providing sound reasons for my entering the field. Apart from taking pictures in educational organisational cultures, I spoke with school principals – *kōchō sensei* (校長先生) and head teachers – *kyoutou sensei* (教頭先生) in each of the abovementioned schools, with English teachers and other personnel. Conversations with English teachers were very peculiar. When they talked to me, they almost whispered, also, they were reserved, smiled in a friendly way and moved very slowly. They drawled their words, making our job-related conversations in a professional context seem to be intimate confessions. Usually, the distance between them and me was below 50–30 cm. I noticed that the English teachers were all the time discreetly watched by one of their principals. They were aware of that, too. When they told me about their problems at work, e.g. lack of specialist training to work with the disabled, their whisper in English was hardly audible. I adapted to their behaviour and communication, but I often had to ask them for details. I noticed this several times. I collected data in the following special and inclusive public schools and in the support centre, listed in the table below.

⁵² J.L. Green, D. Bloome, Ethnography and ethnographers of and in education: a situated perspective. In: Flood J., Heaths S.B., Lapp D. (Ed.). *Handbook for literacy educators: research in the community and visual arts*, Macmillan, New York 1997, pp. 181–202.

Table 2. The educational spaces of data collection

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Prefektural Koga Special Needs Education Schools in Koga <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Special Elementary School • Special Junior High School 2. Fukuoka City Momochi Welfare Center 3. School Attached to University of Teacher Education in Fukuoka UTEF <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fukuoka UTEF Primary School • Fukuoka UTEF Junior High School • Fukuoka UTEF Special School 4. General school with special and inclusive classes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primary Schools, Munakata

Field of research

The field research was conducted on the Kyushu Island in Japan, in the port city of Fukuoka, the Fukuoka Prefecture and two Japanese universities: the private Kyushu Women's University and the public University of Teacher Education in Fukuoka. More specifically, the research was conducted in special inclusive schools and a support institution for youth and adults with intellectual disabilities. I conducted my research in May 2016, during my research internship, between 16 and 22 May 2017. The supervisor of my research internship in Japan was Professor Noritomo Tasaki, educator, and comparatist, currently retired but still professionally and academically active, professor at two universities: Kyushu Women's University and the University of Teacher Education in Fukuoka. My internship supervisor, professor N. Tasaki, developed for me an individual internship schedule, including the scope of research work, university classes, scholarly meetings and fieldwork in Japan. Thanks to his authority and scholarly position, and numerous professional contacts, I had the unique chance of exploring special inclusive education, which would not be possible without his personal recommendation, supported by professor N. Tasaki's authority academic cultures and organisational cultures of schools and support institutions. Below I present research assumptions concerning

only the report limited to artefacts and cultural meanings in educational cultures of special and inclusive education in Japan. This report does not discuss the problem of analysing the phenomenon of the face as a cultural symbol, or research on special education facilities, culture shock, or the methodological problem of the power of a gate-keeper on site in Japan, or detailed research concerning other than the selected spaces or physical and material educational artefacts in organisational cultures in Japan, referred to in E. Schein's publications⁵³, which I also engaged in during my research internship. This report focuses solely on a description and analysis of physical and material educational artefacts. My internship supervisor, professor N. Tasaki, repeatedly told me how difficult it was to organise my visits to special schools, which made me think about availability of practical training space associated with disabilities for outsiders in Japan.

In this part of research, I posed the main research question, which I recapitulate here for better clarity of the text:

- *What are the spaces, artefacts and their cultural meanings in the organisational cultures of the special and inclusive education system in Japan?*

In practice, it turned out that spaces and artefacts are linked with other elements of the organisational culture, identified by E. Schein⁵⁴, such as standards, rituals, values or symbols, which I also discover and discuss to some extent in this research report.

Negotiating my access to the field

Before going to Japan and doing my fieldwork, I was asked several times by my internship supervisor, professor N. Tasaki, to take my business cards and proper clothing with me, and he very subtly

⁵³ E. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco 2010.

⁵⁴ E. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco 2010.

and indirectly suggested that I should learn the skill of exchanging business cards, as an introduction to discover both physical and behavioural artefacts. In order to be in the field, I had to learn the rituals and etiquette of professional meetings, and the things I would have to do during such meetings, such as:

- Have my business cards and know how to exchange them at professional meetings and in association with my research.
- Behave in a reserved and serene manner when meeting school or university senior personnel, etc.
- Be able to travel on my own by local trains to specific locations in the area of my research, be able to move about and communicate, even though my internship supervisor often accompanied me when I collected field data, especially if he knew that the personnel of specific educational organisational cultures did not speak English well enough.
- Wear appropriate, smart clothes in order to be able to enter educational institutions. Traditional smart attire means: black skirt and jacket, bright top, tights, covered shoes, subtle jewellery, flat-heel, quiet shoes, especially for women. High heels are not advisable, because they would disturb the peace and quiet of persons in educational cultural scenes, which Professor N. Tasaki made particularly clear to me. Quiet shoes are a sign of respect for the place and for the learners. Thus, it is recommended to wear quiet, low shoes that do not disturb others. Stiletto or high heels are inappropriate.

Entering the field also required respecting the rules of official meetings in school structures. Below, I list elements of behavioural artefacts during my visits. They included the following rules and standards:

- Bowing during and after meetings and conversations with principals and teachers. Keeping eye contact and no touching, no hand-shaking.
- Exchanging business cards, restrained gesticulation, kind and serene, serious behaviour (a broad smile or laughter have binary significance and it is recommended to not express one's emotions vividly).

- It is mandatory to change to school slippers (red, green, blue, beige) whenever visiting a primary or junior high school and to put one's own shoes in the right position (tips facing the exit) before the main entrance door, in a space called genkan (玄関) in Japanese.
- I was required to ask for permission to take every single photo I took during my internship, at the universities, schools or support centre.
- I had to respect the prohibition to take pictures of the faces of children, youth and adults with intellectual disabilities in every facility.

Data analysis

In this part of the research, the data were analysed simultaneously, in the course of their collection in May 2016, and for 6 months after completion of field data collection in Japan. Analyses covered the coding and categorising systems according to U. Flick⁵⁵ and G. Gibbs⁵⁶, concerning the arrangement, coding and categorising of spaces and material and physical artefacts, especially those on the border between the ohyake (公), watakushi (私) and puraibashii (プライベート) spaces, and analysing cultural topics^{57,58} that involved generating broader patterns falling into the public and private space categories. Cultural themes were generated in two layers:

⁵⁵ U. Flick, *Projektowanie badania jakościowego*, PWN, Warszawa 2010.

⁵⁶ G. Gibbs, *Analizowanie danych jakościowych*, PWN, Warszawa 2010.

⁵⁷ B. Borowska-Beszta, *Etnografia stylu życia kultury dorosłych torunian z zaburzeniami rozwoju*. UMK, Toruń 2013.

⁵⁸ B. Borowska-Beszta, *Analiza antropologiczna jako transformacja: Problemy i techniki generowania tematów kulturowych*, „Problemy edukacji rehabilitacji socjalizacji osób niepełnosprawnych: Wybrane zagadnienie metodologii i metodyki badań w obszarze niepełnosprawności i codzienności osób z niepełnosprawnością”. Vol. 23, 2016 (in print).

the real and the symbolic layer of coding the meaning of that which is public and that which is private in the Japanese special and inclusive education system.

Research results

Ohyake (公), watakushi (私) and puraibashii (プライベート) **spaces and artefacts of the special** **and inclusive education system in Japan**

Exploring selected Japanese educational organisational cultures and ohyake (公), watakushi (私) and puraibashii (プライベート) spaces of the special education system in Japan revealed certain problems with associating schools with public and private spaces and their respective scopes. Each of the schools I visited: the primary school, the junior high school, and even the two universities were surrounded by a wall with electronically controlled gates and sometimes a gate-keeper in uniform.

Also, in every primary and junior high special inclusive school I visited, there was genkan (玄関) and the obligation to take off shoes and wear slipper provided by the school. There was no need to change shoes at the universities: the Kuyshu Women's University and the University of Teacher Education in Fukuoka, apart from the seminar rooms where the mandatory traditional tea brewing and other Japanese traditions were taught. Also, it turned out that school and university websites provided very little information about their personnel – there were no names or e-mail addresses, or even pictures of the rectors of one of the universities I visited. It was explained to me that this is because the face is a private thing, even when it comes to university authorities, and that the names of rectors or school principals do not have to be revealed. I found it very surprising. On the other hand, Japanese people were very willing to pose for group pictures with outsiders, for example with me. During my research, I found out that spaces and material and physical



Pict. 1. Prefektural Koga Special Schools

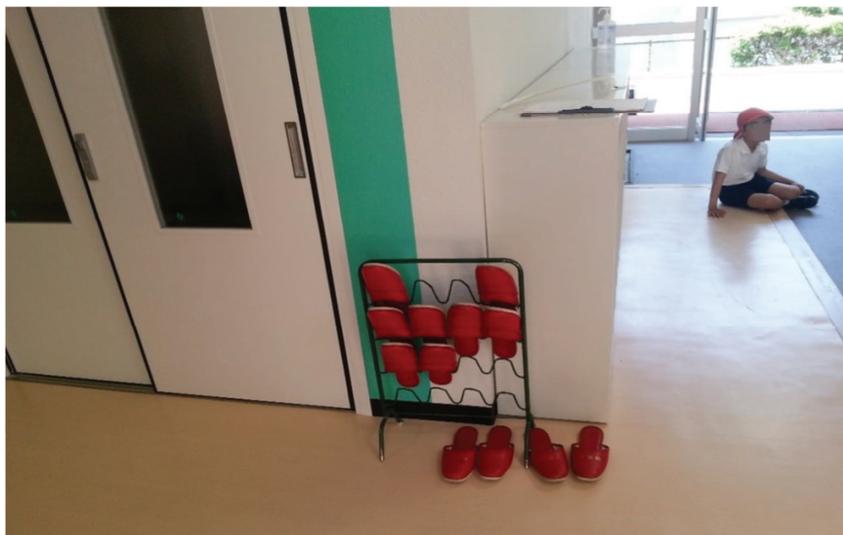
Pict. Private archives, B. Borowska-Beszta.

artefacts, such as buildings, interiors of special schools and general schools with inclusive classes were places of blurred borders of symbolic location and were closer to the watakushi (私) and purai-bashii (プライベート) space than the public space-ohyake (公), contrary to what I had assumed. Meanwhile, within the organisational culture, I noticed a tendency to make the space available and transparent. The schools had certain features typical of the design of Japanese schools in general, but I also noticed that they were adapted to the special educational needs of children and youth with disabilities.

Surippa (スリッパ) upon entering and ocha (お茶) with school principals

Every single visit at school began with punctual arrival and being greeted by teachers and supervisors of my visits, and changing shoes for school slippers for visitors (which is obligatory for all visi-

tors, regardless of their social status) called surippa (スリッパ). They were red, green or light blue, with a golden inscription in Japanese language. They are worn in places, where it is forbidden to wear outdoor footwear. Similar slippers are used in toilets in Japanese houses. Two schools had special greetings for me, a visitor from Poland, written in Japanese on the boards, and in inclusive classes in the primary school in Munakata, I even received a red heart with a greeting and a smiling face from a student with intellectual disability. It was an important symbolic gesture, because I received both a heart and a face. My every visit began with drinking a cup of green tea called ocha (お茶) with the school principals and head teachers, and a conversation and discussion concerning my data collection plan. I usually had tea at the office of the principal – kōchō sensei (校長先生), who represented the school externally, in the context of official visits, ceremonies and diplomatic matters, or sometimes with the head teacher, called kyoutou sensei (教頭先生), responsible for the daily functioning of a school, in particular for educational matters. In the Japanese school structure, there is one more school manager, called kyoumu sensei (教務先生), responsible for the school agenda. Usually, at the beginning of my school and field visits, I was accompanied by two managers, but it was always the head teacher – kyoutou sensei (教頭先生) who showed me around the school. Kyoutou sensei (教頭先生) was usually also the most eager person to answer my questions, talk to me and explain things to me. Sometimes, I wondered why the school managers and organisers of my visits did not appoint English teachers to accompany me, especially that some of the kyoutou sensei (教頭先生) did not speak English well and rather smiled politely than answered my questions in detail. This was explained by some interesting observations I made about the school hierarchy of power. In some of the schools, I was spontaneously approached by English teachers, but they talked to me in the odd way that I mentioned before in the report, i.e. they whispered and were very reserved, which I found surprising. In my company, people spoke loud Japanese, as if to publicly express the priority of the Japanese language. Nonetheless,



Pict. 2. Surippa (スリッパ) – school slippers for visitors on a special stand
Private archives, B. Borowska-Beszta.

there is one more function in Japanese schools – the tantoush (担当者), the supervisor in the Board of Teachers. This is usually a teacher of the English language. Next, I was showed to every school space and attended classes or activities with children and youth with mild, moderate and severe intellectual disabilities. I was quite free to take pictures of empty corridors or classrooms. Each time, I was verbally instructed about the school standards and asked not to photograph pupils' faces. Pupils' faces were to remain anonymous. Sometimes, I was only allowed to take pictures of abled pupils or pupils with disabilities from the back or from a distance. In the corridor, next to the slippers, I accidentally took a picture of a boy who wanted very much to be photographed and frequently came in front of my camera. I coded his face in the research report, when he sat down to change his shoes in genkan. I wish I could have taken pictures in the knitting, weaving or ceramic workshops, and in particular in the

papier-mâché workshop in the junior school in Koga, where Japanese youth with moderate intellectual disabilities taught me how to make papier-mâché. Those were lively and spontaneous meetings. In terms of space analysis, when I attended lessons at the University Special School (UTEF), I saw space that was taken good care of, bright, sun-lit, clean, smooth, orderly, minimalistic and ascetic. I noticed that the university school probably had more funds than schools not attached to universities. In the music, rhythm and phonetic class, in a group of ten slender children with mild intellectual disabilities, e.g. the Down syndrome, there was a teacher and two male training students. Young and older children and youth whom I met in school corridors were verbally polite, and they always greeted everyone with a smile and *konnichiwa* (good day!), to which, of course, I too responded with a smile and a bow. Other teachers, whom I did not know, also bowed and said *konnichiwa*. Children were asked not to run in the corridors, but walk leisurely.



Pict. 3. Genkan (玄関)

Private archives, B. Borowska-Beszta.

Physical and material artefacts in school corridors and classrooms

Genkan (玄関) is the first important symbolic place of symbolic and actual purification upon entering each of the 6 primary and junior high schools that I visited and where I collected data. Entrance to the support facility for adults did not have the genkan (玄関) space and the requirement to change shoes. Genkan (玄関) has psychological and symbolic significance in the Japanese tradition. It constitutes a psychological border between the outside world and the ohyake space, and the inside world of a house or school – watakushi i puraibashii⁵⁹. Genkan (玄関) as the border between ohyake and watakushi and puraibashii is, in the Japanese tradition, historically linked with ZEN temples and samurai houses. It is a vital place of purification and demarcation, and an important moment of transit from the outside world of ohyake to the inside school world of watakushi and puraibashii. Primary and junior high schools that have the genkan (玄関) space explicitly remind of, on the one hand, the need to symbolically purify one's thoughts (but not only them) before entering the school culture, and on the other hand are the moment when the subjective status of visitors is equalised, and they also determine the border between privacy and that which is public. It might seem, from the European perspective, that the school is public space, but from the Japanese perspective, such distinction is not obvious. When I changed my shoes for the first time in the special junior high school in Koga, where I collected data, I put my own shoes in a wrong direction in genkan (玄関). The principal reacted immediately and, before entering the school corridor, he himself put my shoes in the right way, signaling to me the significance of genkan (玄関), and I learned quickly how it should be done. The purpose of the brief event was not to reprimand me, but rather, it was a natural reaction to my fast, but sometimes

⁵⁹ F. Asako, *What is Genkan?*, "Nipponia", No. 20 March 15, 2002, <http://web-japan.org/nipponia/nipponia20/en/what/what01.html>

clumsy struggles with my tight skirt or my trying to undo shoelaces while standing, and the fact that men usually had to wait for me and would watch me trying to hurry up with the shoes. Thus, the moment of putting on and taking off the shoes had gender connotations and caused some tension. However, nobody hastened me in any way. Genkan (玄関) requires that a person entering a building make a physical change of shoes as well as a symbolic change, by leaving the actual and metaphoric “dirt” outside. Once you change into slippers, which in the school symbolise house space, you cannot go towards the entry or outside the building wearing slippers.

The corridors in the special schools and general schools with inclusive and special classes that I visited were spacious and well lit. I saw children wearing school uniforms and walking in line, one after another. The corridors, minimalistic and empty, usually had one colorful accent – one artistic and symbolic board, but apart from that, there were no symbols, texts, announcements or meanings on the walls. There were empty spaces, which, however, did not make the impression of cold or detached institutions. I could watch lessons from the corridor, because the walls between the corridors and classrooms were usually made of glass and transparent. I could walk into empty classrooms, or watch lessons inside classrooms, or outside, on the corridor. Students were focused on the lessons and were not distracted by my entering the classroom. In the general school with inclusive and special classes, the corridors were clean and transparent, and there were hangers for the kids to leave their things on, and other items, such as a bench with a backrest or a 3-m long washbasin with several taps and soap, in the corridor leading to the library. The most typical colours of the corridors were cream, *écru* and soft white. Both in special primary and junior high schools, and in the general school with inclusive and special classes, there were no vivid colours in the corridors, no colourful chaos, but only individual boards on the walls. The glass walls made it transparent what went on in the classrooms, and enabled the school managers to control the classes. I was often surprised by how quiet the lessons

were, especially in the general school with inclusive and special classes, where there were 40 children in a classroom. Also the special classes, with 4 to 10 each, were very quiet.

The classrooms in special and general schools with inclusive and special classes had individual desks for children and youth with intellectual disabilities, called *chiteki shōgai* (知的障害), directed towards the board, standing in a straight or curved line. I had the impression that their position was not fixed and that they could be moved, depending on the educational needs. Classrooms were well lit with sunlight and lamps. Each classroom had windows on almost entire walls. Classrooms usually had clear division of space into (a) space for individual work, (b) space for team work and games, and (c) empty space in between. This empty space seemed particularly interesting to me, because, on the one hand, a child could walk around it if he or she needed it, and, on the other hand, it could be used for activities that were neither individual nor team work. Similar was the design in the general school with inclusive classes, which had separate special classes for children with various disorders: sensory, emotional (the autism spectrum), intellectual disabilities or behavioural disorders. Their classrooms also had a clear division of space into space for individual work, separated with various kinds of screens for children with autism spectrum disorders, and for group work in the other part of the classroom, also with spaces separated by batons. There were no carpets in the classrooms, only smooth parquets or some kind of durable, very smooth, bright flooring. An interesting solution in special classes in the general school was the use of tennis balls to mute desk and chair legs. Being quiet in the classroom and not disturbing others is very important in the Japanese culture, in all kinds of social spaces. When I attended lessons, I could see that the children and youth were focused on their work, and sometimes showed some interest in the visitor. Interestingly, in one of the general schools with special classes, half of the school was designated for abled children, and the other half for children with dysfunctions and special educational needs. It was interesting, what the teachers told me, that the parents

of abled children had a separate entrance to the school and did not know that one side of the building was for children with disabilities. This cultural explanation made me think about the cultural symbol and significance of the phenomenon of intellectual disability – chiteki shōgai (知的障害) in Japan. I will discuss the significance of this phenomenon in another publication in the cycle devoted to the Japanese educational system.



Pict. 4. Classroom cabinets – tokushu gakkō (特殊学校)

Private archives, B. Borowska-Beszta.

The classrooms, both in the special schools and the general school with inclusive and special classes that I visited, had, apart from a board and individual or double desks for children and youth, also open cabinets for school uniforms, where the kids left their uniforms when they had PE lessons. Another typical feature were various kinds of screens separating the space from individual work from the space for team work.

There were also screens in classrooms for children and youth with autism spectrum disorders. There were screens in the Fukuoka City Momochi Welfare Center, too. They had different textures, from canvas to wooden, or even cardboard. They could be transparent (looking like cages) or they could be like fencing that symbolically enclosed and physically divided the space. Screens are also a constant element and historically present artefact of the Japanese culture. I did not see children communicate with each other across the screens. They were absorbed in their own work. Another interesting place in the schools were libraries. In the general school with inclusive and special classes, in front of the library, there was a more than 3-m long sink with several taps and soap bars in plastic bags, and a written instruction to wash hands before entering the library. The corridors leading to the libraries were, the same as gekan, another place of purification in the school space.



Pict. 5. Corridor in a school – tokushu gakkō (特殊学校)

Private archives, B. Borowska-Beszta.



Pict. 6. A classroom- kyōshitsu (教室) in a special school- tokushu gakkō (特殊学校) for children with intellectual disabilities - chiteki shōgai (知的障害)

Private archives, B. Borowska-Beszta.



Pict. 7. A classroom – kyōshitsu (教室) in a general school with special classes for children with developmental disorders – hattatsu shōgai (発達障) of the autism spectrum

Private archives, B. Borowska-Beszta.



Pict. 8. A classroom – kyōshitsu (教室) in a general school with special classes for children with developmental disorders – hattatsu shōgai (発達障) of the autism spectrum

Private archives, B. Borowska-Beszta.

Discussion

To sum up the process of data collection and analysis of physical and behavioural artefacts during field research in 7 special and inclusive education and adult support facilities in Japan, I would like to note that the organisational cultures where I collected data were orderly, harmonious, focused and peaceful. Also, each educational institution had a small garden for ZEN meditation. Also, visual data collection was a useful technique of participating observation, since collection of verbal data – interviews, was sometimes difficult due to the poor knowledge of English among the academics whom I contacted and my own inability to speak Japanese (apart from some polite expressions and ability to count to 10). A rare exception was professor N. Tasaki and some principals and teachers, and therapists in the centre for adults. I think that my research may add a new di-

mension and insight into the global cultural studies on disability and education and support systems. Also, field research in Japan was very surprising in many ways for me – a visitor from Europe. As I explored the educational organisational cultures, I noticed certain subtleties of the oriental conceptualisation of behavioural artefacts and indistinct, hard to define borders of the association of spaces and material and physical artefacts of the space of the special and inclusive education system with the continuum of *ohyake*, *watakushi* and *puraibashii*. The field practice and sometimes difficult situations and challenges in the field were the turning point in proper understanding of the physical and behavioural artefacts of the analysed educational cultures in terms of the Japanese *ohyake* (公) (public) and *watakushi* (私) and *puraibashii* (プライベート) (private) spaces. Also, when exploring the educational organisational cultures in Fukuoka, Japan, after my previous research (Borowska-Beszta, 2013), I notice a certain regularity concerning the role of the gate keeper in studying the Japanese organisational cultures of the educational system. In my opinion, the the case of the organisational culture of special or inclusive education in Japan, without a person who enjoys authority and unquestionable social respect, and has a position in the environment that constitutes the cultural scene of the studies, who introduces a researcher to the system, even material and physical artefacts, not to mention the behavioural ones, would not be available to a researcher from outside Japan in this traditional, strongly hierarchical and ritualised, and inaccessible culture. Revealing information about problems relevant to my research was a very delicate and difficult matter for my Japanese interlocutors.

Conclusions

Analysis of the spaces and physical and material artefacts of the organisational cultures being the object of my research revealed their strong link with behavioural artefacts. For example, readers from outside the Japanese culture would find it hard to understand the significance of the purification process in *genkan* (玄関) in the

organisational cultures of the analysed schools without a simultaneous analysis of the behavioural artefacts associated with the school standards of behaviour in that space of purification. The organisational cultures of the 6 special schools and the general school with special and inclusive classes, of various educational levels, and one adult support centre suggest, both in terms of the school space and school artefacts, that schools are designed taking into account the special educational needs of pupils with intellectual disabilities or developmental disorders, and that their design is deeply rooted in the Japanese cultural patterns of space design in general. The analyses led to the conclusion that the spaces are transparent and student-friendly, but at the same time very friendly for school authorities. The 6 schools and 2 universities, where I also collected data, were surrounded by fences and had electronically controlled gates. The corridors in the primary and junior high schools had glass walls, making the classrooms visible. The 6 schools and 1 adult support centre were designed to provide for the needs of students with disabilities. The analysed school spaces, with their physical and behavioural artefacts reflect, in my opinion, the spaces that manifest the 9th reservoir of the cultural coding of the disability construct focusing on the *developing person*, which I mentioned in the first part of article. In my opinion, focusing on developing the potential of students with disabilities was the supreme objective, judging by my conversations with the Japanese teachers. Thus, the key was to stimulate the pupils' potential, so that they could cope with the requirements of adult life in Japan. I think the organisation of special classrooms was optimal, with 4-5 children with moderate or severe intellectual disabilities and developmental disorders in one class. I would also like to note that another physical artefact of the school (apart of the elements of the classrooms and corridors that I discussed) are detailed school rules concerning school uniforms for pupils and dress code for children. Teachers are supposed to wear suits, unless they teach PE lessons, when they wear sports clothes. School uniforms and dress code are also associated with hidden and coded symbols. In the general school with inclusive classes, I partic-

ipated in rehearsals for a traditional Japanese inclusive festivals, on the school playing field. The English teacher sitting next to me whispered to me about the meaning of the numbers students hat on the back of their shirts. Children with the highest functional and intellectual potential and the most talented ones had number 1, then 2 and 3, and children with disabilities were labeled with number 4. So I looked for number 4 among the children. It is worth noting that in the Japanese culture, number 4 is, unfortunately, unlucky, and pronounced as (*shi* ㄥ), is closely associated with death.



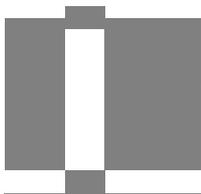
Pict. 9. Playing field of the university general school with inclusive classes
Pict. Private archives, B. Borowska-Beszta.

Bibliography

- Angrosino M., *Badania etnograficzne i obserwacje*, PWN, Warszawa 2010.
Banks M., *Materiały wizualne w badaniach jakościowych*, Niezłędnik Badacza, PWN, Warszawa 2009.

- Borowska-Beszta B., *Analiza antropologiczna jako transformacja: Problemy i techniki generowania tematów kulturowych*, „Problemy edukacji rehabilitacji socjalizacji osób niepełnosprawnych: Wybrane zagadnienie metodologii i metodyki badań w obszarze niepełnosprawności icodzienności osób z niepełnosprawnością”. Vol. 23, 2016 (in print).
- Borowska-Beszta B., *Anatema(?) szkolu kulturowego w andragogice specjalnej*, „Edukacja Otwarta” 2008, no. 2, pp. 163–179
- Borowska-Beszta B., *Etnografia dla terapeutów (pedagogów specjalnych) – szkice metodologiczne*, Wyd. Impuls, Kraków 2005.
- Borowska-Beszta B., *Etnografia stylu życia kultury dorosłych torunian z zaburzeniami rozwoju*. UMK 2013.
- Borowska-Beszta B., *Pracownicy Fundacji (metoda etnograficzna)*, (in:) *Formowanie się wspólnoty w Fundacji im. Brata Alberta w Radwanowicach*, Wydawnictwo i Drukarnia Towarzystwa Słowaków w Polsce, Krakow 2001, pp. 260–322.
- Creswell J., *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. 3rd Edition. Sage Publications, Inc, Los Angeles 2009.
- Denzin N., Lincoln Y., *Metody badań jakościowych*, Vol. 1, 2. PWN, Warszawa 2009.
- Flick U., *Projektowanie badania jakościowego*, PWN, Warszawa 2010.
- Gibbs G., *Analizowanie danych jakościowych*, PWN, Warszawa 2010.
- Green J.L., Bloome D., *Ethnography and ethnographers of and in education: a situated perspective*. In: Flood J., Heaths S.B., Lapp D. (ed.). *Handbook for literacy educators: research in the community and visual arts*, Macmillan, New York 1997, pp. 181–202.
- Hall E., *Ukryty wymiar*, Muza, Warszawa 1997.
- Hammersley M. (ed.) *Educational Research and Evidence-based Practice*. In association with the Open University, Sage, London 2007.
- Hammersley M., Atkinson P., *Metody badań terenowych*, Zysk i S-ka, Poznań 2000.
- Hammersley M., *Teaching qualitative methodology: craft, profession or bricolage*. In: Seale C., Gobo G., Gubrium J.F., Silverman D. eds., *Qualitative Research Practice*. Thousand Oaks: Sage, 2004 pp. 549–560.
- Jemielniak D., *Badania jakościowe, Metody i narzędzia*. Vol. 2. PWN, Warszawa 2012.
- Jemielniak D., *Badania jakościowe, Podejścia i teorie*. Vol. 1. PWN, Warszawa 2012.
- Kawecki I., *Dane wizualne w badaniach pedagogicznych*, „Pedagogika Kultury” 2009, vol. 5.
- Kostera M., *Antropologia organizacji, Metodologia badań terenowych*, PWN, Warszawa 2003.
- Kubinowski D., *Jakościowe badania pedagogiczne. Filozofia – Metodyka – Ewaluacja*, Lublin, UMCS 2010.
- Nakada M., Tamura T., *Japanese Conceptions of Privacy: An Intercultural Perspective*, *Ethics and Information Technology March*, 2005, Volume 7, Issue 1, pp. 27–36, p. 31

- Nalaskowski A., *Przestrzenie i miejsca szkoły*, Impuls, Kraków 2000.
- Nowotniak J., *Spoleczne swiaty pokoi nauczycielskich*, „Teraźniejszość – Człowiek – Edukacja: kwartalnik myśli społeczno-pedagogicznej” no. 3 (55), pp. 71–86
- Pink S., *Etnografia wizualna. Obrazy, media i przedstawienie w badaniach*, UJ, Kraków 2008.
- Schein E.H., *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco 2010.
- Schein E., *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. Jossey-Bass, (in:) L. Zbiegień-Maciąg, *Kultura w organizacji – Identyfikacja kultur znanych firm*, PWN, Warszawa 1999.
- Siarkiewicz E., Trębińska-Szumigraj E., Zielińska-Pękał D., *Edukacyjne prowokacje. Wykorzystanie etnografii performatywnej w procesie kształcenia doradców*, Impuls, Kraków 2012.
- Spradley J., *Participant observation*. New York, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, New York 1980.
- Spradley J., *The Ethnographic interview*, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, New York 1979.
- Tamura T., *Japanese feelings for privacy* MANUSYA: *Journal of Humanities* (Special Issue No. 8 2004) pp. 138–156 http://www.manusya.journals.chula.ac.th/files/essay/Tamura_p121-139.pdf [access: 4.07.2017].
- Whitehead T.L., *Basic Classical Ethnographic Research Methods Secondary Data Analysis, Fieldwork, Observation/Participant Observation and Informal and Semi-structured Interviewing*, 2005. <http://www.cusag.umd.edu/documents/workingpapers/classicalethnomethods.pdf> [access 4.07.2017].
- Wiernek B., *Kultura organizacyjna przedsiębiorstwa*, Oficyna Wydawnicza TEXT, Kraków 2000.
- Wolcott H.F., *Posturing in qualitative inquiry*. In MD LeCompte, WL Millroy & JPreisler, (Eds.) *The Handbook of Qualitative Research in Education*, Academic Press, New York, 1992 pp. 3–52.
- Wolfensberger W., *The Origin And Nature Of Our Institutional Models*. In: *Changing Patterns in Residential Services for the Mentally Retarded*, President's Committee on Mental Retardation, Washington, D.C. January 1969, <http://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=1909&page=all> [access: 4.07.2017].



Special and non-special. Dilemmas of the modern approach to the needs of people with disabilities

ABSTRACT: Dorota Podgórska-Jachnik, *Special and non-special. Dilemmas of the modern approach to the needs of people with disabilities*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 63–80. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.04>

The article discusses the problem of disability seen through the prism of needs, both the ones referred to as special (special educational needs, developmental needs, professional needs) and the universal ones. It analyses both the term itself – (special) needs, in particular the problem of its deprivation of the basic, psychological significance in special needs education in recent years as well as its theoretical and practical explorations with reference to nursing, compensatory, educational and therapeutic activities. The purpose of the text is to emphasise the need for updated analyses in line with the idea of inclusion with reference to the problem of the needs of persons with disabilities as an incentive factor and compensatory area.

KEY WORDS: special needs, unsatisfied needs, disability, inclusion

Foreword

The term “special needs” has become one of the most commonly used concepts in special needs education. Morton A. Gernsbacher et al, who analyse the social perception of this concept, note that

Google Scholar currently indexes more than a million scientific articles with this term, and Amazon.com sells almost 5,000 books that have this word in the title¹. Even though its history and the background of its origin are commonly known, it is rarely used now in accordance with its source meaning: most typically it is treated like a label, a contemporary synonym of disability, and, unfortunately, infrequently as an index that points to the psychological category of the need included in it. There is the risk that, if the word “needs” is repeated thousands of times, the effect of “habituation” will develop and we will no longer see behind the term the person who has some kind of needs. Meanwhile, responding rationally to the needs of persons with disabilities determined the effectiveness of support and social inclusion.

Special needs – an euphemism for disability or actual interest in the needs of a person?

Knowledge of disabilities – their causes, conditions, limitations associated with them as well as the possibilities for preventing and minimising their consequences – has changed over the ages. As the science, especially medicine, developed, the ability to explain the mystery of disability improved, but also the social interest in and social attitudes towards disabled persons changed. Currently, disability is regarded as a complex phenomenon inscribed in human fate and affecting (determining) that fate, which is why it is the object of not only numerous medical studies but also humanistic, philosophical, pedagogical and psychological deliberations. Consequently, numerous theoretical concepts and categories develop in science, attempting to explain the phenomenon of disability. These include perceiving disability through the prism of the special needs of a disabled person.

¹ M.A. Gernsbacher, et al. (2016), “*Special needs*” is an ineffective euphemism, *Cognitive Research* No 1(1): 29; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41235-016-0025-4> [ed. Online 2016 Dec 19] [access: 2018.01.15].

In psychological terms, needs belong to factors that motivate and activate human actions, but they are something more than mere instincts and impulses driving a person. The shortest definition of a need is that it is lack of fulfilment², although it can also signify (irresistible) need to do something or instrumental lack of something needed to achieve a certain expected condition, goal or intention. Translations and synonyms include such expressions as: *difficulties, poverty, deprivation, scarcity, difficult situation*. Thus, what we have here is a strong and diversified controlling agent of human behaviour, often of imperative and irresistible nature.

The concept of “special needs” is mainly associated with “special educational needs”, the term introduced forty years ago by Mary Warnock (1978) as an alternative to the simple dichotomy: “disability” – “non-disability” and the related simple dichotomy of educational choices in the schooling practice: special school – normal school. Acknowledging the complexity of the individual needs of all students – not only those with disabilities – led to thinking in the categories of necessary and diversified assistance, taking into account not only disabilities but all the other factors that affect the educational progress of an individual³. This could be defined as a positive approach, reflecting the following way of thinking: *it does not matter what caused your limitations and what they are, what matters is what you need in particular to be able to achieve the same standards as others despite your limitations*. This was a passage from medical categorisation of students and labelling them on the basis of their diagnosed deficits to a functional understanding of their needs. Warnock understood needs in broad educational categories, as the requirement to apply one or more of the following forms of compensatory measures by a school:

- the provision of special means of access to the curriculum through special equipment, facilities or resources, modifica-

² S.C. Rathus (2005), *Psychologia współczesna*, Wydawnictwo GWP, Gdańsk, p. 442.

³ The Warnock Report (1978), *Special Educational Needs. Report of the Committee of Enquiry into the Education of Handicapped Children and Young People*. London, Her Majesty's Stationery Office.

tion of the physical environment or specialist teaching techniques;

- the provision of a special or modified curriculum;
- particular attention to the social structure and emotional climate in which education takes place⁴.

Warnock's concept, and in particular the concept of special needs, became hugely popular throughout the world. When, half a century ago, Ruth Luckasson et al (1992) proposed defining the degrees of mental retardation by means of the scope of the necessary psycho-social support, the effect on the global scientific discourse was the strengthening of the idea of practical operationalisation of needs resulting from disability, which is currently becoming standard. According to Luckasson, the needs may be graded (instead of the traditional degrees of mental retardation): from sporadic assistance through limited assistance up to complex and full assistance⁵.

The concept of special (educational) needs is not only rooted in the conceptual system of special needs education but also – somewhat against the intentions of its authors – it started to replace the concept of disability. Will it become another pejorative label one day? It seems very likely – M.A. Gernsbacher et al (2016)⁶ prove empirically that its original euphemistic character has been gradually transforming into a dysphemism⁷. In an interesting attributive experiment on a large group of N=530 persons, the authors prove that currently, the concept of special needs has more negative connotations and more stigmatising potential than the concept of disability, which, according to the researchers, is perceived as *more inte-*

⁴ Ibidem, p. 41.

⁵ R. Luckasson et al. (1992), *Mental retardation: Definition, classification, and systems of supports* (9th ed.). Washington, DC, AAMR.

⁶ M.A. Gernsbacher, et al. (2016), "Special needs" ..., op. cit.

⁷ *Dysphemism – the opposite to euphemism, replacing a decent, cautious or neutral word or expression with an irritating, blunt or immodest one*, [online] <http://www.slownik-online.pl/kopalinski/6912E60D67C51EA4412565BA002919B3.php> [access: 2018.01.15].

*grative*⁸. The authors, based on their findings, recommend not using the term “special needs”, which is worth considering in the countries where it has become dominant in the educational discourse, including in Poland. They also mention campaigns lobbying for removing from the media, including social media, of both the term “special” and the euphemistic concept of “special needs”⁹. They quote Collin Barnes, a representative of the contemporary interdisciplinary Disability Studies, who advocates for replacing the term “special education” with “inclusive education”, “special educational needs” with “unmet educational needs” and “children with special educational needs” with a non-euphemistic and unambiguous term “disabled children”¹⁰.

The future of the term “special needs” seems uncertain, the more so that, according to Gernsbacher, the term *poses more unanswered questions*¹¹, which in turn provokes identifying those questions. One of them might be the question of the theoretical and practical consequences of having developed the discussed concept around the psychological category of the “need”. Before we conclude that the labels of “special needs” or “special educational needs” are useless and throw them away to the garbage bin of science, it is worth going back to the source and extracting from the complex term one key word that has changed the perception of a person with disabilities: the very psychological term of “needs”, and to consider its contemporary significance and the resulting obligations.

The second conceptual area where the word need appears with reference to persons with disabilities are “unmet needs”. Although not so strongly embedded in the special needs education discourse as special needs, the concept is becoming dominant in approaching

⁸ M.A. Gernsbacher, et al. (2016), “*Special needs*”..., op. cit.

⁹ *Vide*: #NoSpecial – Carter-Long, 2016; #Don’tCallMeSpecial – Reeves, 2015 [after:] M.A. Gernsbacher et al. (2016), “*Special needs*”..., op. cit.

¹⁰ C. Barnes, A. Sheldon (2007), ‘*Emancipatory*’ *disability research and special educational needs*, [in:] Florian L. ed., *The Sage trade of special education*. London, Sage; pp. 233–246.

¹¹ *Ibidem*.

the problem of disabilities in the health care and social policies. It falls within the inclusive approach, as permanent lack of fulfilment of certain needs of some social groups is identified as an excluding factor, which the contemporary inclusive movement – social development policy, inclusive medicine, inclusive education, contemporary social work based on the idea of empowerment – strive to prevent¹².

Recognising persons with disabilities as a sensitive group, i.e. one endangered with marginalisation and exclusion, is the reason why their needs and the degree of the satisfaction of those needs are analysed. An example of such measures on the international level is the WHO *World report on disability* (2011), where the category of “needs and unmet needs” of persons with disabilities is a distinct part of the analytical model used in general health care, in all its dimensions – health promotion and disease prevention, basic health care and specialist treatment as well as in rehabilitation and in broadly understood assistance and support. The broad analytical range is associated with the bio-psycho-social model of disability and the holistic functional approach to disability, most comprehensively expressed in the WHO ICF concept – *International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health*. As a result, the analysis of needs and unmet needs in the above three areas, according to said WHO Report, is subjected to the idea of inclusion through measures targeted, respectively, at:

1. reducing inequalities in the health area and achieving the highest health and functional standards of persons with disabilities;
2. broadly understood rehabilitation, focused on achieving and maintaining optimal functioning in interaction with the environment, despite disability;
3. assistance and support that enable an optimal level of self-sufficiency and independent life¹³.

¹² D. Podgórska-Jachnik (2014), *Praca socjalna z osobami z niepełnosprawnością i ich rodzinami*, Centrum Rozwoju Zasobów Ludzkich MPiPS, Warszawa.

¹³ Ibidem.

Some of the interesting diagnoses conducted for the purpose of social policies on the national and domestic levels, taking into account the needs and unmet needs of persons with disabilities are:

- the 2017 country report commissioned by the Polish Disabled Persons' Rehabilitation Fund (PFRON); surveys were conducted in a group of N=966 persons, selected according to a detailed algorithm described in methodology¹⁴.
- the survey report on needs and satisfaction with selected social services designated to satisfy them, in children diagnosed with disability and their parents in Łódź region, commissioned in 2016 by the Regional Centre for Social Policies (RCPS) in Łódź; the survey was carried out in a representative random group of N=322 parents and N=359 children in 24 special junior high schools and 24 special primary schools in the region¹⁵.

All the three reports – WHO, PFRON and RCPS in Łódź – are available online and serve as an example of a tool that actually influences policies on various levels, enabling disability management in view of the diagnosed needs. It should be noted that the modern approach to the problem, in line with the policy of social empowerment, is expressed in the postulate to plan medical and social services based on actual needs (need-based) rather than adjusting a person with disability to available services – being service-led¹⁶. This also shows that social diagnosis is always limited to a certain background for personalised measures for persons with disabilities,

¹⁴ M. Sochańska-Kawiecka i wsp. (2017), *Badanie potrzeb osób niepełnosprawnych – RAPORT KOŃCOWY*; *Badania Społeczne MSK, PFRON*, [online] https://www.pfron.org.pl/fileadmin/Badania_i_analizy/Badanie_potrzeb_ON/Raport_koncowy_badanie_potrzeb_ON.pdf [access: 5.01.2018].

¹⁵ J. Pyżalski, D. Podgórska-Jachnik (ed.) (2016), *Badanie potrzeb i satysfakcji z wybranych usług skierowanych do rodzin z dziećmi z orzeczoną niepełnosprawnością w wieku 8–16 lat. Raport z badań IMP na zlecenie RCPS w Łodzi*, [online] <http://www.imp.lodz.pl/upload/aktualnosci/2016/raport.pdf> [access: 5.01.2018].

¹⁶ J. Harris, H. Morgan, C. Glendinning et al. (2006), *Personalised social care for adults with disabilities: a problematic concept for frontline practice*. *Health & Social Care in the Community*, 2006, 14, pp. 125–135.

and that the effects of support should also – or even in the first place – be considered taking into account the psychological mechanisms triggered by the vectors of needs and measures aimed at meeting those needs. After all, one can be either the object or the subject of support. A subject-based approach to the needs of persons with disabilities involves not only protecting them against inequality but also their compensatory potential of development. This, however, requires a more in-depth analysis of the specific structure of individual needs in a situation of disability, focusing on the psychological meaning of the concept of a need, as well as its interdisciplinary implications. The subsequent part of the article discusses possible practical applications of two theoretical concepts coinciding with the analysed area: Dorothea Orem's concept and the Polish concept developed by Kazimierz Obuchowski, with references to Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs, which is not discussed here in detail due to its popularity.

Specificity of the needs of persons with disabilities from the perspective of deficiency and growth

Psychology defines two basic categories of needs: deficiency needs and growth needs. They are fundamental for more elaborate theoretical models of the classification of needs as well as empirical verification of their interrelations¹⁷. Another question is what specific content – including what values – is associated with deficiency and growth, respectively. In the case of disability, where limitations and deficiencies constitute specific conditions for the development of human experience, the category of deficiency needs seems particularly important. Deficiency also seems to be the basic factor determining the special nature / specificity of the needs of persons

¹⁷ E.g. A. Noltemeyer, et al. (2012), *The relationship among deficiency needs and growth needs: An empirical investigation of Maslow's theory*, Children and Youth Services Review, Vol. 34, Issue 9, September 2012, pp. 1862–1867.

with disabilities. This does not mean that persons with disabilities need more of something but that they may need something more, i.e. the effects of not having their needs satisfied may pose a major threat to their development, health or life. The specificity of deficiency needs is not due to the specificity of the deficiency, but rather the specificity of the possibilities for leveling them - in particular independently. Accordingly, it may be assumed that independence deficiency also contributes to defining the needs of persons with disabilities as special.

An inspiring concept from the perspective of the needs of persons with disabilities seen through the prism of independence deficiency, which means the need to use social support to satisfy the needs, is the Self-Care Deficit Theory developed by Dorothea Orem¹⁸. This concept is one of the classical theories of nursing and the basis for its practical model¹⁹, but it may also be an interesting inspiration for separating the medical and non-medical aspects of a disease or disability. This is an important contribution to a discussion on the plausibility of complete departure from the medical approach in the currently promoted social model of disability. Moreover, this is a view from the perspective of "socialised" medicine. This is manifested in Orem's model through the principle of self-limiting the nursing intervention to a necessary minimum determined by the current needs of the assisted person towards gradual inclusion of educational and activating elements to stimulate self-care resources that the person has, even though they are limited by a disease or disability. This is, in a way, analogous to the self-limiting of special needs education in order to release the independence and autonomy resources of a person with disability.

Self-care is a form of independence. According to Orem, it is the ability to take care of oneself and one's family resulting from the innate self-nurturing tendency. Self-care is thus necessary for health and life, being the condition of (independent) satisfaction of one's

¹⁸ D. Orem (2001), *Nursing: Concepts of practice*. St. Louis, MO, Mosby.

¹⁹ A. Bigs (2008), *Orem's Self-Care Deficit Nursing Theory: Update on the State of the Art and Science*, *Nursing Science Quarterly*, Vol. 21, Issue: 3, pp. 200-206.

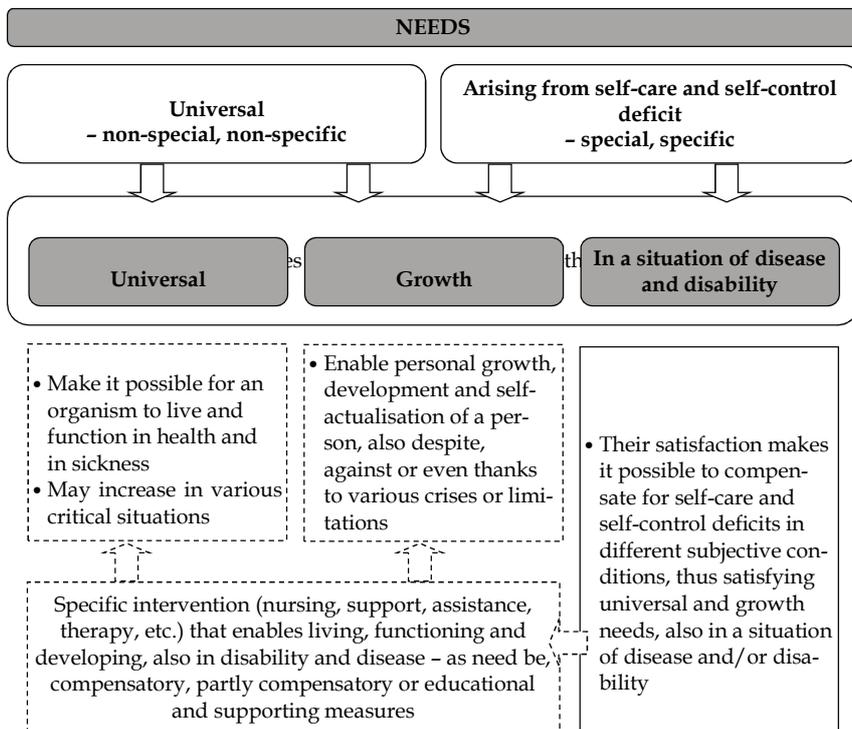


Fig. 1. Categories of specific and non-specific (special) needs of an individual in a situation of disease or disability in an attempt to generalise the Self-Care Deficit Theory of Dorothea Orem

Source: own elaboration of Orem's modified model

needs, which an individual learns in the course of life, expanding one's knowledge and skills. According to Orem, it is a *conscious and trained activity aimed at satisfying specific needs that purposefully integrates the functioning and development of an individual*²⁰. However, certain events in the life of an individual may cause self-care deficits; these include various changes in personal situation, which

²⁰ G. Kowalik (2012), *Praktyczne zastosowanie modelu pielęgnowania Dorothy Orem*, *Studia Medyczne* 26(2), p. 108.

could be called crisis situations – in psychological, social, economic or health-related terms (Fig. 1).

This concept seems to be particularly convergent with the problem of disability defined as limited independence and ability to satisfy one's needs. It can also serve as a bridge between the aforementioned social diagnosis of the needs of persons with disabilities for the purposes of health and educational policies (the WHO report) and a personalised, individual strategy for satisfying those needs that not only promotes equalising of differences but also releases the growth potential of an individual. Orem, by focusing on the health-related aspects and the problem of a disease, uses her concept to justify the need for and the nature of nursing, but it seems that the model may be extended also to other types of necessary support. For us, however, the most important are the three groups of needs identified by Orem that may be observed in a situation of a disease and/or disability causing a self care-deficit. These are universal needs, developmental needs and needs manifested in health deviations (fig. 1). This corresponds to the approach initiated in the 1990s by Denis C. Harper, which combines the medical aspects of a disease with the psychological and social ones. This division is also relevant to the situation of a person with disability, and it is similar to the concept, acknowledged by Polish special needs education, of common and specific features of development in a situation of a chronic disease by Władysława Pilecka²¹.

Figure 1 shows that non-specific needs associated with disability include both universal needs that determine the survival of every individual, and growth needs that are crucial for self-actualisation. Specific needs result directly from the conditions affected by a disease/disability and are of compensatory nature. However, they are not limited to doing things "for" the patient, which is defined as a fully compensatory nursing system, although this might also be required in some cases (e.g. breathing "for" a patient with a respira-

²¹ W. Pilecka (2002), *Przewlekła choroba somatyczna w rozwoju dziecka*, Kraków, pp. 17–18.

tor or parenteral nutrition). The compensatory system is used with patients that have no or limited ability to express judgements or opinions, or to make conscious self-care decisions, which includes providing care to patients with limited or no mobility, communicative abilities or ability to recognise environmental threats²².

Although the situation seems specific for nursing, it has its equivalent in pedagogy. One of the analogies for such type of compensatory nursing is taking care of a child with deep and multiple disabilities, where the life of the child depends on his or her caregivers and there is little hope of future improvement. Sometimes, the only perspective is further deterioration or death, such as in the case of lethal genetic defects or terminal diseases. The educational significance of such measures is best expressed by the concept of educative nursing or death education as a specific sub-discipline of education²³. Even a situation of wholly compensatory nursing may have an educational dimension, arising from a personalistic approach to an individual, also terminally ill or heavily disabled. This is characterised by treating a person as the subject of care, i.e. not only nursing, but also developing an interpersonal relationship and satisfying the implicit as well as explicit needs that (any) person has. According to the principle: *you are the subject if others treat you like one*, it is recommended to be with a patient even if he does not feel it, talk to him even if he cannot hear it; surround him with certain objects (books, pictures, toys) even if he does not use them. It should be noted that death education is not about nursing a dying person, but rather about everything that takes place in the interpersonal, social and spiritual dimensions, even if nursing and struggling to maintain life seem to be the dominant activities targeted at the patient.

In practice, it is difficult to tell where exactly compensatory nursing ends and educative nursing starts, however, in Orem's

²² I. Płaszewska-Żywko, E. Wilczek-Rużyczka (2000), *Teoria pielęgnowania Dorothea' Orem*, *Studia Medyczne* 26(2), pp. 107-111.

²³ J. Binnebesel (2010), *Tanatopedagogika w doświadczeniu wielowymiarowości człowieka i śmierci*, Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek, Toruń.

model, there is not only room for educational activities but also a trend to gradually expand that dimension insofar as a patient recovers his self-care ability. Thus, it is a dynamic model. Figure 1 also shows that meeting specific needs associated with a disease is in a way a specialist medical intervention of compensatory, partly compensatory or educative and supporting nature in a situation of crisis caused by the disease. Orem's modified model includes the health-care loop readdressing universal and growth needs, representing a homeostatic and self-triggering cycle of vital forces and self-actualisation efforts, measured by updating various categories of needs. It is a somewhat different approach than the one presented in the popular, traditional and hierarchic model of needs by Abraham Maslow – his famous pyramid, which I do not present here, as it is generally known. The hierarchy of needs means that higher-level needs are only triggered once the more fundamental needs have been satisfied. Despite the huge impact the theory had on contemporary science, its dependencies were not always empirically reflected, and it experienced some criticism as well as subsequent transformations²⁴. Orem's modified model presented in Fig. 1 combines the importance of both the defective needs and the growth needs – the latter ranking higher in Maslow's pyramid – for restoring the ability to live, function and achieve self-actualisation despite a disease or disability. Thus, this concept may be developed to show the role of personal resources in the phenomenon of resilience or post-traumatic growth, motivated by growth needs.

A need for the meaning of life and psychological distance in the (psychological) growth of persons with disabilities

An important publication in Polish psychological and educational literature was Kazimierz Obuchowski's monograph *Psychologia*

²⁴ D.T. Kenrick et al. (2010), *Renovating the Pyramid of Needs: Contemporary Extensions Built Upon Ancient Foundations*, *Perspect Psychol Sci.* 2010 May, 5(3). pp. 292–314.

dążeń ludzkich (The Psychology of Human Endeavours, 1983, 2000). The second edition of the book had a meaningful subtitle *Galaktyka potrzeb* (The Galaxy of Needs). The metaphor accurately reflects the volume and complexity of human needs and their role in the life of a person. The author, the same as A. Maslow, identifies a certain hierarchy of needs (in particular, the base and tip of Maslow's pyramid are similar), however, in terms of the categories of needs, he mainly uses the aspect of their content. K. Obuchowski identifies the following needs: physiological, sexual, cognitive, emotional, the need for the meaning of life and the need for psychological distance – defined as a mature need for the meaning of life²⁵.

Since in practice, developmental support provided to persons with disabilities focuses on their needs understood as deficiencies, Obuchowski's concept constitutes an inspiring counterweight that may serve as an educational or therapeutic base for problems associated with disability and (psychological, spiritual, personal) growth despite those problems²⁶. The meaning of life and existence as a determinant of self-actualisation is associated with the axiological and teleological aspects of education. Finding and defining it is a challenge that every person, both abled and disabled, must face. However, in the case of disability, it may become a superior aspect compensating for the existing limitations. Even more important for personal development of persons with disabilities seems to be the ability to move beyond that which is individual without negating one's own experiences: a psychological distance to individual experiences with their simultaneous integration seems a valuable direc-

²⁵ K. Obuchowski (2000), *Galaktyka potrzeb – psychologia dążeń ludzkich*, Wyd. Zysk i S-ka, Poznań.

²⁶ Fragments of this section were presented in the author's speech entitled *Niepełnosprawność w paradygmacie ludzkich potrzeb* at the Conference *Niepełnosprawni w Państwie i Kościele. Potrzeby duchowe i społeczne osób niepełnosprawnych* (The Disabled in the State and in the Church. Spiritual and Social Needs of Disabled Persons). Łódź 2010. The entire speech is included in post-conference materials edited by S. Skobel, A. Perzyński and W. Kamiński under the same title; Wyd. Archidiecezjalne Wydawnictwo Łódzkie, Łódź.

tion for the growth and education of disabled persons, a way for them to become autonomous and intentional, and to control their own lives.

Fulfilling the need for distance (which is not isolation from the world or dissociation from unwanted, e.g. negative experiences!) gives a chance to distinguish between *me-objective* and *me-intentional*. Few young disabled people receive in the process of their education this simple mental recipe for positive assimilation of certain negative experiences that they cannot avoid. Meanwhile, Obuchowski seems to give a ready-made recipe for finding the subjective hard core of one's own subjectivity by "cooling" and generalising one's personal experiences and bringing them to the rank of objects. This could also serve as a therapeutic guidance to work with disabled persons. The author writes: *Fear, despair, being ill, being crippled, joy and success may come in two different forms A form identical with a person and a form of the features of a person. (...) If I identify myself with pain or failure, they become me, which is why I cannot control them. In fact, it is them that control me*²⁷. The author continues: *However, another possibility is that (e.g.) anger is not me but my anger, I feel it and it is in me, but it is not me. Thus, I make it an object, the same as my hand, a computer or a spoon. This I why I am able to control that anger*²⁸. *Moreover, a person with the right attitude may gradually gain control over other aspects of his Ego. By making them objects, he separates them from his Ego, from his subjectivity, making them "me-not-me" objects*²⁹. We can see then that subjective cognitive reconstruction of an objective situation, constituting fulfilment of the need for distance, makes it possible to control the reality – even difficult, hostile and painful – and, *de facto*, it clarifies the concept of a subject. The model of objectification of one's own negative experiences is also a theoretical justification for the significance – of seemingly irrelevant – semantic differences in the expressions: **disabled person** (denotes

²⁷ K. Obuchowski (2000), *Galaktyka potrzeb...*, op. cit., p. 326.

²⁸ Ibid.

²⁹ Ibid., p. 327.

subjective disability) vs. **person with disability** (denotes objectified disability, which does not reach the deeper dimensions of humanity and subjectivity).

The latter part of the analysis shows how to look, in the paradigm of human needs, for specific strategies that support growth and how to limit the negative consequences of disability. The higher-level needs generate personal growth, as they may constitute an area for the collection of experiences, which we will be associating with meanings in the process of education and self-education: individual meaning of individual life and, by developing a distance – its supra-individual metaphysical meaning.

Summary and conclusions

The concept of needs and special needs is currently dominant in the disability discourse, albeit it is often used unreflectively. Special (educational, developmental) needs are often used as synonyms of disability and, unfortunately, in an increasingly dysphemic way. In those names, the word “need” becomes transparent, i.e. it does not trigger a reflection on what the persons referred to as such actually need.

The purpose of this article was to restore the basic psychological and educational meaning of the concept of need with reference to persons with disabilities. In particular, several specific areas were presented, where the concept of the “needs of persons with disabilities” acquires special theoretical meaning and encourages practical actions: diagnostic, supporting, nursing, health-related and educational. Certain conceptual dilemmas and selected theoretical concepts of needs were presented: according to Orem, Maslow and Obuchowski, and related to the problems of special needs education. It seems that understanding the need as a factor of psychological growth may be useful in education, support and therapy of persons with disabilities, as is proven by the example of the need for the meaning of life and the need for psychological distance.

It seems that nowadays, not “special needs” (although it would be difficult to negate their existence), but rather “unmet needs” (both special and un-special) should determine the nature of supporting measures. The “speciality” of needs is contrary to the idea of inclusion – speciality does not fall within the paradigm of a society for all, and it has already been agreed to eliminate from the vocabulary of special needs education the term “special care”. On the other hand, if needs are not met – especially if it is permanent – then this is a strong excluding factor. Accordingly, the effort to effectively and rationally satisfy the needs is actual inclusion, provided it reflects the actual, personalised needs (need-based service), rather than being an automatic mechanism of adapting persons with disabilities to available services. Thus, an accurate social and individual diagnosis is of great importance, the same as knowledge of the structure and mechanisms of the motivating and compensating effect of the needs of persons with disabilities. An example of rational measures is the support in disease and disability due to self-care deficit and assistance in recovering that ability, presented in this article (the concept developed by Dorothea Orem) as well as educational and therapeutic work to meet the need of the meaning of life of persons with disabilities and the need for psychological distance, defined as a mature need for the meaning of life (the concept developed by Kazimierz Obuchowski).

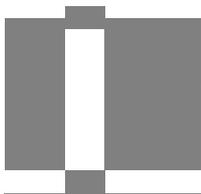
Bibliography

- Barnes C., Sheldon A. (2007), *'Emancipatory' disability research and special educational needs*, [in:] Florian L. ed., *The Sage handbook of special education*. London, Sage; pp. 233–246.
- Bigs A. (2008), *Orem's Self-Care Deficit Nursing Theory: Update on the State of the Art and Science*, *Nursing Science Quarterly*, Vol. 21, Issue: 3; pp. 200–206.
- Binnebesel J. (2010), *Tanatopedagogika w doświadczeniu wielowymiarowości człowieka i śmierci*, Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek, Toruń.
- Gernsbacher M.A., Raimond A.R., Balinghasay M.Th., Boston J.S. (2016), *“Special needs” is an ineffective euphemism*, *Cognitive Research*, No 1(1), 29; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41235-016-0025-4>, [ed. Online 2016 Dec 19], [access: 2018.01.15].

- Harris J., Morgan H., Glendinning C. et al. (2006), *Personalised social care for adults with disabilities: a problematic concept for frontline practice*. *Health & Social Care in the Community*, 2006, 14, pp. 125–135.
- Kenrick D.T., Griskevicius V., Neuberg S.L., Schaller M. (2010), *Renovating the Pyramid of Needs: Contemporary Extensions Built Upon Ancient Foundations*, *Perspect Psychol Sci*. 2010 May, 5(3), pp. 292–314.
- Kowalik G., *Praktyczne zastosowanie modelu pielęgnowania Dorothy Orem*, *Studia Medyczne* 2012, 26(2), pp. 107–111.
- Luckasson R., Coulter D.L., Polloway E.A., Reiss S., Schalock R.L., Snell M.E., et al. (1992), *Mental retardation: Definition, classification, and systems of supports* (9th ed.). Washington, DC, AAMR.
- Noltemeyer A., Bush K., Patton J., Bergen D. (2012), *The relationship among deficiency needs and growth needs: An empirical investigation of Maslow's theory*, *Children and Youth Services Review*, Vol. 34, Issue 9, September 2012, p. 1862–1867.
- Obuchowski K. (2000), *Galaktyka potrzeb – psychologia dążeń ludzkich*, Wyd. Zysk i S-ka, Poznań.
- Orem, D. (2001), *Nursing: Concepts of practice*. St. Louis, MO, Mosby.
- Pilecka W. (2002), *Przewlekła choroba somatyczna w rozwoju dziecka*, Kraków.
- Płaszewska-Żywko I., Wilczek-Rużyczka E. (2000), *Teoria pielęgnowania Dorothea' Orem*, *Studia Medyczne* 26(2), pp. 107–111.
- Podgórska-Jachnik D. (2014), *Praca socjalna z osobami z niepełnosprawnościami i ich rodzinami*, Centrum Rozwoju Zasobów Ludzkich MPiPS, Warszawa.
- Pyżalski J., Podgórska-Jachnik D. (ed.) (2016), *Badanie potrzeb i satysfakcji z wybranych usług skierowanych do rodzin z dziećmi z orzeczoną niepełnosprawnością w wieku 8–16 lat*. Raport z badań Instytutu Medycyny Pracy na zlecenie Regionalnego Centrum Polityki Społecznej w Łodzi, [online] <http://www.imp.lodz.pl/upload/aktualnosc/2016/raport.pdf> [access: 5.01.2018].
- Rathus S.C. (2005), *Psychologia współczesna*, Wyd. GWP, Gdańsk.
- Sochańska-Kawiecka M. i wsp. (2017), *Badanie potrzeb osób niepełnosprawnych – RAPORT KONCOWY*; *Badania Społeczne MSK, PFRON*, [online] https://www.pfron.org.pl/fileadmin/Badania_i_analizy/Badanie_potrzeb_ON/Raport_koncowy_badanie_potrzeb_ON.pdf [access: 5.01.2018].
- The Warnock Report (1978), *Special Educational Needs. Report of the Committee of Enquiry into the Education of Handicapped Children and Young People*. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office.

Netography

- <http://portalwiedzy.onet.pl/tlumacz.html?qs=need&tr=ang-auto&x=35&y=8>
<http://www.slownik-online.pl/kopalinski/6912E60D67C51EA4412565BA002919B3.php>



IWONA CHRZANOWSKA, BEATA JACHIMCZAK

Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań

Student With Migration Experience in Education. Diagnosis of Needs and Areas of Support Within Inclusive Education: A Foreign Student

ABSTRACT: Iwona Chrzanowska, Beata Jachimczak, *Student With Migration Experience in Education. Diagnosis of Needs and Areas of Support Within Inclusive Education: A Foreign Student*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 81–96. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.05>

The text is devoted to the issue of support as part of inclusive education offered to one of the student groups with special educational needs, namely foreign students. It is a small group in comparison to other groups of students with special educational needs in the total population of students in Poland. It constitutes less than 0.4% of students with special educational needs. Problems of foreign students, both in reference to education and in social integration in the country in which they live, are specific even within the group of students with special educational needs. Nevertheless, as pinpointed in studies on the issue, on account of the small population of foreign students in Poland, teachers treat the problem of social inclusion of immigrant students as a hypothetical problem, not real one. In line with the concept of inclusive education, it is assumed that support in development should be dedicated to all students, irrespective of the fact if they form a group that is easily identifiable as part of the hitherto category-based approach to the diagnosis of needs, more or less numerous, with a durable and serious disruption of development or with less intense problems, requiring only temporary support and slight adjustment. Nevertheless, it is necessary to diagnose – in every case – the needs not only of students and their parents, but also of teachers and the personnel of educational institutions

with the aim of introducing such system changes which guarantee that the offered assistance ceases to be stigmatising for the students and starts to be associated with self-acceptance, self-awareness and aims for the maximum use of the aptitude and development potential of a person.

KEY WORDS: migration experience, inclusive education, support

Introduction

The group of students with migration experience is diversified. It includes children/ students of foreigners: refugees, immigrants and emigrants, including those who temporarily stay abroad and who fulfil the compulsory schooling obligation there and then return to Poland, as well as those who stay in Poland, whose parent/ parents emigrated abroad to earn money. Each of such student groups has special educational needs which should be addressed as part of the system of education in Poland.

In this text, analyses focus on the first group, namely foreign students. In Polish conditions, immigrants are a more numerous group than refugees. Data show that among foreign students only 11% are children from refugee families. Additionally, as of 2009, a drop tendency has been observed in this respect¹.

In the case of immigration, two groups can be distinguished: families with children who moved to Poland with an intention of temporary stay and those whose stay in Poland is permanent. It should be stressed that immigrants below 18 years of age, i.e. persons subject to the compulsory schooling obligation, are approx. 0.019% (7,290 persons) of residents in Poland; in reference to all students who are covered by the compulsory schooling obligation this group amounts to 0.16%². On the other hand, if the point of

¹ K. Gmaj, K. Iglicka, B. Walczak, *Dzieci uchodźcze w polskiej szkole. Wyzwania systemu edukacji dla integracji i rynku pracy*, Warsaw, WN SCHOLAR 2013, pp. 32–33.

² Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Poland, Warsaw, GUS 2017, pp. 128, 207 and 223.

reference is only a group of students with special educational needs, this index amounts to 0.4% only. Such slight numbers in the context of the overall population have, unfortunately, their negative consequences. The problem is rarely discussed, marginalised and even trivialised. This is usually the case until the moment a class or a school accepts a child with whom the teachers have to undertake cooperation. Then it turns out that their preparation is slight, and the issues of cultural and religious differences are difficult to overcome; what is more, the lack of possibility of efficient communication with a child and his/ her family is a grave problem, along with psychological, emotional and adaptation problems. The first step to initiate cooperation with a student is the recognition of his/ her educational needs.

In line with the analyses performed by Krystyna Bleszyńska³, educational needs of pupils from foreign families revolve around four co-existing problem areas:

- cultural idiosyncrasy of students and the cultural diversity of the school class resulting from it;
- operation of the school, problems resulting from cultural diversity of students;
- competence of teachers or, more adequately, the sense of helplessness and lack of competence with respect to work with a culturally diverse group;
- needs in the area of support both for students, their families and teachers in daily cooperation.

B. Skalbania writes in detail about the needs of foreign children and their families⁴, noting that in the greatest degree they refer to: financial assistance, additional Polish language classes and information about the Polish culture, psychological support, as well as access to translators and lawyers.

³ K.M. Bleszyńska, *Dzieci obcokrajowców w polskich placówkach oświatowych – perspektywa szkoły*, Warsaw, ORE 2010, p. 9.

⁴ B. Skalbania, *Dziecko z rodziny migracyjnej w systemie oświaty. Materiał informacyjny dla dyrektorów szkół i rad pedagogicznych*, Warsaw, ORE 2017, p. 44.

These analyses show the specific barriers in the education of foreign students in Poland. They include, apart from linguistic, cultural and religious barriers, also stereotypes and ethnic and racial prejudice, as well as lack of competence and understanding for the specific nature of educational problems of foreign children. This specific nature refers to the determinants of adaptation of foreign children to the new living conditions, including education. One of the main such determinants is the fact of severance of personal biographies, often a trauma related to the decision about migration and a cultural shock experienced in the new place of stay. K. Oberg defines the cultural shock as a disruption in the psychosomatic functioning caused by extended contact with a different, unknown culture, as well as perception of significant differences in functioning in native and new culture. This is accompanied by fear and disorganisation resulting from lack of familiarity with behaviour and expectations of the new cultural environment. Well-known situations acquire a new meaning, familiar and comprehensible codes of conduct are absent. The experience has a sudden and unpleasant nature and may adversely affect a person's self-image⁵. This has its consequences for the functioning in a new environment, interpersonal relations which are defeated in confrontation with an earlier, idealised image of the new country. The feeling of disappointment appears, in particular in a situation of defence, attempt to preserve own culture and values of the group of origin.

There are numerous voices, especially in countries that accept emigrants or refugees, that indicate that the newcomers should become culturally assimilated with the country in which they reside and this is not always simple and does not always comply with the expectations of foreigners. Furthermore, such stance is inconsistent with the basic human rights guaranteed in key international documents pertaining to fundamental rights of people.

⁵ K. Oberg, quoted according to: E. Zalewska, *Sytuacja wychowawcza i edukacyjna dzieci uchodźców w Polsce*, in: *Kryzys migracyjny. Perspektywa pedagogiczno-psychologiczna*, U. Markowska-Manista, B. Pasamoniuk (ed.), vol. II, Warsaw, WAPS 2017, pp. 100–101.

In this place, it is worth differentiating between the concept of integration and assimilation in the context of the discussed problem. A. Grzymała-Kozłowska⁶ notes that assimilation is related to the lack of tolerance for the immigrants' distinctiveness and may be even coupled with symbolic, political and institutional violence, the purpose of which is, in fact, depriving them of their own culture. It is combined with a policy of eliminating minority cultures and assuming that immigrants would abandon their ethnic/ cultural identity as a certain compensation for the assistance and support that was given to them. This concept is contradictory to integration, the basis of which is a pluralist and multi-cultural approach, emphasizing preservation of own identity and culture by immigrants.

Determinants of Education of Foreign Children in Poland

Legal situation of foreign children in the context of educational activities, in line with the provisions of the Polish act Law on School Education⁷ and provisions pertaining to the education of persons who are not Polish citizens⁸, encompasses a compulsory schooling obligation up to 18 years of age, use of educational system facilities upon the same rights as in the case of Polish citizens. However, the fact whether the Polish system of education satisfies the needs of students and their families in this respect not only in a declarative dimension and in the realm of provisions in the Law on School Education, but also in reference to daily practice is of major importance.

⁶ A. Grzymała-Kozłowska, „Integracja” – próba rekonstrukcji, [in:] *Problemy integracji imigrantów. Koncepcje, badania, polityki*, Warsaw, Wydawnictwo UW 2008, p. 29.

⁷ Law on School Education of 14 December 2016, Polish Journal of Laws [Dz. U.] of 2017, item 59, p. 949.

⁸ Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 9 September 2016 on education of persons who are not Polish citizens and persons who are Polish citizens and who were educated in schools operating in the educational system of other states, Polish Journal of Laws [Dz. U.] of 2016, item 1453, regulation amending the above regulation of 23 August 2017, Polish Journal of Laws [Dz. U.] of 2017, item 1655.

Foreign students are described as displaying special educational needs. In line with the provisions of the regulation of the Minister of National Education, they constitute one of several groups of students which should be covered by psychological and pedagogical assistance⁹. Nevertheless, when one thinks about groups of students with special educational needs in Poland, foreign students are rarely their representatives. According to the studies performed by W. Baranowska and M. Kosiorek¹⁰, the marginal presence of immigrant students in Polish schools results in the fact that the teachers treat the problem of social inclusion of immigrant students as hypothetical and unreal. In effect, consideration of methods and tools of integration is limited not so much to the essence of support focused on the student's needs, but to simple, typical and often ostensible activities such as sports picnics, music events, etc.

This greatly resembles the experience of social integration of students with disabilities, described in academic literature from the beginning of the twenty first century, which seems to have been tackled, at least partially. It is straightforwardly called an "ostensible integration"¹¹ i.e. integration where a person does not establish social ties with other people, does not have the feeling of affiliation to a social group, does not encounter acceptance and an opportunity of fulfilling standards adopted in a given community. This type of integration in reality means isolation. At that time, in reference to persons with disabilities, activities were undertaken under the slogan of social integration; they were exemplified by joint picnics,

⁹ Regulation of the Ministry of National Education of 9 March 2017 on the principles of organising psychological and pedagogical assistance in public kindergartens, schools and institutions, Polish Journal of Laws [Dz. U.] of 25 August 2017, item 1519.

¹⁰ W. Baranowska, M. Kosiorek, *Uczniowie Imigranci – wyzwanie dla narodowej edukacji w perspektywie doświadczeń z projektu "Portfolio of Integration" (POI)*, Przegląd Badań Edukacyjnych No. 18 (1/2014), pp. 236-237.

¹¹ Inter alia: T. Żółkowska, *Wyrównywanie szans społecznych osób z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną. Uwarunkowania i obszary*, Szczecin, Oficyna INPlus 2004, p. 287; A. Krause, *współczesne paradygmaty pedagogiki specjalnej*, Kraków, Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls 2010, pp. 160-163.

school recitals, performances of artistic groups composed of students with disabilities, etc. A. Krauze writes, in reference to integration of persons with disabilities, about a strong current of “assimilating the disabled persons” with the majority with the aim of minimising individual disability. The author indicates that in spite of slogans about acceptance of diversity, the main place in educational practice was taken up by the problem of adjustment, consisting in depriving the students with development disorders of the greatest number of attributes of disability and acquisition of the greatest number of attributes of ability¹². Thus, this was more of an attempt at assimilation than social integration. After years of experiences, there are no doubts that such activities are not efficient, and may even be detrimental in the dimension of personal and individual trajectories of a man’s development. When looking at the determinants of inclusive activities with respect to foreign children and their families, it seems that there is a danger of repeating the same mistakes as in the case of children with disabilities.

Another problem is the fact that the Polish schools rarely analyse and reflect on the level of integration of a group of students or perform a diagnosis focused on the level of social integration. More frequently, an approach is adopted where a student who differs from the group is singled out and repair activities with respect to him/ her are commenced. Thus, this shows the approach relying more on the diagnosis of deficits (i.e. a negative diagnosis), which still persists in Polish schools, and potential intervention, rather than creation of conditions of efficient education for all students, modification of the *status quo* and organisation of education. Such approach does not trigger thinking in the category of a community, perceiving diversity as an advantage, a value, but more as an individual problem and a difficulty that has to be faced and overcome.

This mode of thinking may lead to double marginalisation of students with special educational needs, in particular those who – as in the case of foreign students – constitute a small representation in the group of students with special educational needs. Additional-

¹² A. Krauze, 2010, p. 162.

ly, the situation of foreign students is aggravated by territorial diversity of emigrants on the map of Poland and also the absence of a possibility of efficient recognition of their needs on account of the language barrier, and frequent cultural barriers.

The greatest educational challenge with respect to foreign students seems to be aiming for their fullest and best integration with the society. Activities are focused on formation of competence and potential support in the process of adaptation to the new living environment.

In recent years, the problem of emigration has become one of the key issues in the area of the European Union. In the EU, there are two models of educating foreign children: separation and integration. The separation model assumes at least one-year separate education in separate classes with the aim of mastering the language of the country of residence in a sufficient degree at least, which is meant to enable active participation in compulsory school classes. This model is implemented in Germany, Romania and the Netherlands.¹³ The integration model, applicable in Poland, and also in Ireland, Italy and Scotland¹⁴, assumes joint education from the very beginning with additional classes devoted to the language of the country of residence. Simultaneously, the Polish system of education provides students with a possibility of attending additional remedial classes if they need assistance in this respect. Classes may be organised for individual students or groups in a dimension of one hour per week per subject, however not more than 5 hours per week¹⁵. Legal regulations also indicate the necessity of adjusting the process and organisation of education to the needs and the potential of such students (Art. 165.16. 2 of the Law on School Education). Additional Polish language classes are free and organised by an authority operating the facility (school). To this aim, a preparatory

¹³ K. Gmaj, K. Iglicka, B. Walczak, *Dzieci uchodźcze w polskiej szkole. Wyzwania systemu edukacji dla integracji i rynku pracy*, Warsaw, WN SCHOLAR 2013, p. 10.

¹⁴ *Ibidem*, p. 10.

¹⁵ Regulation of the Ministry of National Education of 23 August 2017, § 19.

division may be organised in the school, where students learn in line with the core curriculum of general education. Students are accepted in such division at the parents' request and upon approval of the managing authority; students from other facilities are also allowed to attend it. Duration of education in a preparatory division ends at the moment of completion of instruction during a school year in which the student was qualified to it. It is possible to shorten the time of education in a preparatory division in a situation when the student has mastered Polish in a degree sufficient to fulfil educational tasks in an ordinary class of a general school, but it may also be extended, however not more than for another year of education. It is also possible to hire assistance for the teacher in the form of a person speaking the native language of the student, however not longer than for a period of 12 months.¹⁶ It is worth drawing attention to the fact that even if the indicated solutions secure the education of students at school in a formal and legal aspect, there are no adjustments of this type and no support at the stage of pre-school education. Thus, either foreign children do not attend pre-school facilities in Poland or, if they do, the facility deciding to accept a foreign child has to independently look for the possibility of supporting him/ her outside of the system.

Review of Results of Studies on the Educational Situation of Foreign Children in Poland: Challenges for Inclusive Education

Studies performed by K. Bleszyńska as part of the *Edukacja wobec wyzwań migracyjnych* project ["Education with Respect to Migration Challenges"]¹⁷ show the main problem areas with respect to the conduct of instruction.

¹⁶ Law on School Education, Art. 165, section 7-13.

¹⁷ K.M. Bleszyńska, *ibidem* 2010.

In the first place, the headmasters of facilities which are attended by foreign children noted that the presence of a foreign student is perceived as a challenge that the school has to tackle. This is the standpoint of 60% of headmasters.¹⁸ Among major problems the headmasters of facilities listed:

- access to translators: over 74% of headmasters of analysed facilities (over 160 schools) stated that needs in this respect are not fulfilled;
- access to psychologists and cultural advisers: in case of 55% of facilities it was insufficient;
- access to training materials: over 44% of respondents indicated absence of training materials and
- cooperation with other institutions taking care of immigrants and refugees – in almost 59% of cases, the cooperation turned out to be unsatisfactory¹⁹.

Teachers participating in the study listed the following aspects in the realm of problems²⁰:

- language problems and difficulties with communication: almost 60% (59.5%) and additionally, in line with the opinion of almost 18% (17.6%) of teachers such problems appear at least sometimes;
- problems with understanding the instructed content: 70% (68.9%) and almost 14% (13.6%) sometimes;
- problems with understanding and fulfilling school expectations: 50% (50.4%) and 27% (27.1%) sometimes;
- problems with understanding Polish culture and customs: 45% (44.7%) and 27% (26.5%) sometimes;
- problem of inadequate behaviour acquired in the country of origin: almost 41% (40.6%) and 27% (27.3%) sometimes;
- problems in peer relations: 25% and 45.3% sometimes;
- problems in relations with teachers: 25% and 23.3% (23.3%) sometimes;

¹⁸ K.M. Bleszyńska, 2010, p. 25.

¹⁹ K.M. Bleszyńska 2010, pp. 40–41.

²⁰ Ibidem, p. 58–60.

- problems related to religious practice in the area of the school: 20% and 16% sometimes.

Teachers and headmasters in principle concur with respect to the main problem areas as far as work with foreign students is concerned. In the first place, the possibility of efficient communication is mentioned. This refers not only to the language barrier, but also diverse *habitus*.

In line with P. Bourdieu's concept, efficiency of pedagogical work with foreign children depends on the distance that separates the *habitus* which is enforced and the *habitus* that was ingrained via earlier educational activities and the child's family of origin²¹. The difference between the *habitus* of foreign students and requirements and expectations of Polish teachers is usually very significant. As noted by K. Gmaj, K. Iglicka, and B. Walczak, teachers expect that parents of students would support them in the process of teaching and motivating children. Unfortunately, this is often not the case²².

As far as education of foreign students is concerned, not only the approach to support for students aimed at making them efficiently adapted to life in a new country is important, but also the fact that teachers are active participants of the process of support. On the other hand, I. Czerniejewska's studies show that teachers do not always feel comfortable in the presence of foreign students; their discomfort results from lack of knowledge about the child's culture and the possibility of planning integration activities related to it²³.

As noted by E. Śmiechowska-Petrovskij²⁴ efficient support for foreign students can take place only when teachers cooperating

²¹ P. Bourdieu, Reprodukcyjna. Elementy teorii systemu nauczania, translated by E Neyman, Warsaw, WN PWN 2006, p. 154.

²² K. Gmaj, K. Iglicka, B. Walczak, 2013, p. 11.

²³ I. Czerniejewska, 2008, p. 251, quoted according to: K. Gmaj, K. Iglicka, B. Walczak, 2013, p. 29.

²⁴ E. Śmiechowska-Petrovskij, *Program kształcenia nauczycieli w zakresie wspierania uczniów z trudnościami adaptacyjnymi (uchodźców, cudzoziemców, reemigrantów). Założenia i ewaluacja*, [in:] *Kryzys migracyjny. Perspektywa pedagogiczno-psychologiczna*, U. Markowska-Manista, B. Pasamoniuk (ed.), vol. II, Warsaw, WAPS 2017, pp. 16–19.

with them have proper competence allowing them to understand the specific nature of the student's functioning and the student's behaviour; this will only be possible when at the stage of professional preparation they accomplish competence in the area of inter-cultural and multi-cultural education. The results of studies show that perception of foreign students depends on the experiences and primarily the knowledge of teachers. Unfortunately, it turns out that it is slight, both in the context of the specific nature of functioning of the child as such, as well as the culture of the child's origin²⁵. It also turns out that in the case of supporting pupils with adaptation difficulties, and foreign students definitely constitute such a group, teachers should possess competence exceeding the inter-cultural competence and pertain to work in culturally heterogeneous groups. Meanwhile, such competence is not properly formed as part of the offer of directional education. This is not the problem only of Polish universities. Śmiechowska-Petrovskij, referring to the analyses in other countries in this respect, notes that content pertaining to the work with culturally different students is represented in a slight degree in the teaching programmes for teachers.

Another issue analysed in the studies on the determinants of education of foreign students pertains to peer stances. In Błęszyńska's studies, teachers spoke about this issue²⁶. In line with the studies, the respondents most frequently indicated positive stances. Over 80% (80.8%) of teachers often and very often observe kindness in the attitude of students; 71.6% perceive willingness to offer assistance, 74.8% curiosity, 64.8% inclusion of foreign students in own activities/ games, 63.1% cooperation. However, negative stances and approaches also appear. They mainly include distance: behaviour of this type is noticed very often and often by 17% and sometimes by 46.1% of teachers. A large group of Polish students remains indifferent towards their foreign peers. This stance appears

²⁵ E. Nowicka, T. Halik, W. Poleć, *Dziecko wietnamskie w polskiej szkole*, Warsaw, Wydawnictwo ProLog 2006; E. Januszewska, *Dziecko czeczeńskie w Polsce*, Toruń, Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek 2010.

²⁶ K.M. Błęszyńska 2010, pp. 60–61.

very often and often according to almost 10% (9.3%) of teachers; it is sometimes observed by 35% (34.9%) of respondents. Sometimes, such stances are also characterised by fear - 22.1%, reluctance - 23.4%, discriminatory behaviour - 14.8%, verbal aggression - 15%, physical aggression 12.5%, and mobbing - 8.5%.

The study results indicate that greatest problems in the context of integration of foreign students pertain to²⁷: participation in the work of a student board: 46.8% of teachers point out to the low level of integration; participation in the activities of children's and youth organisations: 40%; participation in school events: 27%; cooperation during extracurricular classes: 20.2%. On the other hand, highest indices refer to: participation of foreign students in sports games: 39.2%, friendship with Polish students: 36.5% and cooperation during school classes: 31.5%.

Another problem which teachers encounter is the cooperation with the parents of foreign students. According to Bleszyńska's studies, 29% of foreign parents do not come to parents' meetings, almost 20% (18.2%) do not accept invitations for individual meetings at school, over a half (56.7%) of parents refuse individual meetings in the child's home. Parents of foreign children are rarely involved in the life of a school. 48% of teachers indicated absence of initiatives of this type. Cooperation with other parents is an even greater problem. It is not initiated in the opinion of 49% of teachers. Approx. 1/4 of teachers claim that foreign parents are not interested in the child's school education and work on school obligations together with the child. Almost 1/3 of parents do not cooperate with the school and teachers, over 1/3 do not understand the school expectations and requirements²⁸. The cause of problems in relations with the students' parents may be limited knowledge of the Polish language, coupled with the feeling of separation, and lack of understanding for the educational reality of the Polish school. There is no doubt that foreign parents whose children are covered by the com-

²⁷ Ibidem, p. 62.

²⁸ Ibidem, pp. 68-71.

pulsory schooling obligation in Poland need support in the process of social integration in the same degree as the students.

In the area of support for didactic and educational work, the teachers – based on the performed studies – are most interested in²⁹.

- exchange of experiences with other teachers working with foreign students: 85%
- methodological guidebooks: 80.7%
- cooperation with a psychologist: 80.5%
- in-service training dedicated to the problems in didactic and educational work with foreign students: 73.2%
- consultations with specialists: 77.4%.

Recapitulation

Promotion of the concept of inclusive education forms a part of modern tendencies designated by the process of social integration of communities that are becoming increasingly diverse, showing various needs related to the process of individual development, as well as social processes, including the phenomenon of migration. The core of educational inclusion which, logically speaking, should become the basis for activities and social stances, is to counteract exclusion and marginalisation on account of diversity in its broadest meaning. Diversity perceived as a value and not as an obstacle in social development of communities is an opportunity to develop stances of respect, acceptance and co-existence, with simultaneous recognition of obvious individual differences. To make this process run smoothly, the support for a student who temporarily or permanently needs assistance in development and adaptation to social living conditions, cannot leave a mark. It should run smoothly and should not stigmatise a student as dependent, failing to handle problems, inferior. Support in inclusive education should therefore refer to the largest group of students possible, in line with the con-

²⁹ Ibidem, pp. 80–81.

viction that in principle most students, at a certain stage of their development, experience a situation where they could or should seek assistance. Support should no longer be associated with an intervention, a crisis and should become a sign of self-acceptance, self-awareness and striving for the maximum use of the predisposition and development potential. This will require a change in defining the concept of special educational needs. Hitherto focus on difficulties and inability to, e.g., fulfil the curricular requirements of education, should give place to indication of necessary adjustment of conditions and educational requirements, resulting from the programme of kindergarten education, the teaching programme, conditions of education and organisation of education. However, it has to be based on a functional diagnosis of needs which does not overlook any students and is focused on careful observation, the basis of which should be comprehensive knowledge about the conditions of the student's development and educational and social functioning.

Bibliography

- Baranowska W., Kosiorek M., *Uczniowie Imigranci – wyzwanie dla narodowej edukacji w perspektywie doświadczeń z projektu "Portfolio of Integration" (POI)*, Przegląd Badań Edukacyjnych No. 18 (1/2014).
- Bourdieu P., *Reprodukcja. Elementy teorii systemu nauczania*, translated by E Neyman, Warsaw, WN PWN 2006.
- Gmaj K., Iglicka K., Walczak B., *Dzieci uchodźcze w polskiej szkole. Wyzwania systemu edukacji dla integracji i rynku pracy*, Warsaw, WN SCHOLAR 2013.
- Grzymała-Kozłowska A., „Integracja” – próba rekonstrukcji, in: *Problemy integracji imigrantów. Koncepcje, badania, polityki*, Warsaw, Wydawnictwo UW 2008.
- Januszewska E., *Dziecko czeczeńskie w Polsce*, Toruń, Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek 2010.
- Krause A., *Współczesne paradygmaty pedagogiki specjalnej*, Kraków, Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls 2010.
- Nowicka E., Halik T., Poleć W., *Dziecko wietnamskie w polskiej szkole*, Warsaw, Wydawnictwo ProLog 2006.
- Regulation of the Ministry of National Education of 9 March 2017 on the principles of organising psychological and pedagogical assistance in public kindergartens,

- schools and institutions, Polish Journal of Laws [Dz. U.] of 25 August 2017, item 1519.
- Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 9 September 2016 on education of persons who are not Polish citizens and persons who are Polish citizens and who were educated in schools operating in the educational system of other states, Polish Journal of Laws [Dz. U.] of 2016, item 1453.
- Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 9 September 2016 on education of persons who are not Polish citizens and persons who are Polish citizens and who were educated in schools operating in the educational system of other states of 23 August 2017, Polish Journal of Laws [Dz. U.] of 2017, item 1655.
- Skalbania B., *Dziecko z rodziny migracyjnej w systemie oświaty. Materiał informacyjny dla dyrektorów szkół i rad pedagogicznych*, Warsaw, ORE 2017.
- Śmiechowska-Petrovskij E., *Program kształcenia nauczycieli w zakresie wspierania uczniów z trudnościami adaptacyjnymi (uchodźców, cudzoziemców, reemigrantów). Założenia i ewaluacja*, [in:] *Kryzys migracyjny. Perspektywa pedagogiczno-psychologiczna*, U. Markowska-Manista, B. Pasamoniuk (ed.), vol. II, Warsaw, WAPS 2017.
- Law on School Education of 14 December 2016, Journal of Laws [Dz. U.] of 2017, item 59, 949.
- Zalewska E., *Sytuacja wychowawcza i edukacyjna dzieci uchodźców w Polsce*, [in:] *Kryzys migracyjny. Perspektywa pedagogiczno-psychologiczna*, U. Markowska-Manista, B. Pasamoniuk (ed.), vol. II, Warsaw, WAPS 2017.
- Żółkowska T., *Wyrównywanie szans społecznych osób z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną. Uwarunkowania i obszary*, Szczecin, Oficyna INPlus 2004.



TERESA SERAFIN

University of Social Sciences

Information & Co-ordination Point for Persons with Disabilities (PIKON) as a form of information support aimed at improving the quality of life of persons with disabilities and their families

ABSTRACT: Teresa Serafin, *Information & Co-ordination Point for Persons with Disabilities (PIKON) as a form of information support aimed at improving the quality of life of persons with disabilities and their families*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 97-117. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.05>

This article presents, initiatives undertaken by social organizations and the office of the Capital City of Warsaw in order to improve the quality of life of persons with disabilities and their families. These initiatives concern, among others, continuation of activities of the education system in the field of equalling the chances of students with disabilities by institutions performing tasks in the field of various areas of social policy, including those supporting the professional and personal functioning of adults. One of the directions of fulfilment of this goal is the creation of an information and coordination point to support adults with disabilities in solving their problems, e.g., by providing information on possible participation in social rehabilitation and/or employment in an open, supported or protected labour market.

KEY WORDS: disability, needs, social policy, cooperation, providing support, informing about possibilities

Introduction

For many years, the structure of social populations has been subject to demographic changes. They result, for example, in the prolongation of the average length of human life and a drop in national population growth, which create challenges for each sphere of social life. Also the individual and social identity of the human being¹ has an impact on self-identification, the formation of relationships, the establishment of co-operation, acceptance and tolerance. According to theories being promoted by social and human sciences, the co-existence of various social groups according to the principle of equal rights and obligations should be treated as an indisputable value. In order to fulfil this condition, entities responsible for the implementation of social policy of our country² should implement preventive measures on the commune, county and province level. These measures may include:

- recognising the needs of inhabitants, including persons with special needs, according to the developmental age,
- elaborating a cohesive long-term and interministerial strategy considering the participation of all groups of inhabitants in social life (with special regard to groups of disadvantaged persons) and ensuring the co-ordination of these activities,

¹ The concept of identity occurs in the context of two relationships that are the most important for the human being: the attitude to himself/herself and the attitude to other people, which means both culture and tradition. It indicates a special type of relationship that connects an individual with himself – self-identity (his/her own psychophysical and moral condition) on the one hand and his/her relationship with others on the other hand. This relationship is based on (more or less) conscious attitudes towards himself and other persons, which means both culture and tradition. (on the basis of the book: Galdowa Anna (ed.) *Psychology of personality. Human identity (Psychologia osobowości. Tożsamość człowieka)*. Wydawnictwo UJp, Kraków 2000).

² The implementation of social policy of our country is the responsibility of both central and local government offices at each management level (which means also local government units acting in the role of authorities in charge of kindergartens, schools and institutions) and ministerial institutions having an impact on the support of human health and personal development.

- providing support to families having at least one person with disability by means of a family assistant³,
- creating conditions for the education of children and young people with disabilities in schools located closest to their place of residence,
- continuing systemic and interministerial multi-specialist activities addressed to persons with disabilities and their families (e.g., by supporting the development of a network of supported flats providing round-the-clock help to adults with disabilities and therapeutic flats allowing these persons to become more independent in friendly and adapted conditions, helping the family to establish social co-operatives, and providing easier access to lifelong learning for persons with disabilities and graduates of schools for young people).

Within the scope of systemic activities addressed to persons with disabilities, it is also necessary to ensure: a) health care and broad-range medical aid as indicated by their condition and the financing of these activities from the National Health Fund (deciding on the scope of preventive health care, treatment and rehabilitation), b) social rehabilitation and social aid to their family organised by social welfare centres acting under the ministry of social security, c) the liquidation of architectural barriers and the provision of access to a system of services compensating for functional limitations and enabling children, young people and adults with disabilities to live a fully independent life in their environment by the State Fund for the Rehabilitation of the Disabled.

³ The Resolution No. 160 of the Council of Ministers of 20 December 2016 regarding the comprehensive family support programme “Pro Life” is published in Monitor Polski item 1250. The introduction to programme assumptions reads: “The support of disabled persons and their families is a priority task of the state that requires multi-aspect activities to be undertaken. ... Thus, support activities of the state should be addressed to the entire family. Disability affects many areas of family life, including the family’s financial, social or health situation. Legal and organisational and financial solutions adopted under the programme are aimed at creating the possibility of real and full social integration of disabled persons and psychological, social, functional and economic support to their families”.

In 2016, the Ministry of Family, Labour and Social Policy introduced new laws in which one of the leading tasks is to provide rehabilitation and supporting aid to families of persons with disabilities by providing them with time for rest (respite care) and, in the case of a fortuitous event, to help them in the handling of everyday issues or the participation of the given family member in professional activation organised by the county labour office and the taking-up of full-time or part-time employment by the given family member. The essence of aid addressed to persons with autism spectrum disorders and multiple disabilities is, among others, to enlarge access to institutional forms of support to a larger group of people and to develop a network of homes of mutual aid. An important part of the support system is also the establishment of county co-ordination & rehabilitation & care centres encompassing the early support of the development of children aged 0 to 7 years and persons with disabilities. The aim of this solution is to reinforce existing forms of help and to co-ordinate the activity of various institutions functioning in the county.

Another goal of theoreticians and practitioners specialising in education should be to elaborate consistent legal regulations guaranteeing the provisions of adequate support to small children and schoolchildren with diagnosed special educational needs due to their disability and to adults through co-operating systems of education, health and social policy. As a result of such an approach, local government authorities may notice and satisfy the needs of all inhabitants without ignoring any group and it may be easier to create conditions for equal opportunities of persons with disabilities. In this context, an important social task is also to enable persons with diagnosed disability or degree of disability⁴ and with diagnosed

⁴ Decisions on disability or a degree of disability are issued by a county assessment board acting pursuant to the Act of 27 August 1997 on professional and social rehabilitation and employment of disabled persons (i.e., Dz. U. from 2016, item 2046). Obtaining such a decision/diagnosis means the legal confirmation of the status of the given person as a disabled person and entitles him/her to receive benefits or privileges, such as tax discounts, disability benefits, discount travels, partici-

special educational needs⁵ to decide about their life and/or to authorise another person to help in solving their problems.

That was also, among others, the purpose of activities undertaken by non-governmental organisations associated with the Warsaw Forum of Initiatives for Persons with Intellectual Disability (WFIRONI), which proposed the continuation of activities conducted for school-children with disability under the education system and the provision of support to school graduates in solving problems of adult life to the Project and Social Welfare Department. Initiatives undertaken by social organisations were recognised by the office and, in 2016, the Project and Social Welfare Department of the Municipal Office of the Capital City of Warsaw launched a competition for non-governmental organisations for the implementation of a social task the context of which resulted from *Priority I. Warsaw Programme of Activities for Disabled Persons for the years 2010–2020*. The subject-matter of the competition was: The use of an information system for the improvement of the quality of life of persons with disabilities and their families. This paper presents tasks being performed by a social organisation that won the competition and made an attempt to support adults with disability and to help them solve legal, organisational and social and professional rehabilitation problems.

pation in occupational therapy workshop activities, a daycare social welfare home or a round-the-clock social welfare home. Conclusion: the said decision/diagnosis may be issued at the request of the person concerned, his/her statutory representative or (subject to the consent of the person concerned or his/her representative) at the request of a social welfare centre. The recommendations included in the decision serve as guidelines for activities related to the ongoing therapy and rehabilitation of the person with disability.

⁵ A decision on special educational needs is issued by assessment boards functioning in public psychological and pedagogical counselling centres. The said statement is issued for educational purposes and determines needs for special organisation of the educational & upbringing process and adaptation of the educational programme and methods and recommends necessary rehabilitation activities adequate to the needs of children and young people with sensory or intellectual disability or social rehabilitation activities for the socially maladjusted and social & therapeutic activities for persons endangered by social maladjustment in the relevant document.

1. Establishment of the Information & Co-ordination Point for Persons with Disability (PIKON)

The original plan of the Information & Co-ordination Point for Persons with Disability elaborated by WFIRONI concerned only the satisfaction of needs of graduates completing the education process in vocational schools, including special schools, in three-year job training schools for students with a moderate or significant degree of intellectual disability and persons with a deep degree of intellectual disability completing participation in remedial classes. In connection with the different scope of competition requirements, the first action plan was modified so that the consultation & information support of PIKON would include all groups of persons with disability residing in the Capital City of Warsaw, their families and legal guardians and so that representatives of public and non-public entities operating within the framework of social policy would be included in the provision of consultation, advice and help in solving problems. Thanks to information provided by PIKON, these entities can update and verify needs reported by interested persons, which is necessary for the satisfaction of needs of persons with disability. The main goals adopted for implementation by PIKON include:

- 1) dissemination of the offer of the city regarding the social and professional activation of persons with disabilities and their families/guardians through access to full information about social institutions and non-governmental organisations providing support,
- 2) identification of material and legislative resources available in the city (public institutions and institutions run by NGOs) that create the possibility of social and professional activation of persons with disability and their families/guardians,
- 3) sending of collective information to the Project and Social Welfare Department of the Municipal Office of the Council City of Warsaw by PIKON in the form of intermediate reports and the preparation of a report at the end of the pilot period,

- 4) consolidation of co-operation and communication between local and central government and non-governmental organisations functioning in the field of social policy in the city.

By the decision of the competition board, the pilot running of information & co-ordination activities from 1 July 2016 till 30 November 2018 was entrusted to the Foundation for the Support of the Disabled. The co-ordinator of the Project on behalf of the foundation became Dorota Koman, the function of PIKON Office Manager was entrusted to Barbara Szostak, and questions are answered by experts: Iwona Grzesińska, Lidia Klaro-Celej, Zofia Pągowska, Teresa Serafin, Anna Witarzewska.

Anyone who would like to use PIKON's help to solve his/her problems may visit: www.pikon.um.warszawa.pl. The website publishes answers to questions asked by interested persons by e-mail or during visits to PIKON. Answers are given by experts. The website contains also an e-mail address: kontakt@pikon.org.pl.

2. Method of data collection and fulfilment of goals by PIKON

The implementation of tasks of the Information & Co-ordination Point for Persons with Disability is carried out by PIKON's office in co-operation with experts.

In order for the goals to be achieved, a data collection and storage model⁶ has been planned. Data are to be collected in an IT database in the following layout: a) a set of local government and non-governmental entities; b) contact details (e-mail and phone number) of each entity, c) a description of activity having an impact on the solving of problems that are important from the user's viewpoint, in the following layout: type of institution, place of business, detailed address, district, superior institution, contact details, area,

⁶ The draft database in the MS access 2016 was elaborated by an IT expert Anna Pogorzelec.

type of activity addressed to disabled persons, additional identification data of the target group covered by the activity of the entity concerned.

For the purpose of establishing co-operation with social policy institutions and NGOs, information about PIKON was sent along with an invitation to co-operation to 300 entities. On that basis, PIKON's experts elaborated a catalogue of institutions and entities providing support to persons with disabilities and implementing certain problem tasks (social rehabilitation in Occupational Therapy Workshops, the Home of Mutual Aid, etc.). It was assumed that information given to interested persons by employees of PIKON's office might contribute to a better recognition of material resources available in the city, an improvement of co-operation between local government and non-governmental entities and the social and professional activity of persons with disabilities.

Table 1. Categories of personal needs reported by interested persons from July 2017 till 7 November 2017 on the basis of PIKON's database

Determination of categories of needs	Specific problems marked as subpoints
1. Lack of information and knowledge about	1.1 rights of persons with disabilities resulting from legal regulations or the neglectful approach of responsible institutions to the needs of these persons, 1.2 forms of support and rehabilitation to which persons with disabilities are entitled, 1.3 other forms of support, e.g. regarding the education system and the early support of development of small children, 1.4 PIKON's tasks and curiosity visit
2. Lack of employment, lack of help in looking for a job	2.1 lack of training courses adapted to the needs of persons with disabilities, 2.2 rejection of a disabled person as an employee by an employer, mobbing, 2.3 looking for a job relevant to the person's qualifications.

cont. tab. 1

Determination of categories of needs	Specific problems marked as subpoints
3. Lack of help in	3.1 daily functioning, shopping, 3.2 social functioning, e.g., by creating a support circle, 3.3 substantive support in solving current problems, 3.4 social security of persons with disabilities aged more than 25 years by aid institutions.
4. Adaptation of the nearest environment (building), (flat)	4.1 lack of knowledge about the possibility of getting help in the adaptation of the flat and/or building (lift, broad entrance) or the neglectful approach of responsible institutions to the ensuring of these rights, 4.2 lack of substantive aid in the settlement of problems of the housing community and other entities acting in the housing industry, 4.3 failure to remove architectural barriers by PFRON and to mark parking places for persons with disabilities.
5. Services and equipment for daily use:	5.1 rehabilitation equipment, artificial limbs, 5.2 rehabilitation services aimed at the improvement and maintenance of health.
6. Transport:	6.1 ensuring of permanent transport for rehabilitation, treatment, 6.2 provision of transport in emergency and occasional cases.
7. Lack of access to medical specialists:	7.1 very distant dates of appointments, 7.2 refusal to make an appointment, limited access to certain specialists (gynaecologist, dentist) or hospitals (only with a parent).
8. Financial difficulties:	8.1 lack of funds, medicines, 8.2 lack of funds for rehabilitation.
9. Deficiencies or gaps in decisions:	9.1 appeal periods as a limitation, 9.2 deficiencies in recommendations concerning social rehabilitation (e.g. occupational therapy workshops), 9.3 renewal or change of a decision (e.g. change in the assessment of the degree of disability).

cont. tab. 1

Determination of categories of needs	Specific problems marked as subpoints
10. Insufficient exercise of rights of persons with disabilities by relevant institutions:	10.1 failure to comply with legal provisions related to securing the fulfilment of needs of persons with disabilities, 10.2 assessment decisions that are wrong in the opinion of interested persons – lack of “securities” for persons with disabilities, 10.3 legal gaps, the lack of good will in institutions.
11. Lack of solutions and support tools:	11.1 referring to the functioning of persons with a significant degree of disability after guardians’ death, 11.2 determination of a permanent compulsory methodology of working with a pupil with disability.

Source: own work on the basis of PIKON’s database.

Activities supporting persons with disabilities and/or their families in solving problems are entered into the database according to the following criteria: age, sex, reported problems, method of intervention, type of information provided and/or the best method of solving the reported issue⁷. This allows these persons to talk about their problems honestly and openly. The type of advice and information and the method of consultation is covered by the regular documentation procedure.

On the basis of problems reported by persons with disabilities and collected in the database during the annual activity of PIKON, it became possible to identify the needs that are most often experienced by persons visiting the office and/or asking question by telephone or by e-mail. Categories of identified needs are presented in the table below.

⁷ Data are anonymised to protect the privacy of interested persons.

For the needs of data analysis and the transparency of its results, the categorisation of reasons and types of disability and recorded according to codes used in making assessments⁸. The following categories of disability have been adopted:

- 1) intellectual disability, defined by codes 01-U,12-C,
- 2) sensory (visual) disability, defined by codes 04-O,
- 3) sensory (auditory) disability, defined by codes 03-L,
- 4) motor disability, defined by codes 05-R,
- 5) mental disability, disorders on the level of the central nervous system, defined by codes 02-P, O6E,
- 6) disability connected with a fortuitous event (accident or disease in persons aged under 55 years), defined by codes 08-T, 09-M, 11-I, 09-M,
- 7) disability connected with the loss of health in persons aged more than 55 years, defined by codes 10-N, 07-S.

3. Description of persons seeking help from PIKON

In the period from July 2017 till 7 November 2017, 409 persons made use of PIKON's services (100%). Most of the persons from this group were more than 50 years' old. This means that the aforementioned group of persons is not aware of types of support and rehabilitation to which they are entitled, does not receive help in dealing with their life problems and comes across mental and architectural barriers. The picture of age groups of PIKON's Customers is presented on Chart 1.

The largest group of persons seeking help from PIKON were women – 221 (~54%), 180 persons (~44%) were men, and 8 persons (~2%) sending questions by e-mail did not specify their sex. The following Chart 2 shows the division of customers according to sex.

⁸ Ordinance of the Minister of Economy, Labour and Social Policy of 15 July 2003 on the assessment of disability and a degree of disability (Dz. U. 2015, item 110).

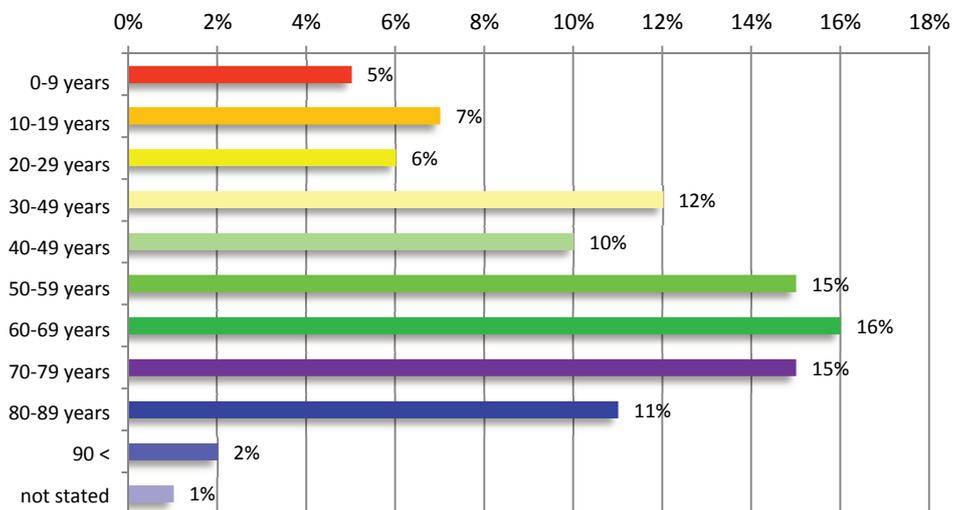


Chart 1. Persons who contact PIKON's office in order to seek help in solving their problems according to age groups

Source: own work on the basis of PIKON's database.

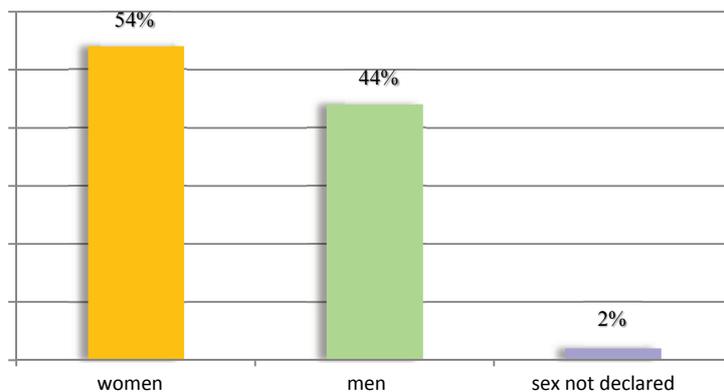


Chart 2. Division of customers according to sex

Source: work based on PIKON's database.

The largest group of persons (139) has obtained decisions from the county motor disability assessment board. The most frequently reported types of disability of PIKON's customers are shown on Chart 3.

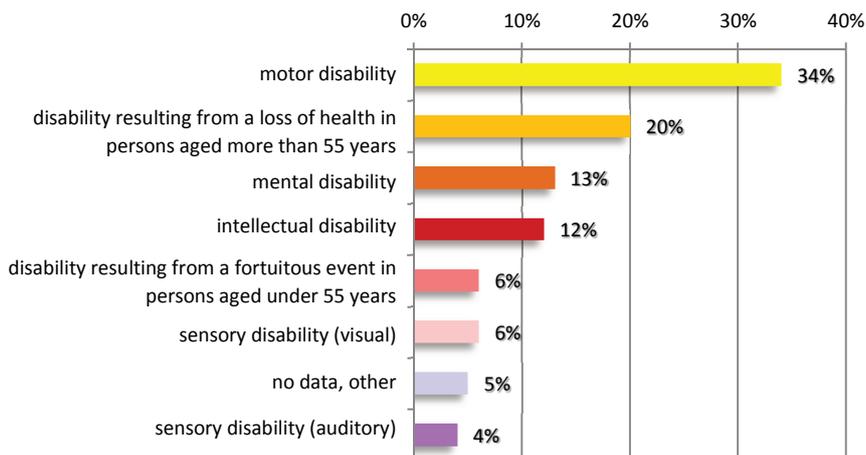


Chart 3. Types of disability reported by PIKON's Customers

Source: work based on the database.

Each type of disability presented on the chart generates a different scope of needs. The problems indicated most often by Customers are shown on Chart 4, where definitions marked with numbers from 1.2 to 9.1 refer to categories of persons identified in Table 1 of this work that were reported by PIKON's customers in the period from July 2017 till 7 November 2017.

The above chart shows that the most frequently reported problems indicated by more than 282 (69%) persons with disabilities were those from the scope of categories 1.1–1.3. This means that PIKON's customers are not aware of the rights of persons with disabilities to use various types of support and social and professional rehabilitation that are specified in applicable legal provisions.

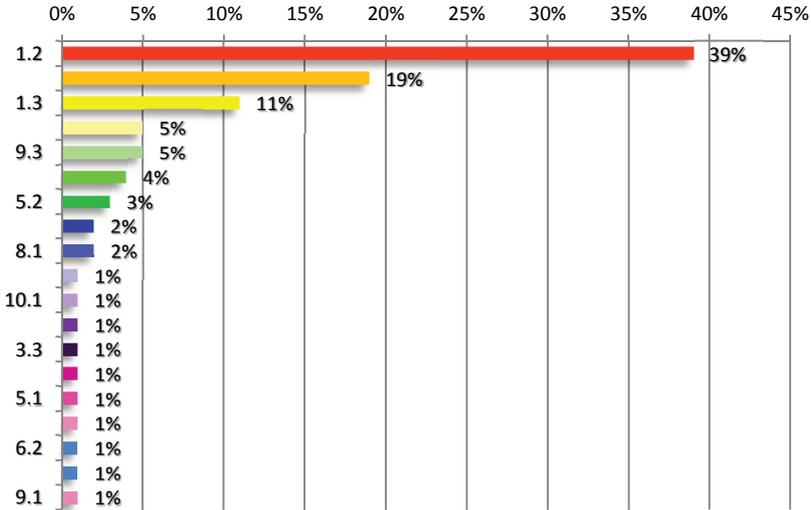


Chart 4. Problems indicated by PIKON’s customers; the left axis presents categories of needs

Source: work based on PIKON’s database.

4. Analysis of needs reported by selected groups of persons with disabilities

The largest group of PIKON’s customers is formed by persons with motor disability (34% out of 409 persons), who reported problems presented on Chart 5.

Altogether, 71% of persons with disabilities reported problems in obtaining knowledge and information about rights resulting from legal regulations, forms of support and rehabilitation and other forms of support, including the early support of children’s development (presented in reference 9). The problems reported by 5 persons (1%) in each category included: finding permanent transport for rehabilitation and treatment (Category 6.1), finding a new job because of rejection of this person as an employee by an employer

(Category 2.3), getting support in solving current problems (Category 3.3), removing architectural barriers and creating parking places (Category 4.3), overcoming formal errors of assessments contained in decisions concerning social rehabilitation (Category 9.2), obtaining new decisions or a change of previous decisions (Category 9.3) and help in negotiations with institutions that do not comply with legal provisions concerning the support of persons with disabilities (Category 10.1).

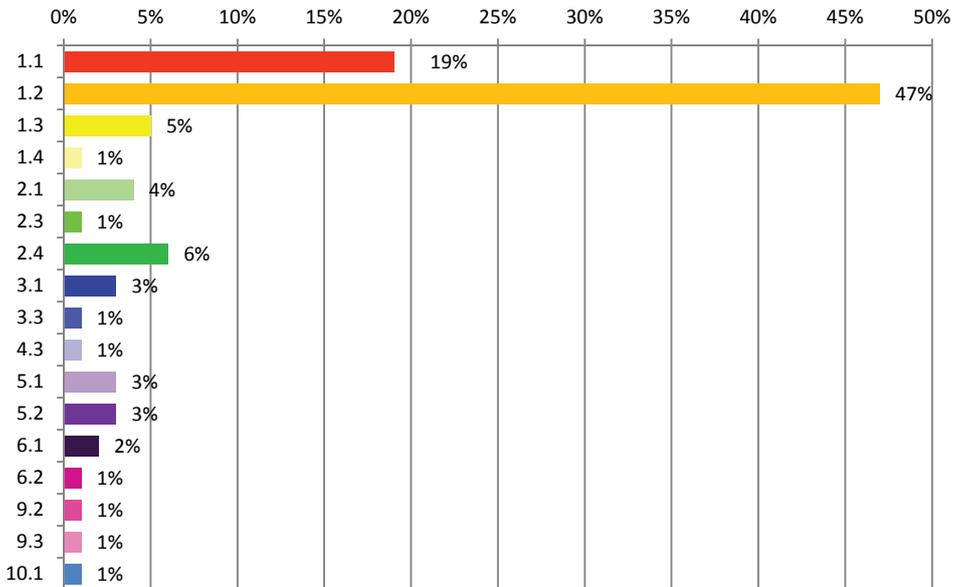


Chart 5. Needs reported by persons with motor disability

Source: work based on PIKON’s database⁹.

⁹ Key: the left axis of the chart presents categories of needs presented in Table 1. As a reminder, I will give an example of selected categories of needs reported by customers indicated on the vertical axis:

- Category 1.1 – 19% (78 persons) lack of knowledge about rights resulting from legal regulations,

The needs resulting from the unawareness of or the lack of knowledge about legal standards by persons with various disabilities specified in Category 1.1 were reported by persons from various disability groups, which is illustrated by Chart 6.

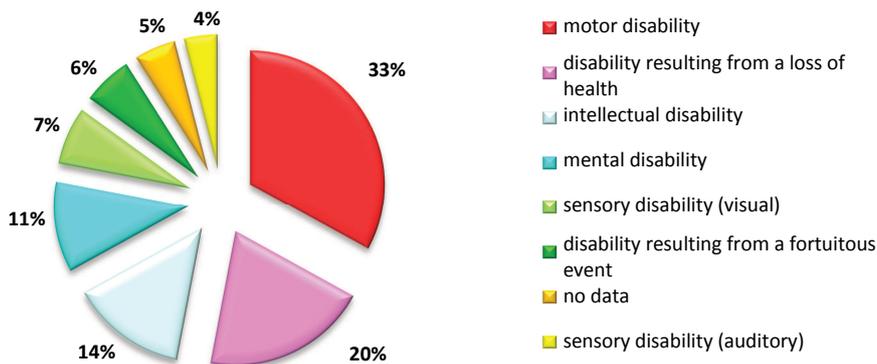


Chart 6. Types of disabilities of persons reporting the needs resulting from their lack of knowledge about legal provisions, on the basis of which they can obtain social support

Source: work based on PIKON's database.

-
- Category 1.2 - 47% (192 persons) lack of information and knowledge about forms of support and rehabilitation,
 - Category 1.3 - 6% (25 persons) problems related to seeking forms of support in the education system, the early support of development of small children,
 - Category 2.3 - 6% (25 persons) problems related to looking for a job relevant to the person's qualifications,
 - Category 2.1 - 4% (29 persons) lack of training courses for persons with disabilities,
 - Category 3.1 - 3% (12 persons) lack of help in daily functioning,
 - Category 5.1 - 3% (12 persons) lack of help in the provision of rehabilitation equipment and artificial limbs,
 - Category 5.2 - 3% (12 persons) lack of access to rehabilitation services,
 - Category 6.2 - 2% (8 persons) lack of help in the obtaining of transport in emergency cases.

A prevailing number of persons report the need for help in the clarification of legal provisions and support options resulting from them. Such needs were reported by 135 persons with motor disability (~ 33%), around 82 persons with disability resulting from the loss of health after 55 years of age (20%), around 57 persons with intellectual disability (~14%) and 45 persons with disability resulting from mental illness (~11%). The above needs were reported also by persons with sensory (visual and auditory) disabilities, including those who have become disabled because of a fortuitous event (less than 10%) and around 21 persons (~5%) did not disclose the type of their disability when asking questions by telephone.

Persons with intellectual disability reported the following problems most frequently:

- lack of knowledge about forms of support and rehabilitation available to them,
- lack of information about rights to receive social rehabilitation and various forms of support and problems in understanding recommendations contained in decisions and/or the need for change or issue of a new document confirming their disability. The problems indicated less frequently included: the lack of help in providing social security to persons under 25 years of age, the need to provide rehabilitation equipment, difficulties in the co-operation with institutions resulting from the inconsistency of legal provisions or the lack of good will on the part of institutions, in obtaining permanent transport for rehabilitation/treatment, the lack of money for a living or the purchase of medicines.

The analysis of categories of needs shows that the lack of knowledge about available rights specified in legal regulations is reported by 74% of persons with intellectual disability, 17% of persons with auditory disability and motor disability and 33% of persons who have become disabled as a result of a fortuitous event; (non-)compliance with legal provisions specifying the rules of issuing decisions on disability and/or unwillingness to provide support

by employees of family support centres are reported by 74% of persons with intellectual disability; the non-adaptation of the nearest environment is reported by 75% of persons with motor disability and 25% of persons with disability resulting from mental illness. The lack of legally established solutions providing support to persons who have become disabled after 55 years of age was reported by 100% of persons.

5. Establishment of co-operation with social policy institutions

496 entities (100%) operating in various areas of social policy, including NGOs (54%), public entities (44%) and private entities (2%) were invited to co-operate in providing information & co-ordination support and to help solve problems of persons seeking support from PIKON. Among these entities:

- 42% support persons with intellectual disability,
- 22% support persons with mental disability,
- 16% support persons with visual disability,
- 14% support persons with auditory disability,
- 6% support persons with motor disability.

The areas of social policy where entities co-operating with PIKON operate are shown on Chart 7.

The above chart shows that the most difficult thing for PIKON was to establish co-operation for the purpose of supporting person with disability with institutions operating in the field of information, social activation, care, rehabilitation and diagnosis. The easiest thing was to obtain support from entities operating in the education system.

During the period concerned (from July 2016 till 7 November 2017), PIKON's website was visited by 1,135 (100%) users with a Polish-language operating system, who created 1,663 sessions and viewed pages 5,930 times.

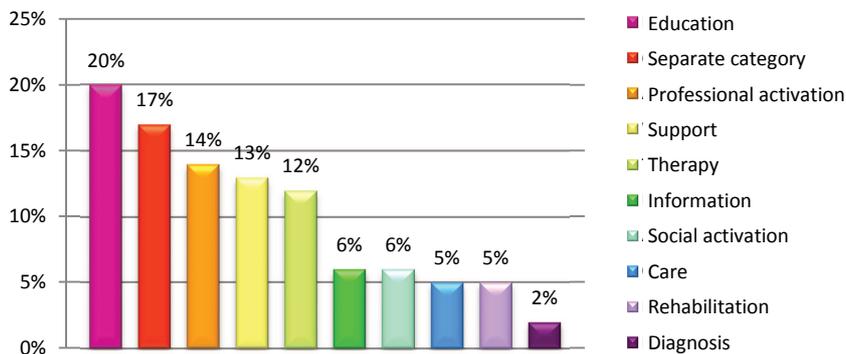


Chart 7. Areas of operation of institutions co-operating with PIKON in providing support to persons with disability

Source: elaboration based on PIKON's database.

New users accounted for 33.1%, and repeat visitors accounted for 66.9%. The website was visited, among others, by inhabitants of Poland (Warsaw, Toruń and Poznań) – 1,471 sessions (88.45%), inhabitants of the USA (Austin) – 69 sessions (4.15%) and inhabitants of Brazil (Parauapeba) – 58 sessions (3.49%).

Summary

The legal standards that have been valid in Poland for many years authorise local government authorities to make decisions on forms of activity aimed at the development of local communities. This area of competence includes also the provision of the following services to all inhabitants by communes, counties and provinces:

- education adapted to revalidation, social rehabilitation and other therapeutic activities as close as possible to the place of residence,
- provision of health care along with therapeutic and social rehabilitation,

- jobs on the open, supported and protected labour market and professional rehabilitation for persons completing school education,
- liquidation of architectural and other barriers,
- support of the development of children/pupils/students from kindergarten to primary and secondary education and the support of higher education,
- continued provision of benefits, including the provision of detailed information and professional support to families of persons with disabilities (e.g., with regard to social welfare, social benefits, special housing and, possibly, specialised care services to children and young people upon completion of school education and to adults who cannot live without another person's support).

The information about PIKON's activity presented in the paper shows that applicable legal provisions do not guarantee the commitment of authorities to their practical use and are not sufficient to obtain:

- knowledge about available forms of support by persons with disabilities, particularly because they are specified in various laws and ordinances,
- information about institutions helping persons with disabilities to solve their life problems,
- help in arrangement of transport, a medical visit or employment,
- information about social rehabilitation and other institutions.

The activity of the Information & Co-ordination Point for Persons with Disabilities (PIKON) shows that information support and the co-ordination of activities aimed at solving problems of persons reporting them can improve the quality of their life.

Even after this short period of functioning of PIKON (from July 2017 till 7 November 2017), we can notice that 11 categories of needs having a negative impact on the life of adults with disabilities have been separated (Table 1). These needs are also indicated by entities co-operating with PIKON who are interested in giving support to

selected groups of persons with disability. On this basis, we can conclude that these activities must be developed and continued. The interest in PIKON's website among inhabitants of the USA and Brazil shows that they can also find it difficult to obtain support in solving their life problems and look for hints about initiatives undertaken in other countries.

After the implementation of this programme is finished, a detailed report will be made; it will describe decisions concerning potential modifications of legal standards and recommendations for the compulsory support of adults with disabilities by all entities operating within the framework of social policy.

Bibliography

- Kosakowski Cz., Krauze A. (ed.) 2005, *Normalizacja środowisk życia osób niepełnosprawnych*, UW-M, Olsztyn.
- Zabłocki K.J., Gorajewska D. (ed.), 2004, *Pedagogika specjalna – kontynuacja tradycji dla przyszłości*. APS. Warszawa.
- Kołaczek B., 2010, *Polityka społeczna wobec osób niepełnosprawnych*, Instytut Pracy i Spraw Socjalnych, Warszawa.
- Resource of data collected in the PIKON's database.
- Act of 4 November 2016 on the support of pregnant women and families "Pro-Life" (Dz. U., item 1860).
- Act of 27 August 1997 on professional and social rehabilitation and employment of disabled persons (i.e., Dz. U. from 2016, item 2046).
- Act of 15 June 2012 on the ratification of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities elaborated in New York on 13 December 2006 (Dz. U., item 882).
- Act of 20 June 1992 on rights to discount on travel by means of public collective transport (i.e., Dz. U. from 2012, item 1138, as amended).
- Traffic Law Act of 20 June 1997 (Dz. U. from 2012, item 1137, as amended).
- Education Law Act of 14 December 2016 (Dz. U. from 2017, item 59).
- Act of 7 September 1991 on the education system (i.e., Dz. U. from 2017, item 2198)
- Ordinance of the Minister of Economy, Labour and Social Policy of 15 July 2003 on the assessment of disability and the degree of disability (Dz. U. from 2015, item 110).
- Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (Dz. U. from 2012, item 1169).
- Charter of Rights of Disabled Persons adopted by the Polish Sejm on 1 August 1997.



The prevention of disorders in the articulation development of children at the infancy and post-infancy stages

ABSTRACT: Ewa Gacka, *The prevention of disorders in the articulation development of children at the infancy and post-infancy stages*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 119–134. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.07>

The development of speech, including articulation, begins at birth, whereas its biological foundations are shaped already during the foetal development. The acquisition of linguistic competence (including phonetic and phonological) is determined by various factors. The article is dedicated to the preventive care in regard to speech disorders of children. The author primarily focuses on the primary activities of speech/articulation (articulation is one of the aspects of speech, and the primary activities of speech may be considered, simultaneously, as primary in comparison to articulation). The article presents activities that prevent the occurrence of articulation development disorders, directed at infants and post-infancy children.

KEY WORDS: articulation disorders, preventive speech therapy, infancy and post-infancy

The acquisition of phonetic and phonological competence during ontogeny

A number of subsystems may be distinguished within the system of a language, including the phonological, regarding the aspect of language pertaining to sound. According to Józef Porayski-Pomsta,

“the term *child language* pertains to the processes of acquisition and the knowledge of a *linguistic system*. At a consciousness-executive level, it is identified with the linguistic competence term”¹. Following Edward Łuczyński, the following article adopts the premise that linguistic competence is the “(...) capability of unimpeded use of a particular language, the ability to communicate with it, and apply it to express all, that we wish to express”². The phonetic and phonological competence, as an element of linguistic competence, is the ability of the precise articulation of phones present in a given language, as well as the ability to “(...) identify phonemes and recognise higher units of organisation constructed from the former”³. The acquisition of the competence occurs in phases, and the biological determinants can be traced back to the prenatal stage, with the formation of the brain, lungs, larynx, the sensory organs and the articulation apparatus (the oral and nasal cavities, the pharynx). The pre-linguistic phase of the development of speech, taking place from birth to the age of one, is a peculiar training of both the speech organ, as well as, of auditory perception. Then, the infant is preparing to articulate and recognise the sounds of speech. The child acquires linguistic abilities (including phonetic and phonological), by going through all the phases of speech development, however, at own pace⁴. If and when a certain phase is reached, depends on the biological, psychological state of the child, as well as, on the surroundings (the social environment) in which the child is being raised.

Considering the development of the phonetic and phonological competence, one must note the interdependence between percep-

¹ J. Porayski-Pomsta, *O rozwoju mowy dziecka. Dwa studia*, Dom wydawniczy Elipsa, Warszawa 2015, p. 21.

² E. Łuczyński, *Mowa a język. Podstawy językowe neurologopedii*, [in:] *Podstawy neurologopedii. Podręcznik akademicki*, eds. T. Gałkowski, E. Szelaąg, G. Jastrzębowska, Wyd. Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole 2005, p. 39.

³ Ibidem, p. 39.

⁴ J. Porayski-Pomsta, *Zagadnienia periodyzacji mowy dziecka*, „Logopeda” 2009, no. 1(7), p. 10.

tion and the expression of the sounds of speech, as well as, highlight that the perceptive abilities precede the articulative efficiency. According to Piotra Łobacz, a child between 3 and 4 years of age is capable of identifying auditorily an “almost complete inventory of phonemes”⁵. The author highlights that the process of learning articulation, i.e. the ability to articulate the most difficult phones according to the norm, continues up to the early school age⁶. In the practice of logopaedics, it is assumed that a 7 year old child should realise all the phones of the Polish language. Such precise assessment is necessary, as the correct development of speech (including correct articulation) is one of the conditions of success in school education and in a satisfactory participation in the group of peers.

The causing factor regarding articulation disorders, may affect particular phases of the development of the phonetic and phonological competence, as well as, the period following the learning of the inventory of phonemes and their phone realisations, therefore, among older children, youth, adults and seniors. The above-mentioned occurs in aphasia, where the **linguistic** system decomposes, dysarthria (the respiratory-phonatory-articulative disorders caused e.g. by a stroke or Parkinson’s disease), in cases of a resection of a part of the articulation apparatus, as a necessary part of treatment in oncology, the injuries of the articulation apparatus

⁵ P. Łobacz, *Prawidłowy rozwój mowy dziecka*, [in:] *Podstawy neurologopedii. Podręcznik akademicki*, eds. T. Gałkowski, E. Szelać, G. Jastrzębowska, Wyd. Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole 2005, p. 233.

⁶ Ibidem, p. 235. A periodisation and a detailed analysis of the phonetic and phonological development of Polish children may be found in works by various authors, see: P. Smoczyński, *Przyswajanie przez dziecko podstaw systemu językowego*, Zakład im. Ossolińskich, Łódź-Wrocław 1955; M. Zarębina, *Kształtowanie się systemu dźwiękowego dziecka*, Ossolineum, Wrocław 1965; L. Kaczmarek, *Moje dziecko uczy się mowy*, Wyd. Lubelskie, Lublin 1988; P. Łobacz, *Polska fonologia dziecięca*, Energeia, Warszawa 1996; P. Łobacz *Prawidłowy rozwój mowy dziecka*, [in:] *Podstawy neurologopedii. Podręcznik akademicki*, eds. T. Gałkowski, E. Szelać, G. Jastrzębowska, Wyd. Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole 2005, pp. 231–268; J. Porayski-Pomsta, *O rozwoju mowy dziecka. Dwa studia*, Dom wydawniczy Elipsa, Warszawa 2015.

resulting from currently popular piercing of the soft tissues of the oral cavity, as well as, in the changes in the mastication organs among seniors (loss of teeth, prosthetics, floppy soft palate).

Articulation disorders as a symptom of abnormalities in the phonetic and phonological development

Articulation disorders, also referred to speech impediments, articulation impediments, segmental level disorders, are a deviation from the realisation of a phoneme or phonemes, according to norm, caused by the inability of its/their proper realisation. As highlighted by Danuta Pluta-Wojciechowska, "an erroneous phone is evidence of the occurrence of certain difficulties in a normative realisation of a phoneme"⁷. Articulation impediments do not include regionalisms or phonetic **dialecticisms** in compliance with national and/or local linguistic forms⁸, articulation errors being a result of the lack of knowledge or a habit of the speaker, with the preserved capabilities of expressing a sound, as well as the so-called child articulation⁹, which are a result of the unfinished process of phoneme development, naturally transforming into proper realisations in the course of the physical and psychological development of the child. The evaluation, whether a given realisation of the phoneme is pathological, or results from the lack of maturity regarding the perceptive-realisation processes, is not unambiguous, in result of the similarity of symptoms. The difference between "erroneous

⁷ D. Pluta Wojciechowska, *Dyslalia obwodowa. Diagnoza, i terapia logopedyczna wybranych form zaburzeń*, Wydawnictwo Ergo-Sum, Bytom 2017, p. 85.

⁸ I. Jaros, *Trzy krzywe krzyże – cecha wymowy, błąd wymowy czy wada wymowy*, [in:] *Współczesne tendencje w diagnostyce i terapii logopedycznej*, eds. D. Pluta-Wojciechowska, B. Sambor, Harmonia Universlairs, Gdańsk 2017, p. 100.

⁹ B. Ostapiuk, *Standard postępowania logopedycznego w dyslalii ankyloglosyjnej*, „Logopedia” 2008, vol. 37, p. 143; G. Demelowa, *Minimum logopedyczne nauczyciela przedszkola*, Wyd. Szkolne i Pedagogiczne, Warszawa 1994, p. 31.

articulations” and “child articulations” lies in the different mechanisms of their generation, which should be included in the diagnostic process.

Articulation impediments may constitute an isolated issue and be a symptom of other speech disorders. Non-normative realisations of phonemes are diagnosed e.g. in cases of hearing impairment, intellectual disability, aphasia, dysarthria, or specific language impairment (SLI). Such patients exhibit impairment in all language subsystems: phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical.

According to Gerhard Böhme, the causes of articulation impairments correspond with the aetiology of speech disorders¹⁰. Among the factors that lead to the above, one may list: vision and hearing impairment, intellectual disability, injuries and dysfunctions of the nervous system, abnormalities in the structure and functioning of the respiratory, phonation and articulation systems. Unfavourable environment conditions (insufficient amount of stimuli from the surroundings and incorrect models) may additionally impede the development of language communication, including the phonetic and phonological competence.

Articulation disorders are listed among the most commonly occurring abnormalities regarding speech development of children. The enormity of the problem is further evidenced by statistics. Research conducted by Grażyna Jastrzębowska in the early 1990s, among 575 year zero and one students, from the Opole Voivodeship, indicated 18% of children to exhibit articulation impairments¹¹. The results presented by other scholars, are even more alarming. Screening speech therapy study, conducted in the Śląsk urban area, by various authors, proves, that the rate of preschool

¹⁰ G. Böhme, *Sprach-Sprech-Stimm und Schlucströngen*, Urban-Fischer, München-Jena 2003.

¹¹ G. Jastrzębowska, *Stan i perspektywy opieki logopedycznej w Polsce*, [in:] *Logopedia. Pytania i odpowiedzi. Podręcznik akademicki. Interdyscyplinarne podstawy logopedii*. Vol. 1, eds. T. Gałkowski, G. Jastrzębowska, Wyd. Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole 2003, p. 38.

and early school children with articulation disorders, oscillates between 29,4% and 56,8%¹². The received data corresponds to that acquired in 2016 by speech pathologists from the Department of Polish Dialectology and Logopaedics, University of Łódź, who conducted screening research among year one-year three students in one of the elementary schools in Łódź. Among 150 children examined, 71 students exhibited an abnormal realisation of phonemes, making it 47%¹³. The research conducted among 2012 preschool children from Zielona Góra and the Lubuskie Voivodeship, shows that articulation disorders occur in almost 70% of the cases¹⁴.

The results presented, confirm the necessity of undertaking decisive action in regard to the substantial number of children with articulation impairment. As the articulation disorders may result in issues in education, emotional and social difficulties, it is imperative to undertake preventive action against the appearance of articulation impairment, as early as possible, and when the option is unavailable (e.g. in terms of **genetic disorders**), to initiate early diagnosis and speech therapy.

¹² According to the research performed by Iwona Michalak-Widera, 48% of year one students from the Katowice region exhibit speech impediments; See: I. Michalak-Widera, *Zaburzenia dyslaliczne u dzieci realizujących edukację elementarną – doniesienia z badań*, „Śląskie Wiadomości Logopedyczne” 2004, no. 7, p. 30; Joanna Trzaskalik demonstrated the presence of speech impediments in 55% of six year old children in Katowice; See: J. Trzaskalik, *O konieczności badań nad wpływem chorób układu oddechowego na wady wymowy u dzieci w województwie katowickim*, [in:] *Effata – Otwarcie. Logopedia jako nauka interdyscyplinarna i stosowana*, ed. I. Nowakowska-Kempna, Uniwersytet Śląski, Katowice 1998, p. 245; The data presented by Katarzyna Węsierska, regarding children between 3 and 6 years of age in Katowice, the abnormality indicator in regard to speech, including speech impediments in particular age groups ranges from 29,4% to 56,8%; See: K. Węsierska, *Opieka logopedyczna w przedszkolu. Profilaktyka – diagnoza – terapia*, Wydawnictwo Edukacyjne AKAPIT, Toruń 2013, p. 166.

¹³ E. Gacka, M. Kaźmierczak, *Przesiewowe badania mowy jako przykład działań z zakresu profilaktyki logopedycznej*, „Logopaedica Lodziensia” 2017, no. 1, p. 39.

¹⁴ M. Rządźka, *Warunki prawidłowego rozwoju mowy dziecka*, online: docplayer.pl/429465-warunki-prawidlowego-rozwoju-mowy-dziecka.html [access: 29.11.2017].

Prevention of the articulation impairment in the early phases of life

Preventive care is one of the main areas of the activity of speech therapists. Its task is to prevent speech disorders, promote the knowledge regarding speech development and its deficits, as well as, early intervention – early detection of abnormalities regarding language communication in order to initiate therapeutic action, preventing the perpetuation of the negative consequences of speech disorders. Ewa Małgorzata Skorek defines speech therapy preventive care as a “(...) general assortment of organisation forms, contents, methods, principles and means constituting a coherent structure serving the purpose of preventing – primarily – the human dysfunctional communicative ability¹⁵, biologically and/or environmentally determined and secondly – the effects of a disturbed communicative ability for the functioning of a human”¹⁶.

Speech therapy (similar to medicine) distinguishes three phases of preventive care: primary, secondary and tertiary prevention¹⁷. The task of primary prevention is to prevent the speech and voice disorders by promoting speech therapy knowledge, e.g. information regarding the conditions that positively affect the regular develop-

¹⁵ The term “dysfunctional communicative ability” (DCA) („zaburzona zdolność komunikacyjna”) (ZZK), is used by numerous scholars, i.a.: G. Gunia, V. Lechta, see: *Wprowadzenie do logopedii*, eds. G. Gunia, V. Lechta, Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls, Kraków 2011, also E.M. Skorek, see: *Wielowymiarowość przestrzeni profilaktyki logopedycznej*, ed. E.M. Skorek, Uniwersytet Zielonogórski, Zielona Góra 2017. The term is considered synonymous to “speech disorders” or “language communication disorders”.

¹⁶ E.M. Skorek, *Profilaktyka logopedyczna-poziomy i strategie*, [in:] *Wielowymiarowość przestrzeni profilaktyki logopedycznej*, eds. E.M. Skorek, Uniwersytet Zielonogórski, Zielona Góra 2017, p. 51.

¹⁷ *Ibidem*, pp. 53–69; K. Węsierska, *Profilaktyka logopedyczna w ujęciu systemowym*, [in:] *Profilaktyka logopedyczna w praktyce edukacyjnej*, ed. K. Węsierska, vol. 1, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, Katowice 2012; G. Gunia, *Koncepcja i organizacja opieki logopedycznej w Polsce*, [in:] *Wprowadzenie do logopedii*, eds. G. Gunia, V. Lechta, Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls, Kraków 2011, pp. 58–59.

ment of speech, regular voice projection, or promoting the principles of effective communication. This information is aimed at the general population. Secondary prevention consists of the early detection of the disorderly communicative ability and of recognising voice pathology – the activities encompassing risk groups, and so, e.g. premature births, congenital anomalies, professional voice-users. An early identification of the abnormalities allows to undertake therapeutic action in a time span optimal in regards to the effects of the therapy. Tertiary prevention consists of reducing the negative results of previously diagnosed issues regarding language communication, therefore, actions directed at “speech therapy” patients and their families, e.g. reinforcing the feeling of self-esteem in children with speech/articulation disorders, preventing their social isolation, exclusion from the group of peers, and preventing bullying¹⁸. Currently, the necessity is highlighted increasingly, regarding placing emphasis in speech therapy care, so that the preventive care would be treated with higher importance, particularly, primary and secondary prevention.

Preventing articulation disorders, means to provide the optimal conditions for acquiring the phonetic and phonological competence, from the moment of birth, as well as, monitoring the development of children within risk groups. As speech/articulation develops from birth, it is most rational and justified to prevent abnormalities already in the infancy phase. The activities primary in comparison to speech (as, simultaneously, being primary in comparison to articulation) such as respiration, food and water ingestion, developed on the basis of oro-facial reflexes¹⁹, should be the object of particular attention and care. As highlighted by Elżbieta Stecko, an advocate

¹⁸ Bullying is “negative physical or verbal actions that have hostile intent, cause distress to victims, are repeated over time, and involve a power differential between bullies and their victims”, W.M. Craig, D.J. Pepler, *Identifying and targeting risk for involvement in bullying and victimization*. “Canadian Journal of Psychiatry” 2003, vol. 28, p. 577.

¹⁹ D. Pluta-Wojciechowska, *Dyslalia obwodowa. Diagnoza i terapia logopedyczna wybranych form zaburzeń*, Wyd. Ergo-Sum, Bytom 2017, p. 39.

and promoter of early speech therapy intervention, the development of articulation takes place "(...) on the basis of the **food ingestion movements** formed in the phase of suckling, later mastication and deglutition"²⁰. Activities aimed at preschool children, consisting of conducting hearing, respiratory and articulation organ performance exercises, which in practice, the speech therapy preventive care is often reduced to, are to be considered far insufficient²¹. For the effective prevention of articulation impairment, it is imperative to promote information regarding the indicative factors of articulation/speech among parents, grandparents and counsellors of the youngest children – children in the infancy and post-infancy phases of development. It will allow to avoid the means of nursing and child care, unfavourable in terms of shaping the articulation abilities, as well as, will indicate how to stimulate the development of linguistic competence.

In terms of primary prevention against speech impairment, information should be promoted regarding the following:

1. The advantages of natural breastfeeding. Suckling involves all the muscles of the child's oral cavity, which positively affects correct development. Natural breastfeeding provides stimuli, preparing for mastication. This type of feeding eliminates the pressure of the bottle applied to the lower alveolar process, which could result in deformations²². Natural breastfeeding allows the forming of a regular nasal pattern of breathing;

²⁰ E. Stecko, *Logopedia małego dziecka*, Wydawnictwo@stecko.com.pl, Warszawa 2013, p. 11.

²¹ One should mention, that within the framework of speech therapy preventive care conducted in schools, sometimes the introduced exercises are harmful – particularly for children who had already exhibited beyond-normative realisations of phonemes, e.g. exercises to bolster the lingual performance, consisting of licking lips are inadvisable in cases of interdental lispings.

²² M. Borkowska, *Usprawnianie czynności karmienia u dzieci z mózgowym porażeniem*, [in:] *ABC rehabilitacji dzieci. Mózgowe porażenie dziecięce*, eds. M. Borkowska, Vol. 2, Wyd. Pelikan, Warszawa 1989, p. 92.

2. The significance of the proper position of a child during feeding (both natural and with a bottle), with the ability of controlling the entire body, particularly, the head and the mandible. According to Paweł Zawitkowski²³ the proper position allows the child to maintain a proper pattern of breathing, a normative muscle pressure of the entire body, including neck and face, as well as the appropriate position of the head in accordance to the body, allowing for easier deglutition. The appropriate way of handing the bottle in mid-line (instead from feeding from the side) prevents the asymmetric positioning of the infant's body. Specialists note the significance of proper postural-motor-skills patterns, for the proper functioning of the oro-facial apparatus, as well as, for speaking²⁴.
3. Appropriate selection of accessories, in case of the need to bottle-feed. The shape of the teat should resemble the natural shape of the nipple, its size adjusted to the age of the infant, and the size of the holes should allow for a free flow of milk, without choking the infant with the excess of nourishment. It is significant to position the bottle in a way (in an almost perpendicular position to the infant's mouth), that would enforce protrusive mandibular movements²⁵, therefore, preventing the perpetuation of physiological retrognathia, present at birth. One should also remember, that prolonged bottle-feeding may cause malocclusions and enhance the possibility of forming a high-arched palate²⁶. Without

²³ P. Zawitkowski, *Wczesna stymulacja rozwoju psychoruchowego dzieci urodzonych przedwcześnie*, [in:] *Noworodek przedwcześnie urodzony – pierwsze lata życia*, ed. Kornacka M.K., Wyd. Lekarskie PZWL, Warszawa 2003, p. 79.

²⁴ M. Matyja, I. Doroniewicz, *Neurorozwojowe podstawy rozwoju mowy i terapii*, [in:] *Wczesna interwencja logopedyczna*, eds. K. Kaczorowska-Bray, S. Milewski, Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2016, p. 57.

²⁵ I. Karłowska, *Profilaktyka i oświata zdrowotna*, [in:] *Zarys współczesnej ortodoncji. Podręcznik dla studentów i lekarzy dentyków*, eds. I. Karłowska, Wyd. Lekarskie PZWL, Warszawa 2008, p. 315.

²⁶ G. Śmiech-Słomkowska, W. Rytłowa, *Wybrane zagadnienia z profilaktyki i wczesnego leczenia ortodontycznego*. Med. Tour Press International, Warszawa 1993, p. 16.

proper hygiene, bottle-feeding may also result in the development of the so-called bottle tooth decay, and the premature loss of deciduous teeth;

4. The necessity of keeping a feeding log (spoon-feeding from c. 4 months after birth²⁷ – as additional means of feeding, teaching to drink from a cup, introducing solids). It is advised to introduce e.g. sponge cake and bread during the emergence of incisors, i.e. at approximately 6 months²⁸. In the second part of the first year, it is recommended to introduce solids slowly and remove baby gruel meals. Prolonged consumption of mixed products impedes the development of biting, mastication and grinding. Parents can teach drinking from a cup, when the child learns the ability to eat from a spoon. Additionally, one must remember to maintain the proper position while teaching the child to drink – without tilting the child's head back;
5. The necessity of oral cavity hygiene care, already at the infancy stage, and attending regular dentist control. In case of malocclusions, early examination and orthodontic treatment are recommended;
6. The significance of the appropriate positioning of the baby during sleep/rest in a crib or a stroller. It is recommended to lay the child flat, with the head placed on a small pillow, so that the mastication organs form properly;

²⁷ Cf: I. Karłowska, *Profilaktyka i oświata zdrowotna*, [in:] *Zarys współczesnej ortodoncji*, eds. I. Karłowska, wyd. Lekarskie PZWL, Warszawa 2008, p. 315; The Polish Society for Paediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Nutrition recommends breastfeeding only up until the 6th month, due to the nutrition value of mother's milk. Cf: H. Szajewska et al., *Karmienie piersią. Stanowisko Polskiego Towarzystwa Gastroenterologii, Hepatologii i Żywienia Dzieci*. „Pediatria”, Vol. 13, p. 9. Orthodontists and speech pathologists highlight, that introducing spoon-feeding during the 4th month is an important element of the training preparing the infant to speak, particularly to articulating labial phones; collecting the meal from the spoon requires increased lip activity in comparison to suckling.

²⁸ G. Śmiech-Słomkowska, W. Rytłowa, *Wybrane zagadnienia z profilaktyki i wczesnego leczenia ortodontycznego*. Med. Tour Press International, Warszawa 1993, p. 19.

7. The necessity of caring for the proper breathing pattern of the child (nasal). In a situation of notorious mouth breathing, an examination by the otorhinolaryngologist is recommended. The organic causes of mouth breathing require medical intervention. If an abnormal breathing pattern is caused by habit, then it is recommended to close the child's mouth, e.g. during sleep, passive or active exercises that increase the tension of the orbicularis oris muscle. Prolonged mouth breathing "(...) leads to changes in facial bone structure, primarily, the jaw, as well as, changes in the thorax"²⁹. Thereby, such breathing pattern leads to the so-called high-arched palate, malocclusions, and in consequence, articulation impairments;
8. The harmful effects of para-functional habits (atypical, habitual exercise), such as: suckling on the bottle teat or on a thumb, pressing the tongue against lips, etc. which may cause articulation impairments and malocclusions;
9. **Caring for healthy hearing** – the necessity of immediate examination by an audiologist or an otorhinolaryngologist in case of any disturbing symptoms such as: the child not reacting to surrounding sounds, the deterioration of the formerly **normal state of hearing**, notorious and repeating infections of the upper respiratory tract, that, if untreated, may cause hearing impairment;
10. The impact of the anatomical structure of the lingual frenulum on the quality of ingestion and articulation. Even a slightly shortened frenulum may impair articulation, and cause difficulties in breastfeeding, and mastication³⁰;
11. The significance of verbal and non-verbal contact (smile, gaze, gesture, facial expression) with the infant from the very

²⁹ S. Iwankiewicz, *Otolaryngologia. Podręcznik dla studentów medycyny i stomatologii*, PZWL, Warszawa 1991, p. 229.

³⁰ B. Ostapiuk, *Postępowanie logopedyczne u osób z dyslalią i ankyloglosją*, [in:] *Logopedia. Standardy postępowania logopedycznego*, eds. S. Grabias, J. Panasiuk, T. Woźniak, Wyd. UMCS, Lublin 2015, p. 659.

first moments after birth. It is essential to respond to the signals sent by the infant, creating an incentive for the development of pre-linguistic, and later linguistic forms of communication. Additionally, it is important to provide correct patterns of speech/articulation. The quality and quantity of interactions with infants, affects the state of their linguist (including articulation) and communicative abilities;

12. The significance of the correct psychomotor, social and emotional development in regard to forming of speech/articulation;
13. The possibility of speech therapy consultation in case of the slightest doubts of parents or child **counsellors**, regarding the state of the child's articulation/speech, as well as, the quality of the preceding **primary activities**.

In order to prevent articulation disorders, apart from promoting information regarding the conditions of the proper articulation development, activities regarding the secondary prevention are necessary, including:

1. Early identification of children with abnormal oro-facial reflexes³¹ in order to implement therapeutic procedures. Speech therapy consultation for children with abnormal oral cavity reflexes should take place already at neonatal wards;
2. Monitoring of the development of children from risk groups regarding the occurrence of abnormalities of linguistic communication (including articulation disorders) within early intervention. The subjects of early speech therapy intervention, are children with genetic **disorders** (e.g. Prader-Willi syndrome, Down syndrome), neurological congenital disorders, peripheral speech organ disorders (e.g. cleft palate), and children with metabolic disorders, peripheral speech organ damage that occurred in the prenatal, perinatal and early devel-

³¹ Among the reflexes, particularly significant in regard to speech/articulation development, one may list: suckling, deglutition, root, ryjkowy, pharyngeal, biting, mastication.

opment phases, psychomotor development retardation, sensory impairment, premature births, as well as, children whose subsequent phases of the speech development have not appeared at a proper time, however, no other developmental abnormalities were observed³²;

3. Conducting screening among the youngest children that attend preschool education (therefore, children of ages between 2,5 and 3)³³.

Conclusion

The promotion of attitudes regarding speech therapy knowledge, i.e. spreading information regarding the correct development of speech and neutralising linguistic communication disorders, including articulation within the secondary prevention, should constitute a common area for the activities of speech pathologists, paediatricians, as well as, neonatologists, otorhinolaryngologists, audiologists, orthodontists, physiotherapists, nurses, midwives, pedagogues, psychologists, preschool teachers and child care counsellors. Training for future parents in childbirth schools, meetings with specialists at child care, preschools, schools, as well as, inspection visits, the so-called reviews and regular dental examination, may be a good occasion to promote such knowledge.

Bibliography

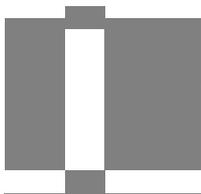
Borkowska M., *Usprawnianie czynności karmienia u dzieci z mózgowym porażeniem*, [in:] *ABC rehabilitacji dzieci. Mózgowe porażenie dziecięce*, ed. M. Borkowska, T. 2, Wyd. Pelikan, Warszawa 1989, pp. 90-114.

³² E. Gacka, *Wczesna interwencja logopedyczna*, [in:] *W świecie logopedii. Materiały dydaktyczne*, eds. A. Podstolec, K. Węsierska, Vol. 1, Uniwersytet Śląski w Katowicach, Katowice 2012, pp. 40-41.

³³ Currently, preschools accept children aged 2,5 and up.

- Böhme G., *Sprach-Sprech-Stimm-Und Schlucksträngen*. Urban-Fischer. München – Jena 2003.
- Craig W.M., Pepler D.J., *Identifying and targeting risk for involvement in bullying and victimization*. „Canadian Journal of Psychiatry” 2003, vol. 28, pp. 577–582.
- Demelowa G., *Minimum logopedyczne nauczyciela przedszkola*, Wyd. Szkolne i Pedagogiczne, Warszawa 1994.
- Gacka E., Kaźmierczak M., *Przesiewowe badania mowy jako przykład działań z zakresu profilaktyki logopedycznej*, „Logopaedica Lodziensia” 2017, no. 1, pp. 31–42.
- Gacka E., *Wczesna interwencja logopedyczna*, [in:] *W świecie logopedii. Materiały dydaktyczne*, eds. A. Podstolec, K. Węsierska, Vol. 1, Uniwersytet Śląski w Katowicach, Katowice 2012, pp. 31–49.
- Gunia G., Lechta V. (eds.), *Wprowadzenie do logopedii*, Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls, Kraków 2011.
- Gunia G., *Koncepcja i organizacja opieki logopedycznej w Polsce*, [in:] *Wprowadzenie do logopedii*, eds. G. Gunia, V. Lechta, Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls, Kraków 2011, pp. 53–67.
- Iwankiewicz S., *Otolaryngologia. Podręcznik dla studentów medycyny i stomatologii*, PZWL, Warszawa 1991.
- Jaros I., *Trzy krzywe krzyże – cecha wymowy, błąd wymowy czy wada wymowy*, [in:] *Współczesne tendencje w diagnostyce i terapii logopedycznej*, eds. D. Pluta-Wojciechowska, B. Sambor, Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2017, pp. 99–110.
- Jastrzębowska G., *Stan i perspektywy opieki logopedycznej w Polsce*, [in:] *Logopedia. Pytania i odpowiedzi. Podręcznik akademicki. Interdyscyplinarne podstawy logopedii*, eds. T. Gałkowski, G. Jastrzębowska, Vol. 1, Wyd. Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole 2003, pp. 301–314.
- Kaczmarek L., *Moje dziecko uczy się mowy*, Wyd. Lubelskie, Lublin 1988.
- Karłowska I., *Profilaktyka i oświata zdrowotna*, [in:] *Zarys współczesnej ortodoncji*, ed. I. Karłowska, PZWL, Warszawa 2008, pp. 314–319.
- Łobacz P., *Prawidłowy rozwój mowy dziecka*, [in:] *Podstawy neurologopedii. Podręcznik akademicki*, eds. T. Gałkowski, E. Szelağ, G. Jastrzębowska, Wyd. Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole 2005, pp. 231–268.
- Łobacz P., *Polska fonologia dziecięca. Studia fonetyczno-akustyczne*. Wyd. Energeia, Warszawa 1996.
- Łuczniński E., *Mowa a język. Podstawy językowe neurologopedii*, [in:] *Podstawy neurologopedii. Podręcznik akademicki*, eds. T. Gałkowski, E. Szelağ, G. Jastrzębowska, Wyd. Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole 2005, pp. 13–42.
- Matyja M., Doroniewicz I., *Neurorozwojowe podstawy rozwoju mowy i terapii*, [in:] *Wczesna interwencja logopedyczna*, eds. K. Kaczorowska-Bray, S. Milewski, Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2016, pp. 54–71.
- Michalak-Widera I., *Zaburzenia dyslaliczne u dzieci realizujących edukację elementarną – doniesienia z badań*, „Śląskie Wiadomości Logopedyczne” 2004, no. 7, pp. 29–35.

- Ostapiuk B., *Postępowanie logopedyczne u osób z dyslalią i ankyloglosją*, [in:] *Logopedia. Standardy postępowania logopedycznego*, eds. S. Grabias, J. Panasiuk, T. Woźniak, Wyd. UMCS, Lublin 2015, pp. 655–685.
- Ostapiuk B., *Standard postępowania logopedycznego w dyslalii ankyloglosyjnej*, „*Logopedia*” 2008, vol. 37, pp. 141–166.
- Pluta Wojciechowska D., *Dyslalia obwodowa. Diagnoza, i terapia logopedyczna wybranych form zaburzeń*, Wydawnictwo Ergo-Sum, Bytom 2017.
- Porayski-Pomsta J., *O rozwoju mowy dziecka. Dwa studia*, Dom wydawniczy Elipsa, Warszawa 2015.
- Porayski-Pomsta J., *Zagadnienia periodyzacji mowy dziecka*, „*Logopeda*” 2009, no. 1(7), pp. 7–31.
- Rządзка M., *Warunki prawidłowego rozwoju mowy dziecka*, online: docplayer.pl/429465-warunki-prawidlowego-rozwoju-mowy-dziecka.html [access: 29.11.2017].
- Skorek E.M. (ed.), *Wielowymiarowość przestrzeni profilaktyki logopedycznej*, Uniwersytet Zielonogórski, Zielona Góra 2017.
- Skorek E.M., *Profilaktyka logopedyczna-poziomy i strategie*, [in:] *Wielowymiarowość przestrzeni profilaktyki logopedycznej*, ed. E.M. Skorek, Uniwersytet Zielonogórski, Zielona Góra 2017, pp. 51–92.
- Smoczyński P., *Przyswajanie przez dziecko podstaw systemu językowego*, Zakład im. Ossolińskich, Łódź–Wrocław 1955.
- Stecko E., *Logopedia małego dziecka*, Wydawnictwo@stecko.com.pl, Warszawa 2013.
- Szajewska H., Horvath A., Rybak A., Socha P., *Karmienie piersią. Stanowisko Polskiego Towarzystwa Gastroenterologii, Hepatologii i Żywienia Dzieci*. „*Pediatrics*” 2016, vol. 13, pp. 9–24.
- Śmiech-Słomkowska G., Rytłowa W., *Wybrane zagadnienia z profilaktyki i wczesnego leczenia ortodontycznego*. Med. Tour Press International, Warszawa 1993.
- Trzaskalik J., *O konieczności badań nad wpływem chorób układu oddechowego na wady wymowy u dzieci w województwie katowickim*, [in:] *Effata – Otwarcie. Logopedia jako nauka interdyscyplinarna i stosowana*, red. I. Nowakowska-Kempna, Uniwersytet Śląski, Katowice 1998, pp. 243–350.
- Węsierska K., *Opieka logopedyczna w przedszkolu. Profilaktyka – diagnoza – terapia*, Wydawnictwo Edukacyjne AKAPIT, Toruń 2013.
- Węsierska K., *Profilaktyka logopedyczna w ujęciu systemowym*, [in:] *Profilaktyka logopedyczna w praktyce edukacyjnej*, ed. K. Węsierska, vol. 1, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, Katowice 2012, pp. 25–47.
- Zarębina M., *Kształtowanie się systemu dźwiękowego dziecka*, Ossolineum, Wrocław 1965.
- Zawitkowski P., *Wczesna stymulacja rozwoju psychoruchowego dzieci urodzonych przedwcześnie*, [in:] *Noworodek przedwcześnie urodzony – pierwsze lata życia*, red. M.K. Kornacka M.K., Wyd. Lekarskie PZWL, Warszawa 2003, pp. 68–86.



AGNIESZKA KAMYK-WAWRYSZUK

Kazimierz Wielki University in Bydgoszcz

Pre-verbal communication behaviours in children with Cri du chat syndrome in the opinion of parents

ABSTRACT: Agnieszka Kamyk-Wawryszuk, *Pre-verbal communication behaviours in children with Cri du chat syndrome in the opinion of parents*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 135–156. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.08>

Cri du chat syndrome (CdC) is a rare disease characterized, among others, by the presence of decreased muscle tone, microcephaly and high palate. We also observe hypoplasia of the mandible, abnormal structure and function of the larynx (somatic symptoms) as well as psychomotor development disorders and intellectual disability (psychomotor symptoms). The children display a varied level of functioning; most of them do not use verbal speech. Describing the problem of pre-verbal communication behaviours we took into account the following elements: the level of primary, sensory and auditory communication behaviours, as well as the organization of behaviours and signalling needs.

The objective of the paper is to describe the pre-verbal behaviours in children with Cri du chat syndrome. The following questions were formulated: What is the level of pre-verbal communication (primary, sensory and auditory) in the child with CdC syndrome? What communication behaviours can be distinguished in the child with CdC syndrome and what is their level of organization? What is the level of signalling needs in the child with CdC?

The pre-verbal communication behaviours in children with Cri du chat syndrome presented in the article are diverse, ranging from the ability to use gestures to signal needs, to vocalizing in order to provoke the contact with another person. Behav-

iours displayed by the daughter/son and indicated by parents may be the basis for the process of teaching pre-verbal communication.

KEY WORDS: communication, communication disorders, child with Cri du chat syndrome

Introduction

Given the fact that a disease was diagnosed in no more than 5 in 10,000 people, the state of knowledge about the functioning of these patients and the possibilities of treatment is insufficient. Moreover, because the development of children with a rare genetic syndrome and intellectual disability differ from person to person it is often difficult to outline the common features. Children with rare genetic syndromes are more and more often diagnosed with verbal speech difficulties, hence there is a need to deepen the knowledge about pre-verbal communication behaviours in order to support them – often with alternative forms of communication. Most children with Cri du chat syndrome (CdC) do not use verbal speech. Few publications dedicated to this subject do not exhaust the issue¹. The lack of systematized scientific knowledge and scarce reports on the communication of children with CdC prompted us to explore the topic. The following questions were formulated in the study: What is the level of pre-verbal communication (primary, sensory and auditory) in the child with CdC syndrome? What communication behaviours can be distinguished in the child with CdC syndrome and what is their level of organization? What is the level of signalling needs in the child with CdC?

The objective of the paper is to describe pre-verbal behaviours in children with Cri du chat syndrome. The answers to the questions

¹ One of them is an article by Marzena Buchnat, Aneta Wojciechowska and Michał Rzepka (father of a girl with CdC) entitled “Supporting the development of speech and communication in children with the Cri du Chat syndrome”, which was published on the Speech Therapy Forum.

formulated in the study fill the gap in the theory of special education and allow therapists to plan effective supportive activities to be used at an early stage of the development of children with CdC syndrome and other congenital development disorders.

Communication behaviours

The communication skills developed and acquired as the child grows up cause that it becomes more and more involved in the world around by making contact first with people from the nearest, then from further surroundings. In this way the child gains new experiences and skills. It is worth mentioning that verbal speech is not/does not have to be the main carrier of information in the child with a rare genetic syndrome or congenital malformations which may restrict the above process.

As Mieczysław Plopa emphasizes, every behaviour is a form of communication in the communication system, because *„people who interact with each other convey information by everything they do and say (or do not do and say), and thus they influence the course of interaction”*². Although the researcher points to communication behaviours in the marital relationship, the issue can be transferred to a parent-child relationship. Given that a girl/boy with developmental disorders not using verbal speech establishes contact with an adult to communicate and makes attempts to convey the information in a non-verbal way by using the available means, we can assume that every child's activity which is aimed at establishing contact with parents in order to signal needs, well-being or transfer other important message through the repertoire of childlike behaviours, such as gestures, meanings, symbols, items, etc. will be a communication behaviour. The perception of each behaviour as a (potential) form of communication allows for better understand of the meaning of non-verbal signals that appear in the interaction between two

² Plopa M., *Bonds in marriage and family. Test methods*. Wyd. „Impuls”, Kraków 2005, p. 110.

people. These signals have an impact on communication because they have a symbolic meaning³. Communication behaviours are a consequence of the development and integration of the child's cognitive, social and motor sphere. As they are often disturbed in children with intellectual or coupled disability, teaching patients how to communicate effectively is a long-lasting process with variable dynamics (there are periods of rapid mastery of skills and stagnation; regresses can not be excluded). Communication behaviours have both non-verbal and verbal dimensions. In the 1970s, in order to assess children's communication capabilities, researchers dealing with mute children began to use research findings on the development of pre-verbal communication between infants and their carers. The basic assumption was made that in order to evaluate the child's readiness for communication, we should first pay attention to the pragmatic function of communication between the boy/girl and his/her caregiver⁴. According to Maria Piszczek, this type of communication „develops in the context of social relations and involves predictable connections between an adult and the child”⁵. Thus, such an approach to the communication behaviours of children with disorders requires the assessment in the social context which is the background for the exchange of information between the child and the adult. It is also important to observe whether and to what extent these behaviours are intentional⁶. Considering intentionality, we should bear in mind the ability to distinguish between action and intention. A child who behaves intentionally has a specific purpose of taking an action. In the event of obstacles on the way to achieve a goal, the child takes indirect steps to eliminate them. When the child reaches the stage of development at which means are distinguished from purposes, intentional communication begins to develop, which is manifested by showing parents needs and

³ Ibid., pp. 110-112

⁴ Piszczek M., *Diagnosis and support for child development. Selected issues*, Methodological Center for Psychological and Pedagogical Assistance, Warsaw 2007, pp. 42-43.

⁵ Ibid., p. 42.

⁶ Ibid., pp. 42-43.

wishes through various behaviours with the simultaneous directing parents' attention to a given object or a need⁷. In this way the child learns how to summon an adult, ask and set requirements⁸. According to Lidia Grzesiuk, four categories can be used to describe communication behaviours. The first of them are intentional and unintentional messages which have been distinguished based on the relationship between the behaviour of a given person and the intention to convey a specific content. An intentional message transmits the information whose content is intended to be consciously revealed. Unintentional messages do not carry intentional meaning, but provide information about the performer of the action. The second category involves a division into verbal and non-verbal behaviours which have been distinguished based on the means of communication used by the child⁹. The third category includes „messages directly/indirectly expressing the internal states of the performer of the action, determined on the basis of the overtness of the information conveyed”¹⁰. The last category are relational and neutral messages, which in the aspect of communication behaviours, are analyzed in terms of whether their contents relates to the emotions of a communicating person or to the external environment/partners¹¹.

Analyzing the aforementioned categories Magdalena Grochowalska indicated their possible importance to understanding non-

⁷ Ibid., pp. 43–45; Piszczek M., *Alternative and assistive communication methods in the education of children with deep mental impairment and autism*. Part I, Revalidation, No. 2(8), 2000, pp. 13–21; Idem, Piszczek M., *Alternative and assistive communication methods in the education of children with deep mental impairment and autism*. Part II, Revalidation, No. 1(9), 2001, pp. 3–21.

⁸ Idem, *Diagnosis and support for child development. Selected issues*, Methodological Center for Psychological and Pedagogical Assistance, Warsaw 2007, pp. 43–44.

⁹ L. Grzesiuk, *Studies on interpersonal communication*, Laboratory of Psychological Tests PTS, Warsaw 1994, pp. 12–21.

¹⁰ M. Grochowalska, *Gesticulation and speech. Non-verbal communication in pre-school children*. Wyd. Naukowe Akademii Pedagogicznej, Kraków 2002, p. 11.

¹¹ L. Grzesiuk, *Studies on interpersonal communication*, Laboratory of Psychological Tests PTS, Warsaw 1994, pp. 12–21.

verbal forms of communication in children¹². For the need of the research, the author adopted the category of pre-verbal communication behaviours specifying that her analysis of pre-verbal communication behaviours in the child with multiple development disorders, congenital malformations – here Cri du chat syndrome – included the following elements: the level of primary, sensory and auditory communication behaviours, as well as the organization of behaviours and signalling needs.

Child with Cri du chat syndrome – clinical picture and development opportunities in a psycho-pedagogical perspective

In 1963 the French geneticist Jerome Léjeune noted that on the first days after birth some children manifest high and silent crying. Because this symptom is typical of this disorder the condition was named Cri du chat syndrome (from the French cri du chat – ‘*cat-cry*’). It is a rare genetic disease diagnosed in about 1 in 15–20 thousand up to 1 in 50 thousand live births¹³. Cri du chat syndrome is also often referred to as the 5p monosomy syndrome, chromosome 5p deletion syndrome, Lejeune’s syndrome and *cat cry syndrome*¹⁴. The last name is less frequently used because it has a stigmatizing dimension. CdC most often arises *de novo*, sometimes as a result of translocation or mosaicism inherited from one of parents. According to the literature, the causes of the disorder include partial chromosomal aberration and less often total deletion of the short arms of chromosome 5.

¹² Ibid., p. 11

¹³ P.C. Mainardi, M.L. Albani, M. Pedrinazzi, *ABC – Cri du Chat Syndrome (Cat cry syndrome)*, information materials published by A.B.C. Associazione Bambini Cri du chat (Association for Children with Cri du Chat syndrome), Italy 2014, p. 1.

¹⁴ ICD-10 classification: Q93.4 – Deletion of the short arm of chromosome 5. “Q93.4 is a billable ICD code used to specify a diagnosis of deletion of short arm of chromosome 5. A ‘billable code’ is detailed enough to be used to specify a medical diagnosis”, Source: <https://icd.codes/icd10cm/Q934>.

The condition leads to a delay in development or intellectual disability¹⁵. The clinical symptoms of CdC are divided into two main groups. The first group are somatic symptoms, the second group – psychomotor symptoms. It is also possible to describe characteristic mental traits (see Table 2).

Table 1. The clinical symptoms of Cri du chat syndrome.

Somatic symptoms	Psychomotor symptoms
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – low birth weight of the child, – decreased muscle tone, – microcephaly, – facial changes: oval face, low set ears, hypertelorism, epicanthic fold, – high palate; hypoplasia of the mandible, cleft lip and palate (rarely), – abnormal structure and function of the larynx, – transverse furrow of the hand; syndactyly (rare), – scoliosis, – epilepsy, – heart defects. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – psychomotor development disorders, – motor coordination disorders, – intellectual disability of various degrees (about 70% – significant and deep, 20% moderate, 10% mild).
Characteristic mental features	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – friendly temperament, – hyperexcitability, – nervous tics, – self-harm, – autostimulation, – autistic behaviours, – withdrawal. 	

Source: Czapiga A. Child with *Cri du Chat syndrome*, [in:] *Ill children, disabled and with developmental difficulties*, B. Cytowska, B. Winczura, A. Stawarski (ed.), Wyd. „Impuls”, Kraków 2013, pp. 121-129, Mainardi P.C., *Cri du Chat syndrome*. Orphanet Journal of Rare Diseases, ojrd.biomedcentral.com, 9 September 2017, Mainardi P. C., Albani M.L., Pedrinazzi M., *ABC – Cri du Chat Syndrome (Cat cry syndrome)*, information materials published by A.B.C. Associazione Bambini Cri du chat (Association for Children with Cri du Chat syndrome).

¹⁵ A. Czapiga, *Child with Cri du Chat syndrome*, [in:] *Ill children, disabled and with developmental difficulties*, B. Cytowska, B. Winczura, A. Stawarski (ed.), Wyd. „Impuls”, Kraków 2013, p. 125.

Apart from the aforementioned symptoms, speech, concentration and motor activity disorders can also be noticed¹⁶. The research conducted in 2002 in the United States by Denis J. Campbell revealed the specificity of communication development in children with CdC (Table 3) with a significant delay compared to healthy peers.

Table 2. The development of communication in children with Cri du chat syndrome in the light of literature reports

Skill	Developmental standard	Age range	Age of child with CdC
Cooing	about 7 months	4–48 months	about 14 months
Saying first words	about 10 months	7–72 months	about 23 months
Understanding commands	about 10 months	6–120 months	about 23 months
Communication using other signs	about 12 months	1–11 years	about 2 years
Using words	about 20 months	1–12 years	about 4 years

Source: Buchnat M., Wojciechowska A., Rzepka M., *Supporting the development of speech and communication in children with Cri du Chat Syndrome*, Speech therapy forum 2014, No. 22, p. 114; Campbell D.J., *Early Development of Individuals with Cri du Chat Syndrome* (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Auburn University), Auburn 2002.

The spread between the developmental standard and the moment when the abovementioned skills are achieved by the child with CdC counted in months indicates the individualized character of the development of these children. Somatic and psychomotor symptoms as well as mental traits are formed individually. An early support of the child with CdC and the involvement of various specialists gives an opportunity to initiate the phase of functional diagnosis and therapy involving sensitive development stages. The work will include polysensory stimulation, shaping perceptual-

¹⁶ M. Buchnat, *Cri du Chat Syndrome*, [in:] *Unknown? Understood. Developmental disorders in children with rare genetic syndromes and congenital malformations*, M. Buchnat, K. Pawelczak (ed.), Wyd. Naukowe UAM, Poznań 2013, p. 180.

motor integration, and awareness of one's own body¹⁷. Alina Czapiga described a plan of revalidation work and psychological therapy for a girl/boy with CdC indicating the spheres that should be stimulated. These included the orientation-cognitive, intellectual (mental operations), emotional, motivational processes and control mechanisms¹⁸.

Research methodology

The research was carried out using the diagnostic survey method and the following tools:

- original questionnaire to assess the functioning of the child with CdC,
- original questionnaire to evaluate the communication behaviours of the child with CdC,
- questionnaire to examine communication skills in children with deeper intellectual disabilities (with significant and deep intellectual disability) by Elżbieta M. Minczakiewicz,
- individual communication competence sheet – the area of pre-verbal communication by Aleksandra Nowak, Katarzyna Kobylacka-Sikora.

The main research problem was as follows: what are pre-verbal communication behaviours in the child with Cri du chat syndrome in the opinion of parents?

The following specific questions were also formulated:

- What is the level of pre-verbal communication (primary, sensory and auditory) in the child with Cri du chat syndrome?
- What communication behaviours can be distinguished in the child with CdC syndrome and what is their level of organization?
- What is the level of signalling needs by the child with CdC?

¹⁷ A. Czapiga, *Child with Cri du Chat syndrome*, [in:] *Ill children, disabled and with developmental difficulties*, B. Cytowska, B. Winczura, A. Stawarski (ed.), Wyd. „Impuls”, Kraków 2013, p. 128.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 127–128.

Table 3. The number of children with CdC syndrome living in Poland

Source	Year	Number of children	Notes
www.genetyczne.pl	2009	from 50 to 60	none
www.gazetakrakowska.pl	2012	about 50	none
www.poradnikzdrowia.pl	2016	about 50	none
https://parenting.pl	2017	30	none
www.stefanek-lubin.pl/	2017	about 45	Data from the Association for Children with Genetic Disorders „GEN” (currently according to the data available on http://bazy.ngo.pl in the state of liquidation, therefore it is not possible to confirm this information with the members of the association board)

Source: own study based on <https://www.genetyczne.pl/choroby-genetyczne/zespol-cri-du-chat-objawy-diagnostyka-leczenie/> dated 1 August 2017; Zuzia Trojan fights with „cat cry syndrome”. We can help her, <http://www.gazetakrakowska.pl/artukul/585287,zuzia-trojan-walczy-z-kocim-krzykiem-mozemy-jej-pomoc,id,t.html>, dated 29 May 2012; http://www.poradnikzdrowie.pl/zdrowie/choroby-genetyczne/zespol-kociego-krzyku-przyczyny-objawy-leczenie_42069.html, dated 10 October 2017; E. Rycerz, *Cat cry syndrome-symptoms, treatment*, <https://parenting.pl/zespol-kociego-krzyku-objawy-leczenie>, dated 8 May 2017; http://www.stefanek-lubin.pl/o_chorobie.html, dated 10 October 2017.

The study lasted from August to December 2017 and consisted of three stages. The first (initial) stage included the collection and analysis of literature on the development and functioning of people with CdC and search for associations/foundations looking after children with CdC. In Poland, there are no organizations exclusively for parents of these children. The only dynamic form of support is the *Cri du chat Polska* group created within the Facebook social network. It has a closed character and gathers parents, also those living abroad. Various sources give a different number of people with CdC living in Poland: the values vary from 30 to 60 (Table 3), including children and adolescents. Hence the limited number of

parents who took part in the research. The second stage included the selection of people for the research. The selection criteria were as follows: having a child with CdC and being a resident of Poland. The questionnaire could be completed by only one parent. It was available on the forum for four months; the information about the research was posted on the forum for parents of children with CdC and in the group on the web portal. The third stage of the study involved the analysis of the material collected.

The study involved 20 parents at the age of 27-45 years (19 mothers and one father – only one parent of a given child, the decision which parent will complete the questionnaire was made by the respondents). Almost half of the respondents had secondary education (9). The second largest group were people with higher education (8), followed by occupational (2) and primary (1) education. Most parents (7) lived in the city of 50,000 up to 100,000 residents. The remaining respondents lived in the city of up to 50,000 inhabitants (5), in the countryside (4) and in the city above 200,000 inhabitants (4). Cri du chat was usually diagnosed in the first (5), second (4) or third (5) child. The age range of children was from 2 to 13 years. The mean age was 10 years.

The parents participating in the study completed questionnaires dedicated to the assessment of pre-verbal communication behaviours in their children constituting the group:

- in terms of sex: 13 girls and 7 boys;
- currently attending: special education school (6), therapeutic kindergarten (3), rehabilitation-educational centre (2), special education school (1), integration facility (1), special education secondary school (1), public school (1), having individual teaching program (1), staying at home and not attending any educational institution (3) and those covered by early development support (1);
- with the following CdC clinical symptoms: most children had decreased muscle tone (19), low birth weight (12), high palate and impaired motor coordination (10). Other clinical symptoms are presented in Figure 1;

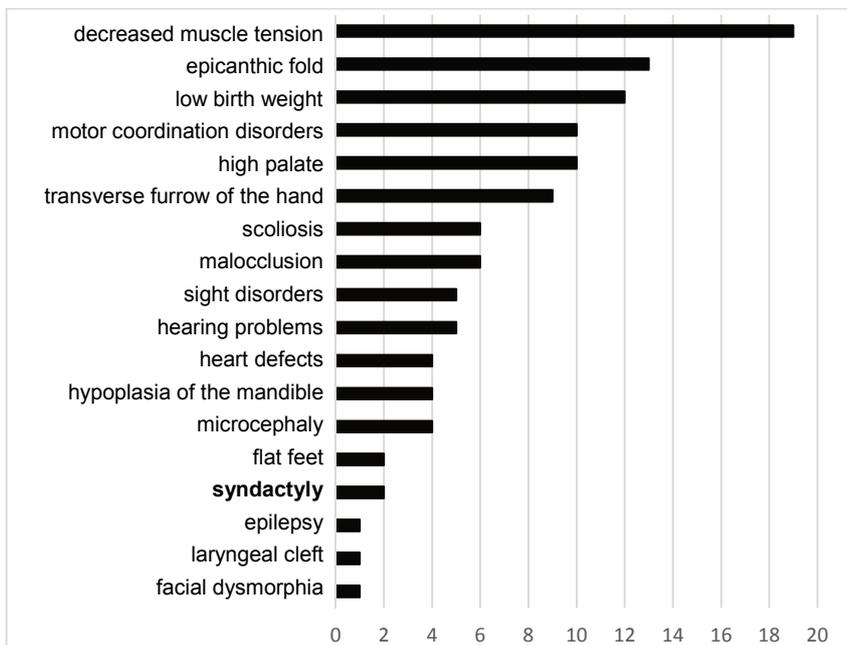


Fig. 1. The clinical symptoms in children with CdC syndrome

Source: own study.

- with the following psychiatric features: attention disorders (16), hyperexcitability (13), friendly disposition (12), aggressive behaviours (11), intense autostimulation (9), nervous tics (6), autistic behaviours (4);
- with diagnosed intellectual disability at the following degree: mild (1), moderate or significant (18), deep (1);
- in which less than half of children used alternative communication in everyday life (8). The parents indicated the following methods: Makaton, PCS and gestures, sounds or own method;
- with the medical statement or opinion on the need for early development support (16), special education (15), individual tuition (2);

- attending classes in speech therapy (15), revalidation (12), early development support and sensory integration (11), behavioural therapy (3).

Pre-verbal communication behaviours in the child with Cri du chat syndrome – study results

As for the area of primary communication, half (10) of children with CdC always express their feelings in a specific way and react specifically to single stimuli from the closest environment.

Most of the children from time to time (9) or sometimes (6) react to the surrounding signals in a non-specific manner with a body movement, e.g. by tension of the whole body. As for specific reactions to single selected stimuli from the environment, such as turning the head in the direction of the mother's voice or relaxing when touched by the mother, half of the children always (10) reacted, the others often (9) responded. Only eight children had awareness of their own body (8) (Table 4).

Table 4. Primary communication in children with CdC syndrome

Primary communication	Frequency (number of responses)				
	never	with help	sometimes	often	always
Non-specific way of expressing own feelings	4	0	9	5	2
Specific way of expressing own feelings	1	0	3	6	10
Non-specific way of reacting to external signals by body movement	2	0	9	6	3
Specific way of reacting to single selected external stimuli	1	0	0	9	10
Awareness of one's own body	1	1	5	5	8

Source: own study.

As for the area of pre-verbal communication at the sensory level, almost half of the children often (9) or always (8) react with a movement to the environment signal. These reactions include, for example, the extension of the arms as a response to the noise or smile at the sight of the mother (Table 5).

Table 5. Sensory communication in children with CdC syndrome.

Sensory communication	Frequency (number of responses)				
	never	with help	sometimes	often	always
Differentiated motor reaction depending on the external signal	1	0	2	9	8
Reacting to the voice – active search for the voice source, temporary establishing and maintaining visual contact	0	0	1	4	15

Source: own study.

Most of the children (15) respond to selected stimuli from the environment, such as the voice of a parent always actively seeking the source of the sound. After localizing the direction from which the voice of the mother or father was heard, the children made a brief eye contact with an adult. The majority of caregivers believe that their children (13) always respond to their name and often initiate contact with another person using a gesture or touch. On the other hand, half of the children (10) always in a specific way signal their needs related to everyday rituals. Fewer children always (8) or often (7) respond to simple verbal messages from the environment. Only a few children sometimes (7) or often (5) signal their needs by a certain gesture or movement. Other communication situations at the level of the organization of one's own behaviour appeared in individual cases – the results are shown in Table 6.

The analysis of the children's contact with the environment at the specific-visual level using the elements of speech sounds showed that the vast majority of children (17) often use gestures in

the situational context and vocalize (14) in order to provoke contact with another person. However, over half (11) always express their emotional states with their facial expression. The evaluation of vocalization in the child with CdC syndrome includes the use of voice to make an attempt to imitate phonemes, syllables, to the extent determined by the readiness of articulation organs.

Table 6. Contact with the environment at the level of organization of one's own behaviour in children with CdC syndrome

Communication at the level of organization of behaviours	Frequency (number of responses)				
	never	with help	sometimes	often	always
Reacting to the sound of one's name	0	0	0	7	13
Reacting to simple verbal messages from the environment	1	1	3	7	8
Specific way of signalling needs related to daily rituals	2	2	3	3	10
Initiating contact with another person by gestures, touch	0	1	1	13	5
Signalling needs with a specific gesture, movement	6	1	7	5	1

Source: own study.

The second most numerous group of behaviours, which were manifested by the children at the level described as „frequent“, is the use of a gesture to show understanding of words (10); signalling one's own needs using a specific sound (9); understanding the meaning of some words and entering into a dialogue through the use of sounds and/or gestures (9), and facial expression to show emotional states (45%); participation in the word-picture dialogue and temporary reaction to the ban by discontinuing the performance of a given activity (8). Other communication situations at the level of contact with the environment were less frequently reported in children – the results are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Contact of children with CdC syndrome with the environment at the specific-visual level using speech sounds elements

Contact with the environment at the specific-visual level with the use of speech sounds elements	Frequency (number of responses)				
	never	with help	sometimes	often	always
Imitating vocalization of the other person	0	2	7	7	4
Vocalizing to provoke contact with another person	1	1	3	14	1
Signalling needs with a specific sound	3	2	2	9	4
Understanding the meaning of some words	0	0	3	9	8
Auditory tracing of the content of the ambient speech	0	1	6	7	6
Participating in the word-and-picture dialogue	2	2	6	8	2
Using a gesture to show that they understand words	4	1	3	10	2
Making attempts to use the voice to imitate phonemes, syllables	2	2	4	7	5
Using facial expression to show emotional states	0	0	0	9	11
Understanding simple commands	1	3	0	7	9
Using gestures in the situational context	0	1	2	17	0
Entering dialogue through the sound and/or gesture	1	2	6	9	2
Pointing with the hand towards an item desired	2	1	2	6	9
Temporary reaction to the ban by discontinuation an activity	1	0	10	8	1

Source: own study.

More than half of the children with CdC covered by the study (12) demonstrate reactions that are understandable to the people around. A significantly smaller group (5) were behaviours that were aimed at making a caregiver aware of the child's needs in a given

situation. The remaining children sporadically made attempts to establish contact (3) (see Table 8).

Most of the children (11) can use gestures and facial expression to demonstrate their needs or well-being. Fewer than half (6) call their mother in a difficult situation requiring support of an adult and signal anxiety to their mother (3) (Table 9).

The vast majority of the children (16) with CdC syndrome seek contact with their mother, and are happy to find her (Table 10).

Table 8. Communication of needs in children with CdC syndrome

Communication of needs and interests	Frequency (number of responses)
Showing needs in an understandable manner	5
Sometimes reacting in an understandable manner	12
Occasional attempts of understandable reactions	3

Source: own study.

Table 9. Establishing contact between children with CdC syndrome and the parent

Communication of needs by establishing contact with the mother	Frequency (number of responses)
Using gestures and eyes (facial expression) to manifest needs or mental states	11
Calling for the mother in a difficult situation	6
Signalling anxiety to the mother	3

Source: own study.

Table 10. The reaction to the mother in children with CdC syndrome

Reaction to the mother	Frequency (number of responses)
Show happiness in an understandable manner when find the mother	16
Look for the mother who hid	3
Do not show any reaction, for example, looking for the mother	1

Source: own study.

In the opinion of the parents, all children in the aspect of:

- auditory reactions: smile in response to talking, touching or stroking; they recognize the father's voice and show it;
- interactions: they produce intentional sounds, cheer up in the contact with relatives; change facial expression depending on the circumstances, explore unknown surroundings, observe strangers;
- communication of needs and interests: they express anger when they are dissatisfied, get close to relatives or acquaintances and reach out their hands to be picked up or hugged (to arose an interest in oneself).

In the opinion of caregivers, most children (16-19) with CdC in the aspect of:

- auditory interactions: stand still when hearing their mother's voice, listen intently to the sounds in the room, cheer up to the voice of siblings, actively react when hear a stranger talking and getting close, search and touch mother's lips when they make sounds, imitate and make intentional sounds directed towards their relatives, distinguish strange, unknown voices signalling their needs to household members;
- interaction: touch the mother's body; distinguish strange, unknown voices, laugh when somebody talks to them, make sounds of the human speech (usually single) in contact with relatives, actively search and examine the faces of household members, reach out their hands to be noticed or hugged, hug in the arms of the mother or relatives in the face of fear of the unknown, wave their hand for goodbye to relatives;
- communication of needs and interests: look for the father at the order of the mother or siblings, stroke, embrace and kiss their parents when asked to do so, bring an item (toy) indicated, look for a person in the household for help (for example, in passing a drink, putting on a potty, doing up clothes, tying shoelaces, etc.) or playing, express an interest in an item by examining it with their hands and mouth (touch, tap, throw, raise, etc.).

Discussion and summary

K. Cornish and J. Pigram examined 27 children with CdC from the United States. The analysis of the level of communication showed that most of the children acquired the ability to communicate without using the verbal sphere. According to the researchers the lack of speech did not hinder communication because the children were able to signal their needs in a non-verbal way¹⁹. A few years later, a study conducted by Á. Rodríguez-Caballero, D. Torres-Lagares et al. also demonstrated that children can express their needs by establishing an appropriate relationship with adults, even though some of them lacked the ability to develop the verbal speech²⁰. The researchers believe that the differences in the level of communication in people with CdC can be attributed to both phenotypic traits and the influence of external environment factors²¹. However, the authors did not specify the type of these behaviours. The above conclusion has also been confirmed by the research presented by the author of this article. The lack of verbal speech in children with CdC does not deprive them of the ability to communicate with relatives. Pre-verbal communication behaviours in children with Cri du Chat shown in this paper are diverse and range from using a gesture to indicate needs at a given moment, to vocalizing in order to provoke contact with another person. Behaviours displayed by the daughter/son and indicated by parents may be the basis for the process of teaching pre-verbal communication. According to M. Buchant, A. Wojciechowska and M. Rzepka this process should include:

¹⁹ K.M. Cornish, J. Pigram, *Developmental and behavioural characteristics of Cri du Chat Syndrome*. Archives of Disease in Childhood, No. 75, 1996, pp. 448–450.

²⁰ Research on verbal speech in children with CdC was carried out in 2007 by KM Kristoffersen, the results are presented in the article “*Speech and language development in cri du chat syndrome: A critical review*”, “*Clinical Linguistics & Phonetics*” June 2008, vol. 22(6), pp. 443–457.

²¹ Á. Rodríguez-Caballero, D. Torres-Lagares, A. Rodríguez-Pérez, M. Serrera Figallo, J-M. Hernández-Guisado, G. Machuca-Portillo, *Cri du chat syndrome: A critical review*, Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal. 2010 May 1, 15(3), p. 477.

- motivating the child to make contact with an adult person,
- giving communication intentions to both sounds and movements made by the child,
- organizing a common field of attention,
- learning to use objects in a functional way,
- initiating simple movement games with a parent and alternating games,
- introducing into the process of therapy/learning objects known by the child with indicating their application²².

Thus, pre-verbal communication behaviours of the child noticed by parents become relevant. The analysis of the empirical material shows that children with CdC aged 2-13 years (D=6) exhibit behaviours at the level of:

- primary communication:
 - o expressing own feelings in a specific way (frequency: always, 10 in total),
 - o responding in a specific way to individual selected stimuli from the environment (frequency: always, 10 in total),
- sensory communication:
 - o responding to the voice, active search for the sound source, establishing a temporary eye contact (frequency: always, 15 in total),
- auditory communication:
 - o vocalizing in order to establish contact (frequency: often, 15 in total),
 - o using gestures to show that they understand words (frequency: often, 10 in total),
 - o using gestures in the situational context (frequency: often, 17 in total),
 - o using facial expression to show emotional states (frequency: always, 11 in total),

²² M. Buchnat, *Cri du Chat Syndrome*, [in:] *Unknown? Understood. Developmental disorders in children with rare genetic syndromes and congenital malformations*, M. Buchnat, K. Pawelczak (ed.), Wyd. Naukowe UAM, Poznań 2013, p. 117.

- organization:
 - o responding to one's name (frequency: always, 13 in total),
 - o signalling needs related to everyday rituals in a specific way (frequency: always, 13 in total),
 - o using gestures to initiate contact with another person (frequency: often, 11 in total),
- signalling needs:
 - o child's reactions are understandable (frequency: sometimes, 12 in total),
 - o using gestures and sight to manifest needs and well-being (frequency: always, 11 in total)
 - o finding the mother and a joy of seeing her (frequency: always, 16 in total).

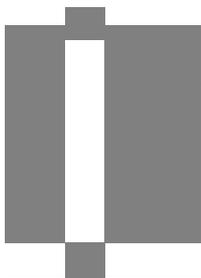
The level of the skills is varied, just like the group of respondents (it is worth reminding that 11 children covered by the study were intellectually disabled).

Parental responses regarding children's communication behaviours prove their high awareness that every action – gesture, sound – is a message that needs to be strengthened and expanded whenever possible. At the same time, parents are aware that the transfer and reception of information by a daughter or son is limited as a consequence of the specificity of both somatic and psychological symptoms in Cri du chat syndrome.

Bibliography

- Buchnat M., *Cri du Chat Syndrome*, [in:] *Unknown? Understood. Developmental disorders in children with rare genetic syndromes and congenital malformations*, M. Buchnat, K. Pawelczak (ed.), Wyd. Naukowe UAM, Poznań 2013, p. 180.
- Buchnat M., Wojciechowska A., Rzepka M., *Supporting the development of speech and communication in children with Cri du Chat Syndrome*, No. 22, 2014, pp. 110-120.
- Campbell D.J., *Early Development of Individuals with Cri du Chat Syndrome* (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Auburn University), Auburn 2002.
- Cornish K.M., Pigram J., *Developmental and behavioural characteristics of Cri du Chat Syndrome*. *Archives of Disease in Childhood*, No. 75, 1996, pp. 448-450.

- Czapiga A. Child with *Cri du Chat syndrome*, [in:] *Ill children, disabled and with developmental difficulties*, B. Cytowska, B. Winczura, A. Stawarski (ed.), Wyd. „Impuls”, Kraków 2013, pp. 121–129.
- Grochowalska M., *Gesticulation and speech. Non-verbal communication in pre-school children*. Wyd. Naukowe Akademii Pedagogicznej, Kraków 2002.
- Grzesiuk L., *Studies on interpersonal communication*, Laboratory of Psychological Tests PTS, Warsaw 1994.
- Kulesza E.M., *Fun in diagnosing the communication skills in the child with mental retardation*, [in:] *Special Education. Different searches – a joint mission. For remembrance of Professor Jan Pańczyk*, Wyd. APS, Warsaw 2009, pp. 248–259.
- Mainardi P.C., *Cri du Chat syndrome*. Orphanet Journal of Rare Diseases, orjrd.biomedcentral.com, dated 09.09.2017.
- Mainardi P.C., Pastore G., Castronovo Ch., Godi M., Guala A., Tamiazzo S., Prover S., Pierluigi M., Bricarelli F., *The natural history of Cri du Chat Syndrome. A report from the Italian Register*. European Journal of Medical Genetics, Volume 49, Issue 5, September–October 2006, pp. 363–383.
- Mainardi P.C., Albani M.L., Pedrinazzi M., *ABC – Cri du Chat Syndrome (Cat cry syndrome)*, information materials published by A.B.C. Associazione Bambini Cri du chat (Association for Children with Cri du Chat syndrome), Italy 2014.
- Minczakiewicz E.M., *Educational and pragmatic aspect of the development of communication in children with coupled developmental disorders*, [in:] *Communication-speech-language in the diagnosis and therapy of developmental disorders in children and adolescents with disabilities*, E.M. Minczakiewicz (ed.), Wyd. Naukowe AP, Kraków 2001, pp. 26–39.
- Piszczyk M., *Alternative and assistive communication methods in the education of children with deep mental impairment and autism*. Part I, Revalidation, No. 2(8), 2000, pp. 13–21.
- Piszczyk M., *Alternative and assistive communication methods in the education of children with deep mental impairment and autism*. Part II, Revalidation, No. 1(9), 2001, pp. 3–21.
- Piszczyk M., *Diagnosis and support for child development. Selected issues*, Wyd. CMPPP, Warsaw 2007.
- Plopa M., *Bonds in marriage and family. Test methods*. Wyd. „Impuls”, Kraków 2005.
- Posmyk R., Midro A.T., *Genetic counselling in the 5p monosomy syndrome (“Cat cry syndrome”). Vol. 1 phenotype diagnosis. Morphological and behaviour phenotype*. Paediatric Review, Vol. 33, No 4, 2003, pp. 265–272.
- Rakowska A., *Language-communication-disability. Selected issues*, Wyd. Naukowe AP, Kraków 2003.
- Rodríguez-Caballero Á., Torres-Lagares D., Rodríguez-Pérez A., M. Serrera Figallo, Hernández-Guisado J.-M., Machuca-Portillo G., *Cri du chat syndrome: A critical review*, Med. Oral. Patol. Oral. Cir. Bucal. 2010 May 1; 15(3), pp. 473–478.



MAGDALENA MAGIERSKA-KRZYSZTOŃ

Karol Marcinkowski Poznań University of Medical Sciences

MAGDALENA OLEMPKA-WYSOCKA

Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań

Linguistic competence of children with prelingual hearing loss implanted up to the age of two

ABSTRACT: Magdalena Magierska-Krzysztoń, Magdalena Olempska-Wysocka, *Linguistic competence of children with prelingual hearing loss implanted up to the age of two*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 157–177. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.09>

Early implantation and hearing and speech rehabilitation provide much wider opportunities to develop linguistic and communicative competence in children with hearing impairment. The article presents own research, the aim of which was to determine the level of linguistic competence in children with prelingual hearing loss, who had been provided with a cochlear implant until the second year of life. The study involved a group of 169 children with prelingual hearing loss. In the study the Ling 6 Sound Test, the MAIS scale, the MUSS scale and the TAPS test were used.

KEY WORDS: Cochlear implants, deaf, linguistic and communicative competence, children with hearing impairment, prelingual hearing loss

Introduction

Cochlear implants significantly changed the possibilities of development and formation of linguistic and communicative competence in children with hearing impairment. As indicated by statistical data, in Western Europe and Australia about 80–90% of children with congenital hearing loss (without multiple disability) undergo early implantation, in the US this number is about 50%¹. In Poland, over 6,000 implants² have been inserted in the last 25 years and this number is growing every year³. Thus, completely new developmental opportunities are created for children with hearing impairment, significantly increasing their chances of development identical to the development of their hearing peers. Referring to the theory of critical/sensitive periods of speech development in children by Robert J. Ruben, it should be remembered that there are specific time constraints in the acquisition of auditory skills, the development of neuronal connections, the formation of phoneme discrimination skills, the organization of speech sounds into larger units, as well as learning mother tongue. If the ability to receive hearing impressions is limited or impossible, during the language acquisition process, neural networks will develop without hearing connections that are necessary for the development of a verbal language⁴.

¹ G. Leigh, J.P. Newall, A.T. Newall, *Newborn screening and earlier intervention with deaf children: Issues for developing world*, [w:] M. Marschark, P. Spencer (ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of deaf studies, language and education*, vol. 2, pp. 345–359, 2010; S. Broersen, *Cochleairr implantaat openet de wereld*, *Medisch Contact*, 65, pp. 528–531, 2010.

² This number applies to both children and adults. Statistical data allow concluding that in 1992–1998, 130 CI implantations were performed, including 55 in children between 2.5 and 17 years of age (Geremek A., Skarżyński H., Szuchnik J., *Program implantów ślimakowych u dzieci – stan obecny*, *Audiofonologia*. Vol. XIII). By 2008, approximately 2 thousand CI were implanted including 63% in children (Szkielewska A. Skarżyński H., Piotrowska A., Lorens A., Szuchnik J., *Postępowanie u dzieci ze wszczepami ślimakowymi*, *Otorynolaryngologia* 2008, 7(3), pp. 121–128).

³ Source: <https://whc.ifps.org.pl/2018/02/miedzynarodowy-dzien-implantu-slimakowego-2/> [access: 20.04.2018].

⁴ R.J. Ruben, *A Time Frame of Critical/Sensitive Periods of Language Development*, *IJO & HNS*. Vol. 51, No. 3, July–September, pp. 85–89, 1999.

Roman Jakobson in the developed linguistic periodization emphasizes that in the first stage of speech, which is the stage of phonological system formation, the chronology of sound learning is permanent, independent of culture and language, and the majority of sounds is learnt around the age of 2⁵. Also Paweł Smoczyński⁶, signalling his connection with structural linguistics, explicitly and directly referring to the findings of R. Jakobson, indicates that the purpose of the child's speech development is not only learning of phoneme, but also of the entire phonological system by a child (the process of developing a sense of the phonological structure of the word in a child). In the process of language acquisition, the child assimilates elements of the system from its various levels. Each level has its own internal developmental order. In this theory, it can be noticed that the first two years of children's life, during which the formation of sounds of speech, the developing of a signalling role of the shout, imitation and self-imitation, the formation of a phonological system, the meaning of words take place, the size and structure of the dictionary changes, as well as the formation of syntax occurs, are the most important. Between the second and third year of life, as well as in the second half of the third year of life a significant increase in vocabulary, development of grammar, syntax, inflection, and semantics is observed. It is also important, as Robert V. Harrison points out, that the most intensive development of the auditory cortex occurs between the 1 and 2 year of children's life⁷.

The literature on the subject, numerous studies, as well as own practice allow noticing that younger and younger children are implanted before the 12th month of life, which gives them much wider opportunities to acquire linguistic and communicative competence, but this does not mean, as emphasized by Kazimiera Krakowiak,

⁵ J. Porayski-Pomsta, *O rozwoju mowy dziecka. Dwa studia*, Dom Wydawniczy Elipsa, Warsaw 2015.

⁶ P. Smoczyński, *Przyswajanie przez dziecko podstaw systemu językowego*, 1955.

⁷ R.V. Harrison, *Development of the Auditory System. From Periphery to Cortex*, Comprehensive Handbook of Pediatric Audiology, pp. 23-46, 2011.

that the access to speech sounds alone is sufficient for the full normalization of the development as well as for the full independence of communication. It is important to introduce here as early as possible and systematic procedures not only relating to speech therapy, but also pedagogical and psychological ones, which will aim to equalize opportunities and, above all, create conditions favourable for language acquisition, and development of communicative skills in natural conditions for every child⁸.

Aim of the study

The aim of the study was to determine the level of linguistic competence of children with prelingual hearing loss, who were implanted with a cochlear implant until the second year of life. The Authors, through their study, would like to obtain answers to the following research questions:

1. Does early implantation: up to the second year of life allow full reception of sounds (including speech sounds) through hearing?
2. Do children with prelingual deafness implanted with a cochlear implant develop the ability to differentiate, distinguish, identify and understand sounds through hearing, which is the basis for acquiring linguistic competence?
3. Are the acquired and continuously developed linguistic competence of children implanted with a cochlear implant sufficient to initiate and maintain verbal contacts with other hearing people?
4. Is the language used by implanted children functional in the social and communication aspect?

⁸ K. Krakowiak, *Propozycje zmian systemowych w zakresie kształcenia dzieci i młodzieży ze specjalnymi potrzebami edukacyjnymi spowodowanymi przez uszkodzenia słuchu (niestyszających, słabostyszających, niedostyszających)*, „Człowiek – Niepełnosprawność – Społeczeństwo” no. 2(32), 2016, pp. 49–66.

Materials, methods

The study involved a group of 169 children with prelingual deafness implanted with a cochlear implant. The implantation was performed until the second year of life. The surgeries were performed in the Department of Otolaryngology and Laryngological Oncology of the Poznań University of Medical Sciences. The average age at the time of implantation for the whole group was 15 months. All study children used hearing aids for a period of at least 6 months before the surgery. After surgery, 89 children continued to use hearing aids to optimally amplify residual hearing in the non-implanted ear. The study group included 83 boys and 86 girls. In twenty children, specialist examinations confirmed genetic determinants of hearing loss, while the remaining group (149 children) presented a differentiated etiology of hearing loss (Table 1). In 60% of children, no direct cause of hearing loss was found, this group is inscribed as etiologically unclassified: unknown cause. 90% of children from the analysed group were subjected to hearing screening tests in maternity and neonatal wards. Hearing loss or profound hearing impairment have been confirmed by further diagnostics. 163 small patients had normal intellectual capacity and additional studies and observations did not show co-occurring developmental dysfunctions. In six patients of the study group mild and moderate intellectual disability was observed, including two cases of co-occurring significant visual impairment and cerebral palsy, which prevented a proper motor development. Six children were born and raised in families, in which parents had significant hearing impairment and the leading language in family communication was sign language. This group of children, from the moment of implantation, was additionally supported by hearing people in their surrounding (aunts, uncles, grandmothers and grandfathers and so-called family friends), who by their presence motivated and created situations favouring the acquisition of language experience. The remaining part of the study group (163 children) originated from families in which all the relatives used sound language and the hearing did not

deviate from the norm. Patients from the moment of diagnosing hearing loss and later after implantation were covered by systematic surdologopedic and psychological rehabilitation in therapeutic facilities in the place of residence or, in the case of older children, at the school or kindergarten. The time of cochlear implant use was from a minimum of three to sixteen years (Table 2). The current educational situation is presented in Table 3.

Table 1. Etiology of hearing loss: congenital, perinatal and acquired factors (N=169)

Etiology of hearing loss	N	%
Congenital factors	148	87
Perinatal factors	18	10
Acquired factors	3	3

Table 2. Time of cochlear implant use in the study group (N=169)

Time of cochlear implant use	N	%
From 3 to 6 years	66	39
From 6 to 10 years	63	37
From 10 to 14 years	38	22
Over 14 years	2	2

Table 3. Current educational situation in the study group (N=169)

Time of cochlear implant use	Kindergarten	Primary school	Lower secondary school	Upper secondary school
From 3 to 6 years	50	16	0	0
From 6 to 10 years	3	60	0	0
From 10 to 14 years	0	28	8	2
Over 14 years	0	0	0	2

The preoperative level of oral speech and language was residual in over 90% of children, and vocal forms they used did not belong to the language system. The way of communicating with the environment at that time was limited to inarticulate sounds, as well as gestures and facial expressions that were aimed at satisfying children's basic needs.

As part of the implementation of the Poznań Program for the Treatment of Hearing Loss by the Method of Cochlear Implants⁹ (Department of Otolaryngology and Laryngological Oncology of the Poznań UM), specialists have developed a diagnostic and evaluation scheme including, among others, performing specific tests at specified intervals using a determined battery of tests. In the research performed for the purposes of this study, the Ling 6 sounds test¹⁰ was used to provide information on the level of auditory perception in the subjects¹¹. In addition, it showed the dynamics of development of discriminatory and identification skills within the presented phonemes on the auditory pathway. In the Poznań Center, the Ling Test is performed up to 3 years from the moment of connecting the speech processor or depending on the individual needs of the patient.

⁹ W. Szyfter, A. Pruszewicz, Z. Szmeja, E. Szymiec et al., *Poznański Program leczenia głuchoty dziecięcej metodą wszczepów ślimakowych*, Otolaryngologia Polska 1997, Vol. L, Supplement 22, pp. 174-178.

¹⁰ S. Scollie, D. Glista, J. Tenhaaf, A. Dunn, A. Malandrino, K. Keene & P. Folkeard, *Stimuli and normative data for detection of Ling-6 sounds in Hearing Level*. American Journal of Audiology, Vol. 21, pp. 232-241, 2012.

¹¹ The Ling 6 sound test, which was created by Daniel Ling, was developed as a quick and simple test that can be used to check the child's access to the minimum number of sounds required to hear, understand and control speech. The Ling test consists of six speech sounds: / m /, / u /, / i /, / a /, / sh / and / s / (in order from low to high sounds). Susan Scollie and Danielle Glista from the University of Western Ontario in Canada have developed a method of measuring the degree of speech detection for use in conditions of access and lack of access to hearing aid based on the basic assumptions of the Ling-6 test (source: <https://www.phonakpro.com/pl/pl/resources/narzedzia-doradcze/dzieci/test-mowy/test-mowy-prze-glad.html> [access: 20.07.2018]).

The MAIS (Meaningful Auditory Integration Scale: a scale of hearing and understanding sounds) scale was used to evaluate hearing and understanding sounds, and the use of speech for basic communication was assessed using the MUSS scale (Meaningful Use of Speech Scale: a scale of speech use for communication). These are tools that provide knowledge about children's functioning in the above-mentioned areas, but they require cooperation from parents and/or teachers, as they answer questions in the questionnaires. In the case of older children with sufficient linguistic competence, it is possible to fill in the questionnaire by the respondents themselves, but it should always be remembered that the assessment may be somewhat subjective. The authors of the MAIS scale are: S. Zimmerman-Philips, M.J. Osberger and A.M. Robbins¹². The MUSS scale has been developed by two authors: A.M. Robbins and M.J. Osberger¹³. The TAPS (Test of Auditory Perception of Speech) test, which was developed at the University of Basel based on the rehabilitation materials of the Cochlear AG company, was also used¹⁴. Adaptation to the conditions of the Polish language was made by G. Demenko and L. Richter within the framework of the Department of Acoustic Phonetics of the Institute of Fundamental Technological Research of the Polish Academy of Sciences with the participation of specialists employed at the Department of Ear, Nose, Throat and Larynx Diseases of the Poznan University of Medical Sciences¹⁵. The test checks the ability to detect, discriminate, identify, as well as recognize and understand speech sounds in closed and open sets, through hearing. If possible, it is recommended to conduct the test before the surgery (using hearing aids), and

¹² A.M. Robbins, *Developing meaningful auditory integration in children with cochlear implants*, "Volta Review" 1990, 92, pp. 361-370.

¹³ A.M. Robbins, M.J. Osberger, *Meaningful Use of Speech Scale*, Indiana University School of Medicine, 1991.

¹⁴ J. Reid, B. Bertram, *Tests of Auditory Perception of Speech for Children*, by Cochlear AG, Basel, Switzerland, August 1992.

¹⁵ G. Demenko, L. Rychter, A. Pruszewicz et al., *Testy do badania słuchowej percepcji mowy (TBPSM) dla dzieci z implantami ślimakowymi*, Otolaryngologia Polska, 1996, Vol. L50.

subsequently after 3 months, 12 months and 36 months of implant use. Additionally, the Linguistic Skills Research Sheet was used, the results of which allowed the analysis of the current children's functioning in terms of understanding, speech production, resources of concepts and articulation skills. It gave the opportunity to analyse the current level of linguistic competence of implanted children. The Linguistic Skills Research Sheet is a clinical, internal tool created for the needs of implementation within the Poznań Program. The authors of the Sheet are Magdalena Magierska-Krzysztoń and Jolanta Kociemba. The level of test tasks is linguistically differentiated, and the commands and tasks are selected depending on the physiological and auditory age of the child counted from the moment of connecting a speech processor. The physiological age conditioning certain linguistic skills is corrected by the current auditory age of the subject. The test using the above-mentioned tool is carried out after a minimum of 3 years of using a cochlear implant, also considering previously assessed preoperative linguistic competence of the study children. So far, the Linguistic Skills Research Sheet was applied to examine 481 patients using a cochlear implant in the Poznań Clinic. The Authors still conduct continuous research and collect information in order to estimate the validity and practical applications of the Linguistic Skills Research Sheet in clinical practice. The studies using the Ling test and the TAPS test were carried out 3 months after the speech processor was connected and then after one year and after three years of using the cochlear implant. Category IV of the TAPS test (understanding of speech through hearing: closed and open resources) was also performed at the current time corresponding to the maximum individual time of implant use.

Results

All study children, using a cochlear implant for about 3 months, flawlessly performed an attempt to detect phonemes through hearing in both the TAPS test and the Ling 6 sound test (Table 4).

Table 4. Detecting phonemes through hearing (TAPS test, level I, 6 Ling sounds test), N=169

Number and percentage of children performing correctly hearing tests		
Detecting phonemes through hearing	Ling 6 sound test	TAPS test, level I
169 (100%)	169 (100%)	169 (100%)

The results obtained by the subjects in the TAPS Test and in the 6 Ling sounds test at an analogous time interval of 3 months from the speech processor connection, demonstrate that the majority of study children learnt the ability to perceive speech rhythm patterns (Table 5, 6). The skill mentioned above is developed on average within up to 6 months of cochlear implant use. The deviation in this area is noticeable in the group of 6 children with co-occurring developmental deficits in the form of intellectual disability, cerebral palsy and visual impairment. This group will also learn the above-mentioned skills, but at a slightly later time as a result of intensified stimulatory and therapeutic actions.

Table 5. Results in the TAPS Test after 3 months of cochlear implant use, level II, N=169

Perception of speech rhythm patterns, percentage level of correct performances	Number of children
70%>	155
50%	9
50%<	5

Table 6. Results in the Ling 6 sounds test, discrimination of individual phonemes, after 3 months of cochlear implant use (N=169)

Discrimination of phonemes through hearing, percentage level of correct performances	Number of children
70%>	156
50%	9
50%<	4

The results obtained in the level III of the TAPS test, demonstrate that the majority of children (over 60%) after one year of implant use coped well with tasks requiring skills of perception of speech features (in the area of perception of suprasegmental and segmental elements of speech) and speech identification. Conducting a rehabilitation focused on the perception of speech sounds also enabled the achievement of such good results in such a short time. A different number of syllables in the test words was a hint to differentiate those speech sounds, the meaning of which children have not learnt yet. Identification of words with the same number of syllables through hearing, was the most difficult for the study children. It was related to the still low level of linguistic functioning, manifested by a small resource of passive and active vocabulary (Table 7). Identification of individual phonemes in the Linga Test after one year of implant use was not a problem for most subjects. Sounds were presented in the form of sound-imitating expressions, which are first acquired linguistic experience and that is why the children managed so well with this task (Table 8).

Table 7. Results in the TAPS Test after one year of cochlear implant use, level III (N = 169)

Perception of speech features, speech identification, the level of correct performances	Number of children
70%>	104
50%	45
50%<	20

Table 8. Results in the Ling 6 sounds test, identification of phonemes, after one year of cochlear implant use (N=169)

Identification of phonemes, the level of correct performances	Number of children
70%>	145
50%	20
50%<	4

Table 9. Results in the TAPS Test, depending on the time of cochlear implant use, level IV (N=169)

Time of cochlear implant use	Number of children with individual test performance levels: Recognition, understanding of speech					
	Closed sets			Open sets		
	70%>	50%	50%<	70%>	50%	50%<
1 year	60	52	48	55	50	55
3 years	94	46	29	79	48	42

The performance of test tasks at level IV in the TAPS test requires knowledge of the language at the functional level. Closed sets contain sentences consisting of a subject, a predicate and an object. For proper performance of tasks, it is necessary to correctly interpret the inflectional endings that give meaning to particular words. The results (Table 9) show that 48 children after one year of implant use did not achieve a result that would account for 50% of correct answers in the area of closed linguistic sets. Linguistic tasks from the open set do not have an equivalent in the test material, that is, the image designator. The reception and correct interpretation of language messages at this test level require the efficient use of language in different social situations. Knowledge of language in the semantic, syntactic and morphological aspect is essential in this area of tasks and guarantees communication success and satisfaction in verbal contacts with other people. Achieving a sufficient level of speech understanding through hearing within the test tasks turned out to be a difficult task for the study group even after three years of implant use (Table 9). The thematic circle to which the test tasks referred was known to children (a story taking place in a kitchen and in a room), but to properly interpret the issues heard, it was necessary to demonstrate a good knowledge of syntax and grammar, which are determinants of the level of linguistic competence. The obtained results show that 94 of the study children only three years after implantation achieve satisfactory results in the interpretation of language tasks and commands in closed sets.

A smaller number of subjects (79 children) achieve results above 70% validity in the test tasks from open sets. The remaining part of the group requires further intensive stimulation in language areas that are not sufficiently developed.

Table 10. Results, MUSS Scale, Meaningful Use of Speech Scale, depending on the time of cochlear implant use (N=169)

Time of cochlear implant use	The number of children with given scores in the Meaningful Use of Speech Scale														
	Voice control level					Speech use level					Level of communication attitude				
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
From 3 to 6 years	0	0	3	40	23	0	0	12	33	21	0	0	13	35	18
From 6 to 10 years	0	0	5	14	44	0	0	5	13	45	0	0	4	13	46
From 10 to 14 years	0	0	0	7	31	0	0	0	6	32	0	0	0	8	30
Over 14 years	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
Total	0	0	8	61	100	0	0	17	52	100	0	0	17	56	96

Legend: 0 - never, 1 - rarely, 2 - sometimes, 3 - often, 4 - always.

Table 11. Results, MAIS scale, Meaningful Auditory Integration Scale depending on the time of cochlear implant use (N=169)

Time of cochlear implant use	The number of children with given scores in the Meaningful Auditory Integration Scale														
	Device acceptance level					Level of reaction to sounds					Level of understanding sounds meaning				
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
From 3 to 6 years	0	0	0	6	60	0	0	9	3	54	0	0	8	29	29
From 6 to 10 years	0	0	0	3	60	0	0	0	6	57	0	0	0	11	52
From 10 to 14 years	0	0	0	0	38	0	0	0	3	35	0	0	0	6	32
Over 14 years	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
Total	0	0	0	9	160	0	0	9	12	148	0	0	8	46	115

Legend: 0 - never, 1 - rarely, 2 - sometimes, 3 - often, 4 - always.

The MUSS scale (Table 10) provides results concerning the active use of speech for daily communication by implanted children. It is noticeable that implanted children spontaneously use speech to communicate with family members or other people with normal hearing. In own opinion, as well as in the opinion of the parents, providing a cochlear implant causes that children are eager to use the voice, and develop a readiness and a specific communication attitude that results in starting dialogues, and the end result of such discourse is the acquisition of the necessary information. It can be observed that in the group who has used implants for the shortest time, that is for up to 6 years, there is a greater number of children who have difficulties in the area of controlling the intensity and tone colour of their own voice. Moreover, the level of speech use and the development of a communication attitude favourable for establishing contacts with others is burdened with difficulties in relation to the group of children using the implant for a longer time. The results obtained in the MAIS Scale (Table 11) also demonstrate that the problems associated with the reception and a complex process of perception of all surrounding sounds including speech decrease with the lengthening of implant use. The longer the time of implant use, the better the effects. It is related to the time needed by deaf children to learn language patterns that will enable building

Table 12. Results, Linguistic Skills Research Sheet, current level of performance in the study group depending on the time of cochlear implant use (N = 169)

Linguistic skills	Average level of language tests performance in children after different times of implant use			
	CI using time from 3 to 6 years (N=66)	CI using time from 6 to 10 years (N=63)	CI using time from 10 to 14 years (N=38)	CI using time over 14 years (N=2)
Understanding	58%	65%	75%	98%
Speech production	70%	75%	80%	100%
Resource of concepts	45%	65%	70%	95%
Phonation	70%	85%	88%	97%

and developing linguistic competence. This time is analogous as in the case of hearing children who need about six or seven years to become proficient in their mother tongue. A deaf child, although implanted, is still limited by a lower level of auditory functioning in comparison to his hearing peers, which may consequently interfere with the phonological processing process, which, as known from therapeutic experience, determines the acquisition of a phonemic analysis and synthesis skill.

Analysing the results in Table 12, it can be observed that children who use a cochlear implant for the longest time, over 10 years, obtain the highest scores in all studied areas. It can be noticed that linguistic competence increases proportionally to the time of cochlear implant use. The Linguistic Skills Research Sheet used in the study allows analysing in an individual way the level of linguistic functioning of a given child and on this basis creating a supportive therapeutic program that aims to minimize deficiencies and deficits. The greatest difficulty faced by the majority of implanted, even at such an early age, children is to build an adequate resource of concepts in comparison to the resources acquired by their hearing peers and the minimum age standard. Most probably, this difficulty is connected with the deprivation of the ability to receive acoustic features characteristic of given objects, surrounding phenomena, people and animals, in early childhood, before the implantation. The acquisition and consolidation of the mechanism of incorrect interpretation of reality, without acoustic components, resulted in a non-harmonious cognitive development. This impaired the process of concepts acquisition and resulted in the accumulation of further retardations in the development of speech and language. The results contained in Table 13 regarding the current level of TAPS test performance demonstrate a clear progression of skills in the field of auditory functioning of the study children in comparison to the results achieved in the third year of the functioning with the cochlear implant. The current level of performance of test tasks shows that the possibility of a long-term access to the oral language through hearing after implantation gives a chance to overcome the

Table 13. Results in the TAPS Test, level IV, depending on the time of cochlear implant use (N=169)

Time of cochlear implant use	Number of children with individual test performance levels: Recognition, understanding of speech					
	Closed sets			Open sets		
	70%>	50%	50%<	70%>	50%	50%<
From 3 to 6 years	60	5	1	55	9	2
From 6 to 10 years	62	1	0	60	3	0
From 10 to 14 years	38	0	0	38	0	0
Over 14 years	2	0	0	2	0	0

phonetic barrier¹⁶ (1), which is faced by deaf children with prelingual hearing loss for the rest of their lives. The early age of children at the time of implantation (up to the second year of life) shows that it is possible to achieve linguistic competence similar to the age norm, and the language used by the subjects is a living, dynamic formation that undergoes to a continuous development process. For the majority of children in the study group, the language is functional and serves to satisfy the needs, including those of a higher order. Implanted children are familiar with the smooth movement in the world of abstract concepts, as well as creative assimilation and accommodation in the linguistic sphere.

Discussion

Prelingual hearing loss is the kind of hearing loss with consequences that must be dealt with throughout whole life. The hearing impairment factor occurs in the period preceding the active development of speech. Lack of auditory perception of suprasegmental and segmental elements of speech causes disturbances in the matu-

¹⁶ Z.M. Kurkowski, *Mowa dzieci sześciolletnich z uszkodzonym słuchem*, UMCS Lublin 1996, pp. 60–70.

ration of the auditory cortex. Fortunately, a deaf child still has the so-called physiological "attitude and readiness" to learn speech, especially until the second or even third year of life. That is why the earliest possible implantation¹⁷, which prevents the occurrence of irreversible negative changes within the auditory pathway, is so important¹⁸. Children operated in the Department of Otolaryngology of the Poznań University of Medical Sciences are a group that was provided with a cochlear implant before the second year of life. Long-term observations regarding functioning in the auditory and linguistic sphere after implantation show that the study group achieves satisfactory results in speech rehabilitation, its better understanding, faster increase in passive and active vocabulary as well as a greater self-control of voice and correctness of spoken words. Similar conclusions were drawn by Szagun¹⁹, Miyamoto²⁰ and Lesinski²¹ based on the observation of the rehabilitation progress in children implanted before the age of five and three.

In the presented results, a difference between groups of children can be observed, which, although all were implanted before the second year of life, function in different ways both in terms of hearing and language, depending on the time of cochlear implant use. The longer the time of implant active use, the better the results in

¹⁷ A.F.M. Snik, M.J.A. Makhdoum, *The relations between age at the time of cochlear implantation and longterm speech perception abilities in congenitally deaf subjects*, Int. J. Pediatr. Otorhinolaryngol 1997, 41, pp. 121-131.

¹⁸ M. Manrique, A. Huarte, *Indications and contraindications for cochlear implantation in children*, Am. J. Otol. 1998, pp. 332-336.

¹⁹ G. Szagun, *The aquisition of grammatical and lexical structures in children with cochlear implants: a development psycholinguistic approach*, Audio Neurootol 2000, pp. 39-47.

²⁰ R.T. Miyamoto, K.I. Kirk, *Speechperception and speech production skills of children with multichannel cochlear implants*, Acta Otolaryngol (Stockh) 1996, 116, pp. 240-243; R.T. Miyamoto, K.I. Kirk, *Communication skills in pediatric cochlear implant recipients*, Acta Otolaryngol (Stockh) 1999, pp. 219-224.

²¹ A. Lesinski, R.D. Battmer, *Appropriate age for cochlear implantation in children: experience since 1986 with 359 implanted children*, Adv. Otorhinolaryngol. 1997, 52, pp. 214-217.

terms of understanding speech through hearing and using the language in social situations. Our observations seem to be analogous to the observations of Ponton et al²², who believe that as the rehabilitation related to the time of CI use continues, the auditory and verbal skills of implanted children increase. The results obtained by the study group in the Test of Auditory Perception of Speech (TAPS) indicate that after a long-term rehabilitation, children are able to achieve speech understanding in open sets and even the ability to talk over the phone. Our observations show that the time needed to achieve such skills is from 6 to 7 years from the moment of implantation with systematic therapeutic support. Numerous authors²³ present results similar to those obtained in the Poznań Centre, stating that 5 years after the implantation, all children achieve speech understanding in open sets in the TAPS test or other tests designed to assess the development of auditory speech perception.

Deaf children, early implanted (the average age at the time of implantation is 15 months) are quite good at understanding verbal messages, produce speech sounds that have meaning in the language system, but are they able to communicate effectively²⁴? The primary goal of rehabilitation of implanted children is to stimulate the development of speech and language in all its aspects, with particular emphasis on advanced, adequate formation of phrasemes. Research carried out with the use of a tool developed at the Poznań Centre (the Linguistic Skills Research Sheet) demonstrate that a long-term use of a cochlear implant (seven years or longer) seems

²² C.W. Ponton, J.J. Eggermont, M. Don, *Maturation of the mismatch negativity effects of profound children and cochlear implant use*, *Audiol. Neurootol* 2000, 5, pp. 167-185.

²³ C.W. Ponton, J.J. Eggermont, M. Don, *Maturation of the mismatch negativity effects of profound children and cochlear implant use*, *Audiol. Neurootol* 2000, 5, pp. 167-185; S. Archbold, M. Lutman, D. Marschal, *Categories of auditory performance*, *Ann. Otol. Rhinol. Laryngol.* 1995, 104 (suppl. 166), pp. 312-314; S. Archbold, M.E. Lutman, *Categories of auditory performance: inter user reliability*, *Br. J. Audiol.* 1998, 32, pp. 7-12; B. Mc Cornic, *Audiometric evaluation of hearing loss in children*, *Scand. Audiol.* 1997, 26 (suppl. 46), pp. 26-31.

²⁴ A. Mc Conkey Robbins, M. Svirsky, *Children with implants can speak but cant they communicate?*, *Otolaryngol Head Nesk Surg* 1997, 117, pp. 155-160.

to be enough for the language to develop sufficiently to communicate with other people. The knowledge of language code, although in many cases still not perfect and revealing certain limitations, provides the implanted children with the opportunity for everyday creative discovery and building their own, individual language. Children with an implant gain access to previously unavailable information sources. They have a chance to acquire knowledge according to the same rules as their hearing peers and do not feel isolated from the environment in which the dominant perceptual channel is hearing and receiving sounds from the environment and human speech with its use.

Conclusions

1. Children with prelingual hearing loss, implanted up to the age of two, are able to perceive, distinguish, recognize and remember acoustic stimuli.

2. The level of auditory perception for individual groups of the study children is determined, among others, by the time implant use.

3. The process of speech development and acquisition of linguistic competence by implanted children is subject to continuous development and improvement of already acquired structures.

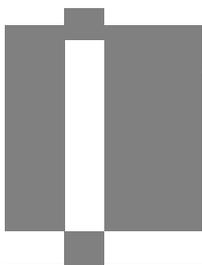
4. All children implanted before the second year of life reached a level of linguistic competence, which is sufficient for full functioning in the linguistic sphere in the environment of hearing people.

Bibliography

- Archbold S., Lutman M., Marschal D., *Categories of auditory performance*, Ann. Otol. Rhinol. Laryngol. 1995, 104 (suppl. 166), pp. 312-314.
- Archbold S., Lutman M.E., *Categories of auditory performance: inner user reliability*, Br. J. Audiol. 1998, 32, pp. 7-12.

- Aronson L., Estienne P., *Telephone speech comprehension in children with multichannel cochlear implants*, *Am. J. Otol.* 1997, 18 (suppl), pp. 151-152.
- Broersen S., *Cochleairr implantaat openet de wereld*, *Medisch Contact*, 65, pp. 528-531, 2010.
- Demenko G., Rychter L., Pruszewicz A. et al., *Testy do badania słuchowej percepcji mowy (TBPSM) dla dzieci z implantami ślimakowymi*, *Otolaryngologia Polska*, 1996, T. L50.
- Geremek A., Skarżyński H., Szuchnik J., *Program implantów ślimakowych u dzieci – stan obecny*, *Audiofonologia*. Tom XIII, 1999.
- Harrison R.V., *Development of the Auditory System. From Periphery to Cortex*, *Comprehensive Handbook of Pediatric Audiology*, 2011.
- Krakowiak K., *Propozycje zmian systemowych w zakresie kształcenia dzieci i młodzieży ze specjalnymi potrzebami edukacyjnymi spowodowanymi przez uszkodzenia słuchu (niesłyszących, słabosłyszających, niedosłyszających)*, „Człowiek – Niepełnosprawność – Społeczeństwo”, no. 2(32), 2016, pp. 49-66.
- Kurkowski Z.M., *Mowa dzieci sześcioletnich z uszkodzonym słuchem*, UMCS Lublin 1996.
- Leigh G., Newall J.P., Newall A.T., *Newborn screening and earlier intervention with deaf children: Issues for developing world*, [w:] M. Marschark, P. Spencer (ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of deaf studies, language and education*, vol. 2, pp. 345-359, 2010.
- Lesinski A., Battmer R.D., *Appropriate age for cochlear implantation in children: experience since 1986 with 359 implanted children*, *Adv. Otorhinolaryngol.* 1997, 52, pp. 214-217.
- Manrique M., Huarte A., *Indications and contraindications for cochlear implantation in children*, *Am. J. Otol.* 1998, pp. 332-336.
- Mc Conkey Robbins A., Svirsky M., *Children with implants can speak but can they communicate?*, *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 1997, 117, pp. 155-160.
- Mc Cornic B., *Audiometric evaluation of hearing loss in children*, *Scand Audiol* 1997, 26 (suppl. 46), pp. 26-31.
- Miyamoto R.T., Kirk K.I., *Communication skills in pediatric cochlear implant recipients*, *Acta Otolaryngol (Stockh)* 1999, pp. 219-224.
- Miyamoto R.T., Kirk K.I., *Speech perception and speech production skills of children with multichannel cochlear implants*, *Acta Otolaryngol (Stockh)* 1996, 116, pp. 240-243.
- Ponton C.W., Eggermont J.J., Don M., *Maturation of the mismatch negativity effects of profound children and cochlear implant use*, *Audiol. Neurootol* 2000, 5, pp. 167-185.
- Porayski-Pomsta J., *O rozwoju mowy dziecka. Dwa studia*, Dom Wydawniczy Elipsa, Warszawa 2015.
- Reid J., Bertram B., *Tests of Auditory Perception of Speech for Children*, by Cochlear AG, Basel, Switzerland, August 1992.
- Robbins A.M., Osberger M.J., *Meaningful Use of Speech Scale*, Indiana University School of Medicine, 1991.

- Robbins A.M., *Developing meaningful auditory integration in children with cochlear implant*, "Volta Review" 1990, 92, pp. 361-370.
- Ruben R.J., *A Time Frame of Critical/Sensitive Periods of Language Development*, IJO & HNS. Vol. 51, No. 3, July-September, pp. 85-89, 1999.
- Smoczyński P., *Przyswajanie przez dziecko podstaw systemu językowego*, Zakład im. Ossolińskich, Wrocław 1955.
- Snik A.F.M., Makhdoum M.J.A., *The relations between age at the time of cochlear implantation and long-term speech perception abilities in congenitally deaf subjects*, Int. J. Pediatr. Otorhinolaryngol. 1997, 41, pp. 121-131.
- Szagan G., *The acquisition of grammatical and lexical structures in children with cochlear implants: a development psycholinguistic approach*, Audio Neurotol 2000, 5, pp. 39-47.
- Szkiełkowska A. Skarżyński H., Piotrowska A., Lorens A., Szuchnik J., *Postępowanie u dzieci ze wszczepami ślimakowymi*, Otorinolaryngologia 2008, 7(3), pp. 121-128.
- Szyfter W., Pruszewicz A., Szmaja Z., Szymiec E. i in., *Poznański Program leczenia głuchoty dziecięcej metodą wszczepów ślimakowych*, Otolaryngologia Polska 1997, Vol. L, Supplement 22, pp. 174-178.
- <https://whc.ifps.org.pl/2018/02/miedzynarodowy-dzien-implantu-slimakowego-2/> [access: 20 April 2018].



KORNELIA CZERWIŃSKA

Academy of Special Needs Education in Warsaw

AGNIESZKA PISKORSKA

Warsaw University, Polish Association of Modern Languages

Blindness and pragmatic competence in communication

ABSTRACT: Kornelia Czerwińska, Agnieszka Piskorska, *Blindness and pragmatic competence in communication*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 179–198. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.10>

The paper argues that gaps in knowledge attested in congenitally blind individuals may negatively affect their performance in foreign language tasks testing reading comprehension. Characteristics of a blind learner at various stages of cognitive and educational development are presented, with focus on gaps in knowledge resulting from visual impairment. The concept of pragmatic competence is first explained generally in reference to communication and then it is applied to a case of a comprehension task taken from a secondary school leaving examination exam (Polish “matura”, basic level). An analysis of the text indicates that despite being relatively simple in linguistic terms, comprehension tasks may pose a significant processing challenge to blind students due to a large amount of implicitly communicated information dependent on visual experience.

KEY WORDS: blind student, EFL, comprehension, gaps in knowledge, pragmatic competence

Foreword

In this article, we use a descriptive and critical analysis of sources to present the role of pragmatic competence in communicating in mother tongue or foreign language. The competence involves understanding the intention of the author of a message, which is usually beyond the exact wording of the message and closely linked with general knowledge of the world. Understanding the role of pragmatic competence in communication is of vital importance in foreign language teaching to visually disabled persons, especially persons with congenital blindness, whose image of the world may lack knowledge that is acquired through visual stimuli, as numerous papers suggest¹.

We believe that highlighting the pragmatic aspects of verbal communication, and in particular the role of context in the process, is of vital importance for understanding the difficulties that a student, as well as any other blind person, experiences while learning a foreign language. The process of teaching a foreign language in school environment is always based on certain context delivered in texts selected by the authors of student books. For example, written and spoken texts concern school life, free time, environmental protection, celebrities, etc. The authors of student books make sure the texts cover a broad range of topics and are interesting and entertaining, in order to increase the learner's internal motivation to learn the subject. On the one hand, diversified content in foreign language books may be an added value for learners with visual disability, offering them an opportunity to learn more about the world, but on the other hand, we want to emphasise in this article the fact that relying on knowledge of the world associated with visual infor-

¹ B. Marek, *A blind child in an English classroom*. "Network", 1999, no. 2/1, pp. 3-8; A. Marzec, *Multiple Intelligences in Second Language Learning: Evidence from Sighted and Totally Blind Students*. Rozprawa doktorska, KUL Jana Pawła II, Lublin 2017; J. Sak-Wernicka, *The guru effect in blind people's comprehension*, [in:] *Applications of Relevance Theory: From Discourse to Morphemes*, red. A. Piskorska, E. Wałaszewska, Cambridge Scholars Publishing, Newcastle upon Tyne, 2017, pp. 103-116.

mation in language comprehension tests may negatively affect the performance of blind persons. The example discussed below shows that the problem concerns mainly situations where, based on visual information, a learner must make conclusions concerning the implicit layer of the text, i.e. meaning that is not explicitly expressed.

The consequences of blindness for communication

The dominant role of vision in exploring the physical and natural world as well as social and cultural reality means that congenital eye damage significantly hinders or limits fast and effective performance of numerous activities, especially in such areas as: obtaining information through observation or from written texts and graphics, spatial cognition and independent mobility, and daily routines. The impact of visual disability on various aspects of the education and psychosocial development of an individual depends on a number of personal and environmental factors, while the complexity of influences implies a high heterogeneity of the educational and developmental possibilities and needs in that population. The area where the negative consequences of the dysfunction are clearly visible and particularly important for an individual's learning process is communication, in the broad meaning of the word².

Analyses concerning difficulties in communication experienced by congenitally blind persons take into account in particular such aspects as: sensory acquisition of information about items, objects, persons or phenomena as the basis to develop natural concepts, non-verbal messages and their role in understanding the full context of a given situation or using written texts, graphics and films in teaching-learning processes³.

² R. Walthes, *Einführung in die Blinden- und Sehbehindertenpädagogik*, Reinhardt Verlag, München 2005, p. 52.

³ Given its purpose and limited volume, the article does not discuss in detail the functions, conditions or possibilities for using texts, graphics and films to teach foreign languages to the blind. It should be noted, however, that although recom-

The inability to visually acquire data about the physical and social environment makes it difficult to mentally construct representative models of the reality. Natural concepts are developed through direct experience of objects and observation of phenomena, activities and processes in various contexts. Thus, mental images of the important properties of an item or phenomenon require an adequate sensory base, which, in the case of blindness, implies the need to develop effective compensatory strategies, based mainly on the sense of touch and hearing⁴. Experiencing objects without the eyes takes time and engages a lot of attention and memory, but at the same time it is fragmentary and the images based on such experience usually lack certain details, thus being to some extent simplified. It should be noted that deficits in the conceptual resources of blind learners are observed not only in association with objects or phenomena unattainable through the sense of touch due to their strictly visual nature, size, distance or consistency, but are also visible in the case of concepts whose physical designations are available through immediate demonstration⁵. Lack of sensory data, imprecise sensory experiences, inability to comprehend certain important relations between respective elements of the environment – if they are not properly compensated by rehabilitation and school education – may lead to gaps in general knowledge and/or untrue information, which, in turn, will disturb the development of new models and mental representations of the reality in the learning process.

mendations concerning the standards for developing and/or adapting this type of tools are broadly discussed in national and international publications, their availability to visually disabled persons of various ages in Poland remains insufficient.

⁴ K. Jaworska-Biskup, *Dlaczego warto uczyć dzieci niewidome języków obcych? Język obcy jako kompensacyjne narzędzie w procesie poznawania świata i zdobywania wiedzy na temat pojęć*, [in:] *Wyzwania współczesnej pedagogiki specjalnej – praktyka edukacyjna i rewalidacyjna*, ed. T. Żółkowska, B. Ostapiuk, M. Wlazło, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego, Szczecin 2010, p. 159.

⁵ E. Więckowska, *Edukacja nie wystarczy – potrzeby rewalidacyjne dziecka niewidomego w wieku szkolnym*, [in:] *Uwarunkowania i kierunki rozwoju pedagogiki specjalnej*, ed. B. Antoszevska, Cz. Kosakowski, Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek, Toruń 2011, p. 124.

Gaps in knowledge that negatively affect the effectiveness of the education of blind students, including the acquisition of mother tongue and foreign language skills, are proven both by school practice and academic research. Surveys conducted among 190 educators for the blind in educational institutions specialising in teaching visually disabled children and youth show that the main problems observed in those students include, among other things: lack or distorted images of the surrounding reality, especially plants, animals, objects, low general knowledge, problems with cause-and-effect thinking and abstract thinking, low level of spatial imagination, etc. Noting learners' problems with acquiring and properly and fully understanding information about the immediate and more distant environments as well as their inability to adequately apply that information in a given situational context, the teachers emphasised the need to introduce new methods and techniques aimed at removing conceptual deficits⁶.

Analysis of individual cases concerning the functioning of blind students on English language lessons revealed problems with using concepts that required understanding of the specific properties of visual perception, knowledge of the visual features of objects and phenomena (such as colour, transparency, gloss), using spatial relations and having knowledge of the socially acceptable behaviour in specific situations, e.g. at a medical appointment⁷. Also, gaps in knowledge resulting from the inability to visually observe changes taking place in human body as a result of growing, maturing and

⁶ J. Dłuska, M. Karwowska, W. Karasińska (ed.), *Świat w zasięgu ręki. Dobre praktyki w edukacji uczniów z dysfunkcją wzroku – projekt „Bliżej świata – od konkretnego do abstrakcji”*, SOSW nr 1 dla Dzieci i Młodzieży Słabo Widzącej i Niewidomej, Bydgoszcz 2011, pp. 11–13.

⁷ A. Piskorska, T. Krzeszowski, B. Marek, *Uczeń z dysfunkcją wzroku na lekcji angielskiego. Wskazówki metodyczne dla nauczycieli*, Uniwersytet Warszawski, Warszawa, 2008, pp. 90–92; K. Jaworska-Biskup, *Dlaczego warto uczyć dzieci niewidome języków obcych? Język obcy jako kompensacyjne narzędzie w procesie poznawania świata i zdobywania wiedzy na temat pojęć*, [in:] *Wyzwania współczesnej pedagogiki specjalnej – praktyka edukacyjna i rewalidacyjna*, ed. T. Żółkowska, B. Ostapiuk, M. Wlazło, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego, Szczecin 2010, pp. 160–161.

getting old, and inability to register dynamic activities were reported. Data obtained from case studies should not be overgeneralised, as the level of a blind learner's knowledge depends mainly on the experiences they have had, including whether they have had an opportunity to immediately explore and actively discover and operate in a given space with the assistance of a seeing person (parent, sibling, teacher, educator, guardian, friend), whose verbal commentaries may help understand a given situation correctly and provide information that is completely unavailable in independent exploration due to the child's dysfunction, e.g. inform whether a given phenomenon has any colour or not.

To some extent, the teachers' observations in school conditions correspond to the result of research conducted in a group of 25 blind learners aged between 7 and 12 years attending special schools, which proved that eye damage may be successfully compensated by the other senses in exploring the existing reality, but only on the condition that the scope and type of stimulation provided is optimal and tailored to a child's individual needs. An insufficient or inadequate number of stimuli caused in the subjects egocentrism, knowledge gaps or misunderstanding of concepts. Some learners had such limited knowledge that they could not give any answers. Younger learners tended to be egocentric in language – their associations concerned objects from the area of their interests, well known from everyday life and repetitive, standard activities. In the case of colours, the subjects mentioned their personal property. Unlike the control group, they did not have the ability to specify details of these concept or determine them more precisely, or give less typical examples. There were also questions about the colour of objects or phenomena that do not have this feature. It should be noted that both seeing and blind learners interpreted colour from the perspective of symbolic and emotive meaning, and the lexicon of blind children was particularly elaborate in this respect. Moreover, blind learners could determine a given phenomenon and specify its features, and the analysis proved that they had acquired and assimilated ready-made concepts communicated to them by others. What

was also characteristic of the blind was their ability to think by analogy⁸. A strong interdependence between conceptual resources of young blind learners and their personal everyday experiences, revealed in the research, suggests that the educational process should be very sensitive to individual differences in this group, and in particular to the existing knowledge of learners. It should also be noted that, since blind learners closely associate a given phenomenon, item, visual feature or pattern of behaviour with specific contexts that are familiar to them, they may have problems properly understanding them in different situations. For example, wearing a tight, red dress for a job interview or for a funeral is inappropriate in both cases, however, in order to be able to correctly interpret such behaviour, broader knowledge of the symbolism of colours and their use in various sociocultural contexts is required.

The risk of knowledge gaps was also reported in older blind learners. Research conducted in a group of 53 junior secondary and secondary school students show that their written definitions of selected objects and natural phenomena of differing availability (birch, meadow, wasp, river, rainbow) were more elaborate than in the control group, however, they contained more untrue and scientifically not sound information. Inadequate descriptions of objects were probably due to lack of direct experience and proper representation in the form of spatial models, layouts, or tactile images, and inability to naturally assimilate the acquired information through unrestricted observations of the environment in daily situations⁹. It should be noted, however, that some of the mistakes made by the subjects may suggest misuse of analogies in the teaching-learning process. Sometimes learners associated an object with properties that were characteristic only of another object to which the former was compared. Perhaps, when the common features of both objects

⁸ K. Jaworska-Biskup, *Wpływ rozumienia pojęć przez dzieci niewidome na nauczanie języków obcych*, „Szkoła Specjalna” 2009, no. 1(248), pp. 26–31.

⁹ N. Mikołajczak-Matyja, *Wiedza o obiektach i zjawiskach naturalnych w definicjach konstruowanych przez niewidomych i widzących użytkowników języka*, „Szkoła Specjalna” 2006, no. 2, pp. 89–103.

were presented, their differences were not highlighted, which, for a seeing person, may seem evident; for example when comparing the body of the wasp to the bee, with which learners are already familiar, without explaining that the two species live in different places, or comparing the construction of the airplane to the bird, not noting the differences in their respective flying techniques.

The above research confirm the thesis made by numerous authors that¹⁰ the pool of personal experiences of visual disabled learners at the beginning of education is poorer in quantity as well as in quality. They also show that the basic goal of rehabilitative education should be to correct misrepresentations, remove cognitive gaps and prevent the development of incorrect concepts. In this respect, compensatory functions may well be performed by language classes, including foreign language classes, in which learners could have a chance to broaden their understanding of concepts in different contexts. Foreign language learning is also associated with acquiring in-depth knowledge of numerous sociocultural standards and development of the ability to behave properly in various situations¹¹, which in turn may effectively minimise the negative effect of blindness in the non-verbal aspect of communication.

Perception of non-verbal elements of communication by the blind is limited and lack of natural experiences gained through independent observations and direct personal interactions makes it difficult to understand the function and meaning of mimicry, head position and movements, gestures or physical distance. Knowledge of the specificity of nonverbal behaviour, obtained automatically by seeing persons in the course of their development, must be acquired by a blind person in a planned, controlled and systematic way, and much support is needed both in family environment and in rehabili-

¹⁰ Por. B. Papuda-Dolińska, *Dziecko z niepełnosprawnością wzroku w roli ucznia szkoły ogólnodostępnej, integracyjnej i specjalnej*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej, Lublin 2017, pp. 68-78.

¹¹ A. Olczak, *Język obcy w kształceniu zintegrowanym*, [in:] *Dziedziny kształcenia w klasach I-III*, ed. M. Magda-Adamowicz, L. Kataryńczuk-Mania, Wydawnictwo Akademickie Żak, Warszawa 2013, pp. 41-45.

tation and education. In the process of early development support in blind children, parents and guardians are recommended to introduce play activities presenting certain nonverbal signals typically used in interactions, such as expressing emotions, gesticulating or body and head position in different types of contact. It is noted, however¹², that in the case of certain elements of nonverbal communication (e.g. spatial distance in contacts / situations of different degree of intimacy), it is extremely difficult to convey the necessary information, as this area is interpreted mainly on the basis of visual suggestions and intuition. Lack of vision limits the ability to precisely evaluate spatial relations in social contacts and register changes taking place in the immediate and more distant environments, and consequently, to adapt behaviour to the demands of a given situation. As research results suggest¹³, blind persons have problems understanding the full context of a communication situation due to inability to receive or difficulties with unequivocally interpreting the behaviour and body language of interlocutors.

Another area of communication negatively affected by blindness is the delivery of information through teaching aids, whose standards versions are not adapted to the perceptive possibilities of persons with this kind of dysfunction¹⁴. In the case of language teaching, this issue seems to be particularly important, as lack of adequate adaptations for the blind significantly hinders balanced development of all the linguistic competencies, in particular reading and writing. Technological progress resulting in a broad selection of

¹² J. Konarska, *Aktywność komunikacyjna dzieci niewidomych jako warunek ich prawidłowego rozwoju i zapobieganie dystansowi społecznemu*, [in:] *Dystans społeczny wobec osób z niepełnosprawnością jako problem pedagogiki specjalnej. Tom I. Przyczyny – Konsekwencje – Przeciwdziałanie*, ed. M. Parchomiuk, B. Szabała, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej, Lublin 2012, p. 188.

¹³ See E. Śmiechowska-Petrovskij, *Komunikacja niewerbalna w relacji niewidomy-widzący*, [in:] *Współczesni ludzie wobec wyzwań i zagrożeń XXI wieku*, ed. H. Liberska, A. Malina, D. Suwalska-Barancewicz, Difin, Warszawa 2014, pp. 267–269.

¹⁴ For more information, see, for example: K. Czerwińska, *Pomoce dydaktyczne jako istotny element w edukacji uczniów z dysfunkcją wzroku*, „Człowiek – Niepełnosprawność – Społeczeństwo”, 2013, no. 4(22), pp. 173–196.

information and communication solutions for the blind and visually impaired helps overcome this kind of barriers. However, when analysing this category of communication problems, two important issues should be noted. First of all, in order to use various teaching aids, a blind learner must first acquire certain skills so as to use specific materials effectively, e.g. they must learn to read tactile graphics, learn Braille reading and writing techniques, learn computer skills for the blind, etc. Secondly, because of unrecognised cognitive gaps in a blind learner caused by lack of early stimulation to compensate for sensory deficits, modern technologies supporting education may prove ineffective. For example, research show¹⁵ that audio description developed in accordance with existing standards for an educational video used in science lessons in secondary schools is incomprehensible for blind learners, because they do not know the objects described in it, such as the bicycle; lack of experience riding the bicycle results in little knowledge of its construction and mechanisms.

Current advancement of education for the blind makes it possible to remove or minimise most of the abovementioned communication difficulties by proper education and rehabilitation measures. Teachers must be particularly sensitive to potential knowledge gaps in blind learners due to their cognitive limitations. Lack of educational reflection in this area may cause failure in completing school tasks and, more broadly, it may lead to developing inadequate models of reality.

Pragmatic competence as a condition for effective communication

Apart from the abovementioned teacher sensitivity to the cognitive specificity of visually disabled learners, it is also important to

¹⁵ S. Cozendey, M. da Piedade Costa, *The audio description as a physics teaching tool*, "Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs" 2016, Vol. 16(1), pp. 1031-1034.

understand the idea of the communication process. Supposedly, the most popular model in our linguistic culture is the code model of language and communication proposed by Roman Jakobson¹⁶. According to that model, proper understanding of a message depends only on proper decoding, i.e. knowledge of vocabulary, morphology and syntax. The only hindrance to the communication process are obstacles in the communication channel, which, in the case of the blind, are the inability to read black print or not enough time to study a text. If the code model of communication adequately represented the processes taking place in human brain while interpreting statements, then all language exams could be considered as effective tools to measure language skills, because every person on a given level of foreign language knowledge would have equal chances and possibilities to apply their linguistic knowledge and skills to answer comprehension tests, and any differences associated with individual accommodations would be provided for by applying Braille print and prolonging the exam.

However, research in the area of linguistic pragmatics have proven quite long ago that decoding a message, i.e. understanding the meaning of words arranged in a sentence according to syntactic principles, is only the first step towards understanding the meaning of a statement. The author of the implicatum theory, Paule Grice¹⁷ used the following example to illustrate the problem.

A: I am out of petrol.

B: There is a rapetrol station round the corner.

Let us note that it is not the intention of speaker B to inform speaker A about what is located nearby (the literal meaning of the sentence), but rather that it is possible to buy petrol and solve the

¹⁶ R. Jakobson, *Poetyka w świetle językoznawstwa*, translated by K. Pomorska, „Pamiętnik Literacki: czasopismo kwartalne poświęcone historii i krytyce literatury polskiej”, 1960, no. 51/2, pp. 431–473. <http://bazhum.muzhp.pl/> [accessed: 10.11.2015].

¹⁷ H.P. Grice, *Logic and conversation*, [in:] *Studies in the way of words*, ed. H.P. Grice, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA, 1975/89, pp. 22–40.

problem. It is, according to Grice's terminology, the implicatum of what speaker B says and contextual knowledge, which must imply that the petrol station is open at the time when the conversation takes place – otherwise speaker B's statement would make no sense. Thus, understanding the implicatum requires not only knowledge of the language code but also non-linguistic knowledge in order to interpret the speaker's intention, i.e. pragmatic competence.

Let us modify Grice's original example in the following way:

A: I'm hungry.

B: There is a petrol station round the corner.

Let us note that B's statement may be interpreted as relevant to A's statement only by someone who knows that it is usually possible to buy something to eat at a petrol station. It is not hard to imagine that such knowledge may not be available to a person whose visual disability prevents them from finding out on their own what goods, apart from petrol, are sold at a petrol station. Let us note – which is crucial for the argumentation presented herein – that the knowledge of a blind person concerning the range of products available at a petrol station depends on their personal experience: whether they have accompanied a driver buying petrol and had the experience of buying food at a petrol station, etc. It could be assumed that such experience is not common. Of course, a person who does not know that food is sold at a petrol station must not necessarily misunderstand B's statement, because they can figure that out, it being the only logical explanation for B's answer to A's statement. Let us note, however, that although a person interpreting the dialogue may come up with such conclusion, it is not the only possible line of understanding. The direction that the recipient's thought will follow depends on many factors, such as the availability of another, alternative interpretation. We can imagine, for example, that if B was a notorious joker, his statement would be interpreted as an absurd suggestion to consume petrol. In a certain situation, such interpretation could be more available and more likely for the recipient.

The purpose of the above examples was to illustrate the role of pragmatic competence in communication, and in particular the relationship between the ability to understand the intention of a speaker and knowledge of the world. As contemporary pragmatic theories suggest¹⁸, in line with cognitive psychology research, interpretation of utterances is spontaneous and its objective is to achieve optimum cognitive benefits. In other words, a recipient confronted with an utterance in a given communication situation, does not consciously analyse it, but rather instantly understands it in a way that seems relevant, i.e. provides new information, answers a question, modifies misunderstanding, entertains, etc.

If we agree with the abovementioned authors that the desire to achieve relevant interpretation drives the processing of messages by human brain, it becomes clear why recipients inevitably read the most available interpretations as proper and intended by the speaker. Using the above dialogue, it can be illustrated in the following way: if the presumption that B very likely makes frivolous comments is easily available to the person interpreting B's utterance, whereas the presumption that food is sold at a petrol station is poorly available, the person will spontaneously assume that B is joking and will not search the resources of their memory for alternative interpretations.

The above deliberations suggest that in the process of understanding messages, of crucial importance is instant availability of such contextual presumptions that would lead to relevant and intended interpretation. Considering the fact that most knowledge is acquired through individual interactions with the environment, it can be expected that in the case of the blind, the abovementioned knowledge gaps may negatively affect the understanding of content dependent on knowledge gained through visual interactions - and the majority of interactions are visual. Another issue, already men-

¹⁸ D. Sperber, D. Wilson. *Relevance: Communication and Cognition*. Blackwell, Oxford 1986/95; D. Wilson, D. Sperber, *Relevance theory*, [in:] *Handbook of Pragmatics*, ed. G. Ward, L. Horn, Oxford University Press, Oxford, pp. 607-632.

tioned in the previous part of the article, should be noted here, namely that in the blind population, availability of knowledge associated with visual experience is highly dependent on the particular situation of an individual, i.e. the kind of general educational support they have received or the events they have participated in, etc. Concerning the petrol station example, it may be assumed that most seeing persons know that petrol stations sell food (e.g. from advertisements near petrol stations), but the same assumption should not be automatically made for the blind.

Let us now relate the above deliberations on pragmatic competence to the English language comprehension test in the secondary school leaving examination of May 2017, basic level. Relevance of the concept of pragmatic competence in understanding a message in the process of foreign language teaching is proven by research conclusions¹⁹, which show that the competence is universal, meaning that it plays the same role in interpreting statements both in the mother tongue and in foreign language. The purpose of discussing the text is to prove that its proper understanding, in order to pass the test, requires, as in every other case, pragmatic competence, which, in this case, is associated with making references to visual elements of knowledge. It should be noted that the test is not unique in terms of using visual elements as the background for interpretation²⁰. There are many similar tests in exam papers, and this particular one was selected for analysis, because it was recent:

Secondary school leaving examination, basic level, 8 May 2017.

There are three gaps in the text below. Read the text and, in gaps 7.1-7.3, write letters corresponding to the appropriate missing sentence (A to E), so that the text is logical and coherent.

¹⁹ M. Jodłowiec, *The role of relevance theory in SLA studies*, [in:] *Cognitive Processing in Second Language Acquisition*, ed. M. Pütz, L. Sicola, John Benjamins, Amsterdam, 2010, p. 49–66; E. Ifantidou, *Pragmatic competence and explicit instruction*, "Journal of Pragmatics", 2013, nr 59, pp. 93–116.

²⁰ A. Piskorska, *Blind Learners and Comprehension Tasks*, [in:] *Contemporary English Language Teaching and Research*, ed. M. Marczak, M. Hinton, Cambridge Scholars Publishing, Newcastle upon Tyne, 2015, pp. 158–174.

Note: You do not need to use two of the sentences.

A CLEVER IDEA

One night four lazy college students were partying till midnight and didn't study for the test which was scheduled for the next day. In the morning, they thought of a perfect plan. 7.1. ____ They told him they had gone out to their friend's wedding the previous night and during their return journey one tyre of their car had burst and they had to push the car all the way back. That was why it was impossible for them to write the test that day. They looked really exhausted.

The professor thought for a while and allowed them to return and take the test after three days.

7.2. ____ They immediately went home to study. On the third day they came again to write the test. The professor explained that all four of them would have to sit in separate classrooms.

They weren't worried because they had worked hard for the previous three days to prepare.

7.3. ____ They could get a maximum score of one hundred points as usual, but there were only two questions. The first one, for which they could get two points, was: What's your name? The second one, worth ninety-eight points, read: Which tyre burst?

adapted from www.quora.com

- A. However, the test turned out to be different from what they had expected.
- B. Unfortunately, they forgot to meet him on that day.
- C. They made themselves look dirty and went to see their professor.
- D. That was why he gave them more time to prepare.
- E. They promised they would be ready by that time.

The short text contains a number of fragments, including one of the gap-filling possibilities, whose understanding is closely linked with knowledge of how people look or what they see in specific situations. The heroes of the story had partied instead of studying for a test, and so, they decided to lie to their professor. To do that, they "they made themselves look dirty" and told the professor a story that they been at their friend's wedding the day before and on their way back from the wedding, a tyre burst in their car. They

had to push the car all the way back, which is the reason why they could not study for the test. Here comes another visualisation: "They looked really exhausted". The professor agreed to postpone the test for another day, and when that day arrived, he told each of the students to go to a different room and gave them all a test asking "Which tyre broke".

Understanding the text requires drawing conclusions from visual information. First, one must know (this is one of the gaps) that getting dirty was supposed to authenticate the lie of pushing the car. It seems to be an example of the kind of knowledge that is easily available to seeing persons (e.g. from films), but it is hard to judge whether a blind person has had an opportunity to gain it or not. Secondly, the fragment saying that the boys looked tired should be interpreted to mean that in fact, they were tired after the party, but the professor was supposed to think the reason for their tiredness was pushing the car. This fragment may cause quite serious interpretative doubts for a blind person, because the word "really" strengthens the conviction that tiredness was real and in a way undermines the previous line of thought, namely that the boys were all the time pretending. The key to understanding this fragment is the visual argument that a person partying the whole night may look tired, the same as after hard physical labour. Another element of understanding the text also depends on experience that is based on the use of the sense of vision, namely that persons who write an exam in the same room may communicate with each other using some signs, which could help them conceal their lie. Also, interpreting the "exam question" as a proof that the professor did not believe the fake story depends to a crucial degree on visual information: for a seeing person, it is obvious that anyone involved in an event such as a car tyre failure would know which tyre burst, which, however, may not be that obvious for a blind person.

In the light of the above analysis, the question arises as to what kind of skills are tested by the above task, if we assume that communication competences include both knowledge of the language code and pragmatic competence using knowledge of the world in

the process of understanding a message by interpreting the speaker's intentions. It should be noted that in the above exemplary English language test, knowledge based on visual stimuli is not used in order to decode the lexical layer of the test – it would be so, for example, if the text contained colours or adjectives describing aesthetic impressions. Understanding such words is usually not problematic for blind learners, who not only know the definitions of respective concepts, but often supplement them with their own, partly imagined content. In the above examples, reference to visual knowledge is on the level of the background of the text – contextual background that needs to be activated for the text to be a logical and coherent whole. Even though it is not present in the text itself, a learner who has problems understanding the text finds it hard even to explain what it is that they do not understand.

Summary

The article discusses the consequences of general knowledge gaps among the blind, concluding that such gaps may significantly lower the results of foreign language comprehension tests. This is due to the fact that a crucial factor in interpreting certain texts is contextual knowledge obtained by processing visual stimuli that a seeing person encounters either through direct experience or through various visual materials.

Undoubtedly, blind learners reduce, through education, many knowledge deficits resulting from lack of such stimuli. As this article suggests, foreign language lessons are also an opportunity to make up for differences in various images of the world. It is also beyond doubt that pragmatic competence of the blind, understood as the ability to infer communication intentions may be the same as in seeing persons. There are many arguments to prove this, for example the fact that blind persons enroll for foreign language studies and work as translators, which requires a very high level of pragmatic competence.

By these considerations, we only want to claim that it should not be presupposed that a blind learner taking a foreign language exam has relevant knowledge resources and, moreover, can use them in a stressful situation. It should be noted that, although there are many ways to compensate for the lack of direct visual interactions with the environment, not all blind learners have the same opportunities to use them. Apart from the abovementioned development support methods that learners may receive, also the individual history is important, i.e. whether a learner has ever been in a situation that triggered conversation on a given topic. Thus, in visually disabled persons, having specific contextual knowledge depends to a much larger extent on individual factors than in the case of seeing persons.

Although the purpose of this article is to show and discuss the problem rather than suggest specific solutions for educational practice, we may propose that in the case of tests based to a large extent on visual information, blind learners should be given additional explanations. Such solution would help provide equal opportunity to pass tests for all learners.

Bibliography

- Cozendey S., da Piedade Costa M., *The audio description as a physics teaching tool*, "Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs" 2016, Vol. 16(1), pp. 1031-1034.
- Czerwińska K., *Pomoce dydaktyczne jako istotny element w edukacji uczniów z dysfunkcją wzroku*, „Człowiek - Niepełnosprawność - Społeczeństwo”, 2013, no. 4(22), pp. 173-196.
- Dłuska J., Karwowska M., Karasińska W. (ed.), *Świat w zasięgu ręki. Dobre praktyki w edukacji uczniów z dysfunkcją wzroku – projekt „Bliżej świata – od konkretności do abstrakcji”*, SOSW nr 1 dla Dzieci i Młodzieży Słabo Widzącej i Niewidomej, Bydgoszcz 2011.
- Grice H.P., *Logic and conversation*, [in:] *Studies in the way of words*, ed. H.P. Grice, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA, 1975/89, pp. 22-40.
- Ifantidou E., *Pragmatic competence and explicit instruction*, "Journal of Pragmatics", 2013, no. 59, pp. 93-116.

- Jakobson R., *Poetyka w świetle językoznawstwa*, translated by K. Pomorska, „Pamiętnik Literacki: czasopismo kwartalne poświęcone historii i krytyce literatury polskiej”, 1960, no. 51/2, pp. 431-473. <http://bazhum.muzhp.pl/> [accessed: 10.11.2015].
- Jaworska-Biskup K., *Dlaczego warto uczyć dzieci niewidome języków obcych? Język obcy jako kompensacyjne narzędzie w procesie poznawania świata i zdobywania wiedzy na temat pojęć*, [in:] *Wyzwania współczesnej pedagogiki specjalnej – praktyka edukacyjna i rewalidacyjna*, ed. T. Żółkowska, B. Ostapiuk, M. Wlazło, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego, Szczecin 2010, p. 157-162.
- Jaworska-Biskup K., *Wpływ rozumienia pojęć przez dzieci niewidome na nauczanie języków obcych*, „Szkola Specjalna” 2009, no. 1(248), pp. 25-34.
- Jodłowiec M., *The role of relevance theory in SLA studies*, [in:] *Cognitive Processing in Second Language Acquisition*, red. M. Putz, L. Sicola, John Benjamins, Amsterdam 2010, pp. 49-66.
- Konarska J., *Aktywność komunikacyjna dzieci niewidomych jako warunek ich prawidłowego rozwoju i zapobieganie dystansowi społecznemu*, [in:] *Dystans społeczny wobec osób z niepełnosprawnością jako problem pedagogiki specjalnej. Tom I. Przyczyny – Konsekwencje – Przeciwdziałanie*, ed. M. Parchomiuk, B. Szabała, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej, Lublin, 2012, p. 177-192.
- Marek B., *A blind child in an English classroom. “Network”*, 1999, no. 2/1, pp. 3-8.
- Marzec A., *Multiple Intelligences in Second Language Learning: Evidence from Sighted and Totally Blind Students*. PhD dissertation, KUL Jana Pawła II, Lublin 2017.
- Mikołajczak-Matyja N., *Wiedza o obiektach i zjawiskach naturalnych w definicjach konstruowanych przez niewidomych i widzących użytkowników języka*, „Szkola Specjalna” 2006, no. 2, p. 89-103.
- Olczak A., *Język obcy w kształceniu zintegrowanym*, [in:] *Dziedziny kształcenia w klasach I-III*, ed. M. Magda-Adamowicz, L. Kataryńczuk-Mania, Wydawnictwo Akademickie Żak, Warszawa 2013, pp. 40-60.
- Papadopoulos, K., Metsiou, K., Agaliotis, I., *Adaptive behavior of children and adolescents with visual impairments*, “Research in Developmental Disabilities”, no. 32, pp. 1086-1096.
- Papuda-Dolińska B., *Dziecko z niepełnosprawnością wzroku w roli ucznia szkoły ogólnodostępnej, integracyjnej i specjalnej*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej, Lublin 2017.
- Piskorska A., *Blind Learners and Comprehension Tasks*, [in:] *Contemporary English Language Teaching and Research*, ed. M. Marczak, M. Hinton, Cambridge Scholars Publishing, Newcastle upon Tyne, 2015, pp. 158-174.
- Piskorska A., Krzeszowski T., Marek B., *Uczeń z dysfunkcją wzroku na lekcji angielskiego. Wskazówki metodyczne dla nauczycieli*, Uniwersytet Warszawski, Warszawa 2008.

- Sak-Wernicka J., *The guru effect in blind people's comprehension*, [in:] *Applications of Relevance Theory: From Discourse to Morphemes*, red. A. Piskorska, E. Wałaszewska, Cambridge Scholars Publishing, Newcastle upon Tyne, 2017, pp. 103-116.
- Sperber D., Wilson D., *Relevance: Communication and Cognition*. Blackwell, Oxford 1986/95.
- Śmiechowska-Petrovskij E., *Komunikacja niewerbalna w relacji niewidomy-widzący*, [in:] *Współcześni ludzie wobec wyzwań i zagrożeń XXI wieku*, ed. H. Liberska, A. Malina, D. Suwalska-Barancewicz, Difin, Warszawa 2014, pp. 266-273.
- Walther R., *Einführung in die Blinden- und Sehbehindertpädagogik*, Reinhardt Verlag, München 2005.
- Więckowska E., *Edukacja nie wystarczy – potrzeby rewalidacyjne dziecka niewidomego w wieku szkolnym*, [in:] *Uwarunkowania i kierunki rozwoju pedagogiki specjalnej*, ed. B. Antoszevska, Cz. Kosakowski, Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek, Toruń 2011, p. 123-130.
- Wilson D., Sperber D., *Relevance theory*, [in:] *Handbook of Pragmatics*, ed. G. Ward, L. Horn, Oxford University Press, Oxford, pp. 607-632.



Teaching a Foreign Language to Partially Sighted and Blind Learners: Overview of Research Findings

ABSTRACT: Małgorzata Jedynak, *Teaching a Foreign Language to Partially Sighted and Blind Learners: Overview of Research Findings*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 199–214. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.11>

The paper focuses on foreign language typhlology and presents an overview of available research findings in the field, arranged in a chronological order. The studies discussed in the paper pertain either to first language acquisition or foreign language learning by visually impaired learners. The former shed light on the potential problems that visually impaired learners might encounter while learning foreign languages. The problems might emerge both in the phonological or semantic domain. The latter, in turn, discuss such issues as the use of foreign language vocabulary learning strategies and the role of affective factors which facilitate the language learning process. Nowadays the European Union promotes the 'Languages for All' principle, i.e. teaching languages to all groups of learners, regardless of their disabilities and impairments, preferably in an inclusive education setting. Therefore, foreign language teachers should be acquainted with the research findings and their implications presented herein.

KEY WORDS: research on foreign language typhlology, native language acquisition, foreign language learning

1. Introduction

Typhloglottodidactics is a relatively new domain that uses the accomplishments of such sciences as special education, in particular typhlopedagogy, psychology and glottodidactics. The subject matter of typhloglottodidactic studies are the processes of linguistic education of visually impaired students and acquisition of linguistic knowledge and skills by such students. Knowledge of foreign languages forms an indispensable element of education, which facilitates participation in culture and social life. What is more, knowledge of foreign languages performs compensatory functions with respect to the lack of sight or weak sight, in the area of sensory, psychological, communication and creative deprivation, as well as in the area of entertainment (Krzyszowski, 2001: 12). Knowledge of foreign languages, in particular English, increases – in the first place – the chances of visually impaired students for finding employment and allows for greater integration with the environment of fully able people (Aikin-Araluce (2005: 5).

The European Union promotes learning of foreign languages by all students, irrespective of their level of disability, which is reflected in the education policy in such slogans as “Education for All” and “Languages for All.” Numerous EU programmes and projects, such as *Eurochance*, *Listen and Touch*, *Per Linguas Mundi ad Laborem*, *LangSen Project* and *Europejskie Portfolio Językowe dla Niewidomych i Niedowidzących* encourage visually impaired and blind persons to learn foreign languages.

A visually impaired student may be successful in learning a foreign language if he/ she has proper conditions for linguistic development, i.e. if adequate methods of teaching are applied and didactic aids are adjusted to his/ her needs. A foreign language teacher should thus possess at least a basic typhloglottodidactical knowledge, along with knowledge about the first and second language acquisition by visually impaired persons.

In this article, I perform a descriptive and critical analysis of available typhloglottodidactic and typhlolinguisic sources in the area of foreign language teaching in the group of blind and visually impaired students.

2. Beginning of Interest in Foreign Language Teaching

The beginnings of interest in foreign language teaching in the environment of visually impaired and blind people date back to the 1930s. In 1931, a blind teacher, William Patrick Morrissey, issued a book entitled "Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools for the Blind". This was the first publication which drew attention to the potential of blind people as far as foreign language acquisition is concerned. Morrissey claims that loss of sight opens new possibilities before a student, as such student is capable of using his/ her auditory skills in a greater degree than a fully able student. In his publication, Morrissey also noticed that learning a foreign language relies primarily on the sense of hearing, whereas sight, even though useful in learning, is not a determinant of success in foreign language acquisition. It is interesting to note that it was already in the 1930s that a view about the predisposition of blind people for the teaching profession appeared, in particular teachers of foreign languages. In 1934, Flood's publication entitled "The Value of Latin in Schools for the Blind" appeared on the market; it pinpointed the necessity of applying, in schools for the blind, the teaching programme of Latin, commonly used in general schools. It is also worth noting that the 1930s were dominated by the transmissive model of foreign language teaching, based on the grammar and translation method and explicit instruction. Thus, foreign language programmes did not stress the necessity of communication and developing speaking skills, but remembering grammatical forms and developing written translation skills, mainly from the foreign language to the native language, less frequently in a reverse order. Flood's view on the teaching programme was enthusiastically received at the 32nd Convention of the American Association of Instructors of the Blind.

3. Audio-lingual Method in Foreign Language Teaching

In the 1960s, teaching of foreign languages underwent a transformation. Under the impact of behaviourist views, the audio-lingual method developed; its purpose is mastering four linguistic

skills in a sequence from listening and speaking to reading and writing. The core of this method is development of proper linguistic habits, consisting in thoughtless and automatic multiple repeating, remembering and memorising the linguistic material (Komorowska, 2004: 22). The method was used in schools for the blind and at language courses organised for persons with visual impairment. Even though there are no academic publications about the efficiency of this method in schools, yet there is the Dostert Report from the 1960s, which shows significant efficiency of the audio-lingual method in the teaching of foreign languages at language courses. Professor Dostert from Georgetown Research Centre supervised the first initiative undertaken in the USA by the Federal Rehabilitation Agency to prepare visually impaired and blind persons to learn a foreign language and subsequently to gain qualifications to teach it in schools. The programme assumed that the listeners of experimental courses would not only learn foreign languages, but also expand their knowledge about efficient methods and techniques of learning a language by visually impaired and blind persons. The course participants were persons with various visual disabilities who came from several American states. The language course was intense and encompassed forty hours a week. During the course, techniques typical for the audio-lingual method were introduced, such as repeating and memorising dialogues and reacting in a specific manner to the interlocutor's questions. The course took place in a class and in a language laboratory, where the participants could learn independently, by listening to recordings on cassettes and repeating linguistic phrases. During the course, the participants could develop all aspects of the language, but the sequence of mastering them was strictly defined and differed from the modern approach to the foreign language teaching. Before the introduction of vocabulary and grammar of a foreign language, the participants became acquainted with the phonetic system of a language, and were made familiar with such issues as the articulation of individual vowels and consonants and combinations of sounds. As far as linguistic skills are concerned, the course primarily developed the ability to speak and listen with the use of ready-made linguistic

phrases. The ability to write and read were also developed with the use of Braille. In the case of Russian language courses, the participants also had to learn Braille transcription in the Cyrillic (Dostert, 1963; in Jedynek, 2015: 146).

It is worth noting that the American Georgetown project, as the first in the world, drew attention to the new possibilities of offering employment to visually impaired persons. In compliance with the expectations of its authors, the project was successful; after two years, the project participants became qualified to work as interpreters of German and Russian and teachers of these languages. Furthermore, these qualifications translated to actual employment and the majority of language courses participants were hired by general and special education schools (Dostert, 1963 and McDonald, 1968; in Jedynek, 2015: 146).

The initiative undertaken by the American Federal Rehabilitation Agency sparked interest in the teaching of foreign languages in the environment of visually impaired people. The Catholic Guild for the Blind in New York, inspired by the Georgetown project, introduced, at the end of the 1960s, an innovative English teaching programme as a second language for blind immigrants. The programme participants had to declare their desire to reside permanently in the United States and be strongly motivated to master English language quickly. Similarly to the Georgetown programme, the course participants learnt the language via the audio-lingual method. It is worth noting that teaching focused on the practical language, which the immigrants could use in numerous formal and informal situations outside of the language class and which allowed them to function in a new environment on the social and professional level. The teacher provided the participants of the course with a proper prompt in a verbal form (e.g. a template of a sentence, a beginning of a sentence, a word suggesting the content of an utterance) or in the form of a visual material (e.g. an image or a caption adjusted to the needs of visually impaired people) and repeated the prompt a number of times. Subsequently, the participants were asked to repeat the prompt independently, which was accompanied

by reinforcement on the part of the teacher in the form of a praise, which guaranteed feedback. Immigrants participating in the programme not only had to repeat model sentences after the teacher, but also show very good skills of remembering them. It should be noted that the immigrants' native language was not used during classes in order to eliminate any thinking and comparison of structures between the English language and the native language. After mastering, in verbal form, various linguistic structures, the course participants had to learn the material in the area of English Braille, body speech and microexpression applied by seeing people (Jedynak, 2015: 146).

4. Studies on Native Language Acquisition and Implications for Foreign Language Teaching

The 1960s, 1970s and 1980s were the period of very intense studies on the native language acquisition by blind children (e.g. Fraiberg, 1977; Mills, 1983). Scientific publications which appeared at that time allowed not only for understanding the cognitive processes that occur in blind children acquiring their native language, but also processes related to the learning and teaching of foreign languages. For example, Mills (1983, in Jedynak, 2015: 132–133) noted that phonological development in blind children slightly differs from phonological development of fully able children, e.g. children from the first group who do not see the place of articulation of a sound, e.g. /n/, often substitute it with a sound with a completely different place of articulation, whereas fully able children substitute the /n/ sound with another labial sound, e.g. /m/, being influenced by the same place of articulation for both sounds. The observation above may imply certain phonological problems in case of foreign language acquisition by blind children, but not necessarily by adults, who most often have mastered the strategies of learning unknown sounds. Thus, during a foreign language class it is a good idea to devote some more time to practising problematic sounds,

where the place of articulation or the mode of articulation may be particularly difficult to capture by a blind student (Jedynak, 2014).

Results of studies on the understanding of concepts and prototypes in native language also provide teachers with a number of guidelines on how to efficiently teach a foreign language in a group of blind students. Dunlea (1989) claims that innate blindness results in the fact that interpretation of concepts by blind people may differ from their interpretation by fully able people. Dunlea proved that the first group, having limited access to tangible or visual features of objects from the external world, has difficulties with non-abstract concepts and with generalising terms. These observations were confirmed by the results of studies conducted by Jedynak (2011), in which blind adults had problems with exact description of certain concepts, whereas their interpretation of some concepts and phenomena differed slightly from the interpretation of fully able persons (e.g. the *moon* was described by one of the respondents as an object that always has the same round shape, whereas the concept of *battle* does not entail the participation of horses in it). The results above allow for expecting certain problems with understanding terms that may appear during foreign language classes. Therefore, a foreign language teacher should first make sure whether and in which manner a blind student interprets a given term so that there is no negative interference of the meaning from the native language to the foreign language. As far as possible, the teacher should introduce vocabulary in a foreign language with the use of realia (e.g. fruit), spatial models (e.g. a miniature of a moon in different phases) or by combining tactile and auditory techniques (e.g. a model of a dog and recorded sound made by a dog). Certain terms which cannot be experienced by touch or hearing (e.g. colours) should be introduced in a foreign language in the form of linguistic phrases (e.g. green grass, blue sky).

Studies on prototypes also show that blind people assign prototypicality to other concepts than fully able people. 18 blind people and 18 fully able people aged 17–22 took part in Jedynak's study (2008). In the test tasks, the respondents had to provide most proto-

typical associations with words from eight categories (bird, a piece of furniture, fruit, clothing, weather, sport) and put various words in order in eight categories starting from the most prototypical representative of a given category (e.g. in category bird: pigeon, sparrow, swan, duck, magpie). Divergences in assigning prototypicality in the native language by blind persons and by fully able persons implicate certain modifications of the didactic process during the foreign language classes with blind students. Due to the fact that textbooks for foreign languages introduce lexical phenomena on the basis of prototypes characteristic for fully able people, the teacher should enrich the presentation of new material with vocabulary that is prototypical for blind people.

The examination of the process of acquiring the native language by a blind child also inspired Marshall (1968, in Jedynak, 2015: 146-147). The author noted that teachers, similarly to parents teaching a blind child his/ her native language, should adjust the didactic materials to the blind student by preparing real life objects for him/ her (so-called *realia*) through which he/ she can experience learning a foreign language in a context. On the other hand, Nikolic (1987) in his publication entitled "Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Schools for the Blind and Visually Impaired" compares accomplishments in acquisition of a foreign and native language. The author states that visually impaired students may be successful in foreign language acquisition, similarly as in the case of learning their native language. Nikolic draws attention to the fact that students from this group have a particular aptitude to acquire language on account of their auditory sensitivity and exceptionally trained memory. Thus, it may be assumed that the predisposition above helps in mastering the phonetics and phonology of a foreign language and using ready-made linguistic structures. Nikolic also postulates that blind and visually impaired students learn a foreign language together with fully able students, as there are no counter-indications for the first group to be taught according to a different curriculum. As far as materials used by foreign language teachers are concerned, they should be adjusted in a mode that a student

can use remnants of sight or use other senses compensating for loss of sight.

In the 1980s, the audio-lingual method was not longer popular and methodologists started to pay greater attention to the development of writing skills. Therefore, in his publication Nikolic emphasises that the skills of writing and reading in Braille in the native language should be treated as a priority, as they condition later mastering of such skills in Braille in a foreign language. The author also draws attention to the fact that even if fluency in Braille in the native language translates to fluency in a foreign language, yet students may encounter problems with certain dual symbols, i.e. the ones that may have various meanings in the foreign and the native language. Guinan (1997) presents a similar point of view; Guinan critically claims that language classes cannot rely only on the traditional audio-lingual method developing primarily listening and speaking skills, only because of the fact that a student is blind. Guinan concludes that secondary treatment of reading and writing skills in a foreign language results primarily from lack of competence of foreign language teachers, who are usually not familiar with Braille at all or know it in a minimum degree. In consequence, many blind students have problems with correct spelling and writing foreign words, and in particular English words. Guinan postulates that foreign language teachers should be trained in the area of education of visually impaired people.

5. Role of Foreign Languages in the Modern World

The last two decades were a period of many changes in language education inspired by the inclusion policy and equality slogans expressed in initiatives "Education for Everybody" and "Language to Everybody". Many researchers emphasise the essential role of foreign languages in formation of personality and preparation for professional activity (Marek, 2000a, 2000b; Krzeszowski, 2001; Aikin-Araluce, 2005; Czerwińska, 2008; Wszyńska, 2013).

Visually impaired and blind graduates of language studies are employed as foreign language teachers, interpreters or translators. Learning a foreign language compensates for loss of sight, helping a student to integrate with the society and has positive impact on the student's psychical structure (self-esteem, independence). A visually impaired student with language competence, in particular English, is also more attractive on the European labour market (Jedynak, 2015). McColl (2000) in her publication "Modern Languages for All" also shows benefits resulting from foreign language learning. According to the author, the necessity of communicating with people around the world is a great incentive to learn a foreign language both for fully able persons and persons with disabilities. What is more, the author claims that persons with disabilities may be successful in learning a foreign language if adequate conditions and possibilities are created for them and if they are properly motivated. McColl notices that the efficiency of foreign language learning depends, to a significant degree, on the teachers and the mode in which they bring out the disabled student's potential.

Aikin-Araluce (2005: 81) also draws attention to the teacher's role in foreign language education. In her publication devoted to the teaching of English in Spain, she presents the results of a study which indicate that the success of blind younger children is possible if adequate adaptation of didactic materials, e.g. fiches at language classes introducing new lexical elements, is made by means of applying tactile design. The author also draws attention to the necessity of introducing, by the teachers, of verbal guidelines facilitating location of items in the classroom.

In 2005, a report of the European Commission entitled *Needs of Special Education in Europe. Language Teaching and Learning. Analysis and Innovations* was published. This document summarises years of studies in the area of teaching foreign language among students with various disabilities. The report contains a conclusion about the role of a foreign language in special education: learning a foreign language develops skills that are necessary for living and provides tools supporting personal and social development (Report of the European Commission, 2005: 142).

6. Studies on Improving Efficiency of Foreign Language Teaching

The last two decades were also the period of intense searches for the modes of increasing efficiency of foreign language teaching in the environment of visually impaired students. Wszyńska (2013) in her PhD dissertation notes the necessity of teaching a foreign language with the use of a holistic approach. In a study conducted by her on a group of visually impaired students, the author implemented an experimental method of foreign language teaching called *Psycholinguistic Therapy: Touching the World*, where language competence is developed in parallel with overcoming the student's emotional inhibitions. The method above pertains both to the linguistic and the emotional layer. Language is developed in a two-track mode, i.e. lexicon and grammar are introduced simultaneously via a direct method and with the use of such elements as sand, water and various techniques developing auditory and tactile perception. The method described above also supports emotional development of a student by applying the Brain Linkage Method and elements used in psychotherapy, such as the sand-tray technique or breathing control. The results of Wszyńska's studies indicate high efficiency of the above experimental method of foreign language teaching. The author has observed not only increase in linguistic competence in children with visual impairment, but also improvement of their self-fulfilment and self-esteem. Wszyńska claims that combining language elements with elements of psychotherapy in her experimental method has allowed children to accomplish such good results in foreign language acquisition.

Similarly to Wszyńska, Jedynak (2015), notices the necessity of including elements of psychotherapy in foreign language teaching. The author claims that lack of textbooks for foreign language teaching and didactic materials with large print and written in Braille, as well as inexperienced foreign language teachers affect the emotions of a visually impaired student. What is more, in contrast to fully able students, visually impaired or blind students have a completely

different affective structure, where insecurity and fear may very often be dominant, along with low self-esteem, innate helplessness, low motivation and autonomy or external location of the sense of control. These negative emotional states frequently characterise such students before they even commence foreign language learning and accompany them in all situations not directly related to education. Results of a quantitative and qualitative study (interviews) conducted by the author have allowed for ascertaining that affective factors (low coping competence, low autonomy and external positioning of the sense of control in the case of blind people) cause the fact that students with sight disabilities accomplish low results in learning a foreign language. Such state of affairs happens in spite of so many possibilities offered to them as part of EU programmes and projects and huge potential of blind and visually impaired students to learn foreign languages. Conclusions from the examination of three affective correlates bore fruit in creation of an affective model of teaching a foreign language based on psychotherapy. Its main purpose is to show to foreign language teachers the mode in which they may contribute to the improvement of results in teaching students of this type, apart from cognitive reinforcement of potential of visually impaired and blind people. The model relies on assumptions of affective education, in accordance with which it is first necessary to develop a student's personality (his/ her emotions, stances, system of views) and only later focus on teaching the traditional subjects. The proposed model forms a part of humanistic education and positive psychology. It consists of three stages: 1) evaluation of the emotional state of a student by a foreign language teacher with the use of such tools as consultations with school psychologist, certificates from pedagogical and psychological clinic, medical report, individual educational and therapeutic programmes prepared for the students, observations of other teachers and members of the student's family; 2) preparation by a foreign language teacher of an individual strategic plan focusing on negative affective states hindering efficient foreign language learning; 3) incorporation, into the standard programme of foreign

language teaching, of proper linguistic exercises supplemented with psycho-therapeutic strategies (e.g. techniques of drama and psychodrama which boost self-esteem).

Success in foreign language learning also depends on the ability to adjust the learning strategy, including the vocabulary learning strategy. The concept of a language learning strategy appeared in the 1970s, but was popularised later thanks to the publications of such leading researchers as Rubin (1981), O'Malley et al. (1985), and in particular Oxford (1990). Results of their studies also triggered off studies on strategies in visually impaired people. Wesołowska and Jedynek (2014) decided to examine the impact of loss of sight on the choice of the English language learning strategy by middle school and high school youth on the mid-advanced level (B1, B1+). The comparative analysis of three groups of students (i.e. a group of blind students, a group of visually impaired students and a group of fully able students) showed that these three groups differ in the application of strategies, even though there are groups of strategies applied by all students. The research procedure made use of the retrospective interview technique in the course of which the study participants had to speak about strategies that they applied when learning the following lexical categories: abstract nouns, idioms, preposition phrases and relation of verbs with prepositions. In order to encourage the respondents to describe a situation/ context in which they learnt a given lexical category, elements of an open interview were also applied. The respondents could describe a strategy thanks to which they memorised a given lexical category provided by the researchers, indicate familiarity with a given lexical category or absence of familiarity with a strategy. The respondents' answers were classified as K (known before), 0 (do not remember), I Keyword Strategy, II Imagery Use Strategy, III Representing Sounds in Memory Strategy, IV Employing Action Strategy, V Mental Association Strategy. The study results showed that there were statistically significant differences among groups, namely:

- fully able students applied strategies from group I more often than other groups;

- visually impaired students applied strategies from group III more often than other groups, and;
- blind students applied strategies from group V more often than other groups.

The results above may suggest that foreign language teachers should not only assist blind and visually impaired students in development of keyword strategies, commonly applied by fully able people, but also develop strategies of memorising words through sounds and strategies of memorising through mental association. In this place, it is worth mentioning the LANGLEARN-L project implemented on a platform that allows visually impaired and blind persons, their parents and teachers to exchange experiences and become acquainted with strategies of learning the native language and foreign languages by visually impaired people.

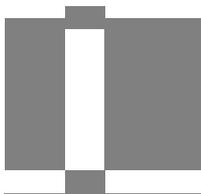
7. Recapitulation

A foreign language teacher who works with a visually impaired or blind student should possess not only substantive knowledge in the area of a foreign language, but also knowledge related to the first language and second language acquisition by visually impaired people. A review of studies presented in this article shows that the teacher should not be limited to applying the audio-lingual method, which primarily develops the listening and speaking skills in a foreign language, but should also develop such skills as reading and writing. The teacher should also develop all aspects of a foreign language, such as grammar, phonetics and vocabulary. There are no counter-indications to introduce vocabulary in a foreign language, even if it refers to concepts experienced via the visual channel. However, it is always worth making sure whether a blind student correctly interprets a given concept in the native language. The teacher should be aware of the role of emotions in the process of language acquisition and of the possibility of combining the didactic process with elements of psychotherapy, which guarantees better accomplishments in foreign language learning.

Bibliography

- Aikin Araluce H., *Teaching English as a foreign language to blind and visually impaired young learners: the affective factor*. Doctoral dissertation at the Universidad de Castilla-La-Mancha, Cuenca in Spain, 2005.
- Czerwińska K., *Języki obce a osoby z dysfunkcją wzroku*. Publication from the funds of project entitled "Per lingua mundi ad laborem". Wydawnictwo Akademii Pedagogiki Specjalnej, Warsaw 2008.
- Dorstet L., *The Blind Learn Russian in Georgetown University*, New Beacon, Washington DC, 1963.
- Dunlea A., *Vision and the Emergence of Meaning Blind and Sighted children's Early Language*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge 1989.
- Flood L.J., *The Value of Latin in Schools for the Blind*. Paper presented at the 32nd Convention of the American Association of Teachers of the Blind, 1934.
- Fraiberg S., *Insights from the Blind*. Basic Books, New York and St Louis, Missouri Blind, 1977.
- Guinan H. *ESL for Students with Visual Impairments*. Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education, No. 91, pp. 555-564.
- Jedynak M., *Analysis of Mental Lexicon in Sighted and Blind Children on the Basis of Prototypes*. Paper presented at the international scientific conference Concepts in Linguistic Education in Regional and European Context in Jelenia Góra between 17 and 18 October 2008.
- Jedynak M., *Językowe odzworowanie rzeczywistości przez niewidomych i widzących użytkowników języka polskiego*. „Rozprawy Komisji Językowej” XXXVIII. Wrocławskie Towarzystwo Naukowe, Wrocław 2011, pp. 61-73.
- Jedynak M., *Wpływ nabywania języka pierwszego przez niewidome dzieci na naukę języka drugiego – implikacje dydaktyczne dla nauczycieli języków obcych*, [in:] PLEY, *PsychoLingwistyczne Eksploracje Językowe*, ed. O. Majchrzak, Wydział Filologiczny Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, Łódź 2014, pp. 39-55.
- Jedynak M., 2015. *Visually Impaired Learners and Selected Correlates of Their Foreign Language Achievement*. Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego, Wrocław.
- Komorowska H., 2004. *Metodyka nauczania języków obcych*. Warsaw, Fraszka Edukacyjna.
- Komisja Europejska. Raport. *Special Educational Needs in Europe. The Teaching and Learning of Languages. Insights and Innovation. Teaching Languages to Learners with Special Needs*. DG EAC 23 03 LOT 3, 2005.
- Krzyszowski T.P., *Niewidomi a języki obce, czyli kilka słów o tyfloglottodydaktyce*. „Języki Obce w Szkole”, Wydanie specjalne 7: *Nauczanie języków obcych uczniów niepełnosprawnych*. Ośrodek Rozwoju Edukacji, Warsaw 2001, pp. 5-12.
- Marek B., 2000a. *Teaching Visually Impaired Students in Poland*. Online interview, <http://www.unicef.org/teachers/forum/0300.htm> [access: 09.01.2018].

- Marek B., 2000b. *Visions and strategies for the new century*. Post-conference materials from the European Conference, Kraków 9-13 July 2000, <http://www.hungryfingers.com/learning.html> [access: 05.01.2018].
- McColl H., 2000. *Modern Languages For All. Entitlement for All Series*. David Fulton Publishers, Oxford.
- McDonald R., 1968. *A Report on Special Intensive Language. Courses for the Blind*. Georgetown University Institute for Language and Linguistics, Washington DC.
- Mills A.E., *The Development of Phonology in the Blind Child*, [in:] *Hearing by Eye: The Psychology of Lip-Reading*, ed. B. Dodd, R. Campbell, London, Erlbaum Associates, 1983, pp. 145-163.
- Morrissey W.P., *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools for the Blind*. The Teachers Forum, Nov. 1931.
- O'Malley J.M., Chamot A., Stewner-Manzanares G., Kupper L., Russo R., *Learning Strategies Used by Beginning and Intermediate ESL Students*. "Language Learning", 1985, 35/1, pp. 21-46.
- Oxford R., *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*, New York, USA, Newbury House, 1990.
- Rubin, J. *What the Good Language Learner Can Teach Us*, TESOL Quarterly, 1981, No. 9, 1, pp. 41-51.
- Wesołowska A., Jedynek M., *FL Vocabulary Learning Strategies Used by Blind, Partially Blind and Normally Sighted Learners of English In Teaching Languages off the Beaten Track*, [in:] *Language Learning & Language Teaching series*, ed. M. Paradowski, Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Main 2014, pp. 306-328.
- Wyszyńska B., *Teaching English as a Foreign Language to the Visually Impaired. A Recharged Direct Method*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Academy of Sciences in Łódź 2013.



Analogical reasoning based on geometric material in blind pupils

ABSTRACT: Izabella Kucharczyk, *Analogical reasoning based on geometric material in blind pupils*, Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 215–232. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.12>

Analogical reasoning constitutes one of the ways the blind get to know the world; it enriches information and influences thinking.

The purpose of the article is the presentation of results of research on reasoning using geometric analogies in blind pupils aged 10, 12 and 14. The study encompassed a group of 63 blind pupils and 63 seeing pupils. The study used the twelve *series B matrices* from the *Progressive Matrices* of John C. Raven. A detailed analysis of the dependencies between the variables permitted the determination of differences between groups of pupils in terms of reasoning using geometric analogies.

KEY WORDS: analogical reasoning, blind pupils, geometric analogies

Introduction

Analogy is a term used in various daily situations. Would one be forbidden to use analogies, then most probably the would not be able to cope with acquiring new knowledge.

The term „analogy” is of Greek origin, as *αναλογία*. It is made up of the adverb “an”, “ana” (*αν, ανα*) and refers to the level of multiplication or repetition, e. g. twice, thrice. The second component of

the term is the noun “*logos*” (λογος), derived from the verb “*legin*” (λεγειν), meaning to “*put together*”, “*speak*”. Etymologically speaking, an “*analogy*” is a condition referring to the existence of a specific item, or speaking of it.

Zdzisław Chlewiński, Andrzej Falkowski and Piotr Francuz¹ had conducted an analysis of object literature on the various modes of use of the term “*analogy*”. Two approaches to defining this term are known. The first is the structural, or syntactic, approach, assuming that an analogy is something equalising, balancing, between two objects or events. It permits an analysis of the relations between selected components of a specific event. Such an analysis can refer to components available by way of perception or constituents of a specific event that are not available directly to our cognition. The second, functional, or pragmatic, approach, explains “*analogies*” somewhat differently. In view of the proponents of this approach, an analogy refers primarily to seeking relationships between external components, transgressing the scope concerning the event being studied. The process of formation of analogies, or the process of comparison of events, is possible when the readiness emerges to think in cause-and-effect categories.

In the opinion of Edward Nęcka, Jarosław Orzechowski and Błażej Szymura², an analogy is a certain transfer between various areas of science. Such a transfer can be positive (if an individual expands their knowledge and uses various techniques to solve the problem at hand) or negative (in this case the use of similar techniques in comparable problem situations is of little effectiveness).

An analogy is the basis for drawing certain conclusions, for fusing data into individual subclasses. Thanks to processes of analogy, it is possible, on the basis of already owned information about a specific object, to assign its properties to other objects. An analogy

¹ Z. Chlewiński, A. Falkowski, P. Francuz, *Wnioskowanie przez analogię w procesach kategoryzacji*, Wydawnictwo Towarzystwo Naukowe KUL, Lublin 1995, pp. 25–38.

² E. Nęcka, J. Orzechowski, B. Szymura, *Psychologia poznawcza*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2006, pp. 474–478.

may refer to semiotics and methodology. From the point of view of methodology, an analogy is evaluated as the basic theory constituting the vantage point for certain modes of reasoning or model theory³.

It must be stressed that the terms "analogy" and „analogical reasoning" are not unequivocal terms.

Analogical reasoning, as Tadeusz Kwiatkowski⁴ indicates "is reasoning, in which, if one would have at their disposal in one observed case (or in more cases) a specific set of components, and a fragment of such a set in another, one may come to a conclusion on how this component fits in with the entire set".

Adam Biela⁵, in turn, indicates three main purposes of analogical reasoning:

- 1) Analogical reasoning can be used to enrich the knowledge that one already has.
- 2) Analogical reasoning permits the determination of relations between elements.
- 3) Analogical reasoning increases the probability of a certain conclusion being correct.

Analogical reasoning in blind pupils

Studies on analogical reasoning in pupils with eyesight disabilities are comparably scarce. Bogdan Pietrullewicz⁶ had conducted experiments among 60 blind persons in school age (3rd, 5th and 7th

³J. Przybyłowski, *O pewnej interpretacji wnioskowania przez analogie*, [in:] *Logiczne podstawy rozumowań, part II*, ed. by L. Kostro, J. Przybyłowski, Wydawnictwo, Uniwersytet Gdański, Gdańsk 1997, pp. 28–39.

⁴T. Kwiatkowski, *Logika ogólna*, Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 1992, pp. 303.

⁵A. Biela, *Psychologiczne podstawy wnioskowania przez analogię*, Wydawnictwo PWN, Warszawa 1989, pp. 19–39.

⁶B. Pietrullewicz, *Rozwój rozumowanie przez analogię u dzieci niewidomych*, Wydawnictwo PAN, Komitet Nauk Psychologicznych, Zakład Narodowy Ossolińskich, Wrocław, Kraków, Gdańsk, Łódź 1983, pp. 82–95.

grade of primary school). He made the assumption that blind persons, using analogies from an early age, obtain new abilities of its steadily improving use even in situations that are entirely new to them. Experiments by Bogdan Pietrulewicz applied to analogies based on semantic material (part-whole relationships, oppositions, cause-and-effect relationships), using numerical material and geometric analogies. The main hypothesis was the statement that the ability of analogical reasoning develops to the same extent as it does in seeing persons. In terms of analogies based on geometric material, seeing persons tend to achieve better results, doing tasks in terms of visual perception, with the blind performing the same tasks as the seeing group, but by touch. The lowest scores were achieved by blind pupils solving the same problems by touch.

Zofia Sękowska⁷ in her studies on analogical reasoning stressed just how great the importance of analogies is, especially in terms of appreciation of external characteristics of specific objects such as: size, colour, shape. These are properties unavailable to the blind. In view of Zofia Sękowska, the blind use analogies when getting to know simple items that are not very complex, and this is possible thanks to them having general information on that specific subject. The blind use analogies as to the size of objects relatively rarely. Another advantage of using analogies is applying them to naming sensory or emotional stimuli and to create surrogate representations. In view of M. Grzegorzewska⁸, surrogate representations are *specific substitutes of those parts of a view that are not or not fully available to blind persons and play an important role in shaping their world of images and concepts*. An analogy permits the fusion of stimuli, seeking common properties. Such cognitive activity enriches one's knowledge, expands the scope of surrogate representations that thus become multimodal.

⁷Z. Sękowska, *Kształcenie dzieci niewidomych*, Wydawnictwo PWN, Warszawa 1974, pp. 175-183.

⁸M. Grzegorzewska *Struktura wyobrażeń surogatowych u niewidomych*, *Polskie Archiwum Psychologii*, 1927, vol. 1, 4, p. 302.

In order for the blind to be able to make analogies, the ability is necessary to create specific mental representations that emerge as a result of a complex cognitive process based on sensations from various sources: sensory channels (touch, hearing, senses) as well as spatial sensations⁹. These sensations are then transferred to working memory, where they are further processed. In view of Serge Bouaziz, Sandrine Russier and Annie Magnan¹⁰; Cesar Cornoldi, Maria-Chiara Fastame and Tomaso Vecchi¹¹; Morton A. Heller and Edouard Gentaz¹², innate blindness does not hinder the creation of mental images, but they span less information and emerge more slowly than in case of persons utilising eyesight.

The comparison of geometric analogies requires the ability to perform rotations. In order to do them, a reference point is needed, with respect to which the rotation is to take place. Hence, in view of Anna Sfard, the use of various fixed frames in the process of learning things, in which objects, items, drawings can be rotated, whereby curves and diagrams can be created¹³. Brigotte Röder and Frank Rösler¹⁴ have in turn stated that the formation of rotated objects in the imagination of the blind occurs more slowly and contains more errors than is the case of seeing persons.

⁹C. Cornoldi, M.-C. Fastame, T. Vecchi, *Congenitally blindness and spatial mental imagery*, [in:] *Touching for Knowing*, eds. Y. Hatwell, A. Streri, E. Gentaz, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2003, vol. 53, pp. 173–187.

¹⁰S. Bouaziz, S. Russier, A. Magnan, *The Copying of Complex Geometric Drawings by Sighted and Visually Impaired Children*, “Journal of Visual Impairment and Blindness” 2005, vol. 99(12), pp. 765–774

¹¹C. Cornoldi, M.-C. Fastame, T. Vecchi, *Congenitally blindness and spatial mental imagery*, [in:] *Touching for Knowing*, eds. Y. Hatwell, A. Streri, E. Gentaz, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2003, vol. 53, pp. 173–187.

¹²M.A. Heller, E. Gentaz, *Psychology of Touch and Blindness*, Psychology Press, New York 2014, pp. 132–149.

¹³A. Sfard, *Balancing the unbalanceable: The NCTM Standards in Light of Theories of Learning Mathematics*, [in:] *A research companion to principles and standards for school mathematics* eds. J. Kilpatrick, W.G. Martin, D. Schifter, National Council for Teachers of Mathematics, Reston, Virginia 2003, pp. 353–392.

¹⁴B. Röder, F. Rösler, *Visual input does not facilitate the scanning of spatial images*, “Journal of Mental Imagery”, 1998, vol. 22(3–4), pp. 165–182.

Studies on the use of analogies in a group of blind pupils, as well as the creation of spatial representations, were conducted by Marcus Knauff and Elisabeth May¹⁵. They have conducted three sets of experiments, in which blind and seeing persons (blindfolded) performed the same tasks. These applied to the determination of eye-space relations that are easy to solve both with eyesight as well as spatially; visual relations that can be solved easily visually, and difficult problems, in which the solutions are difficult to foresee both visually as well as spatially. As it turned out, the blind, irrespective of the task type, solved them more slowly and less precisely. The authors also believe that if inference on spatial relations is also based on verbal data, then the reasoning process itself proceeds more effectively and is more correct.

Analogical reasoning plays an enormous role in the life of the blind. It permits the cognition of phenomena that are not available to the blind by touch or hearing. As the seeing utilise verbal material and expressions describing relations between all senses – the blind must, as best as they can, get to know these expressions for themselves. Analogy lets them to just this. Thinking by analogies permits the cognition of specific relations between objects, concepts, phenomena, expands the vocabulary, increases the volume of understood concepts, thanks to which the emerging vision of reality is much more fitting.

Methodological assumptions

The purpose of the article is the determination, how reasoning by geometric analogies proceeds in three age groups of blind and seeing pupils (ages 10, 12 and 14). Based on literature concerning special education and psychology as well as own experiences, the following research questions were posed, which were later verified through appropriately selected measurement tools:

¹⁵M. Knauff, E. May, *Mental Imagery, Reasoning, and Blindness*, "The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology", 2006, vol. 59(1), pp. 161-177.

- 1) What are the characteristics of reasoning by geometric analogies in blind pupils in the 3rd and 5th grades of primary school and in the 1st grade of lower secondary school?
- 2) What are the characteristics of reasoning by geometric analogies in blind pupils as compared to seeing pupils in the 3rd and 5th grades of primary school and in the 1st grade of lower secondary school?

Research on analogies based on geometric material was conducted, among others, by Bogdan Pietrulenicz¹⁶. He was able to show that in terms of tactile perception of the blind and seeing in 3rd and 5th grades of primary school and in first grade of lower secondary school, with reference to analogies based on image and geometric material, there are no statistically significant differences. In terms of tactile and visual perception of seeing pupils, in turn, there are statistically significant differences irrespective of the age of those studied (10, 12 and 14). In addition, work by B. Pietrulenicz¹⁷ has shown that there are no statistically significant differences in terms of tactile perception of the blind and visual perception of the seeing. It is thus assumed that the blind can just as aptly as the seeing describe relations of analogies based on geometric material.

Characteristics of the studied group

The study spanned 126 pupils¹⁸. The basic group was composed of 63 blind pupils aged ten (3rd grade of primary school), 12 (5th grade

¹⁶ B. Pietrulenicz, *Rozwój rozumowanie przez analogię u dzieci niewidomych*, Wydawnictwo PAN, Komitet Nauk Psychologicznych, Zakład Narodowy Ossolińskich, Wrocław, Kraków, Gdańsk, Łódź 1983, pp. 82-95.

¹⁷ B. Pietrulenicz, *Rozwój rozumowanie przez analogię u dzieci niewidomych*, Wydawnictwo PAN, Komitet Nauk Psychologicznych, Zakład Narodowy Ossolińskich, Wrocław, Kraków, Gdańsk, Łódź 1983, pp. 82-95.

¹⁸ The study was conducted in the academic year 2007/2008 and are a part of studies executed ahead of a doctoral dissertation. Since that time, no studies concerning geometric analogies were undertaken in Poland.

of primary school) and 14 (1st grade of lower secondary school). They were subdivided into three age categories of 21 pupils. Blind pupils originally came from all of Poland and learned at seven special-purpose school facilities, hence their choice for the group was purposeful. The blind pupils were an equal group in terms of gender – there were 25 boys and 38 girls. Among the 21 studied third-graders – nine (42.9%) were at the boarding school for four years, meaning, since beginning learning in class „0”, two persons (9.5%) remained there for three years, seven persons (33.3%) – two years, two persons (9.5%) – one year. In 5th grade, four persons (19%) resided at the facility since age six, seven (33.3%) – since 1st grade, one (4.8%) – since 2nd grade, five (23.8%) – since 3rd grade, 2 (9.5%) – since 4th grade, two persons (9.5%) had never stayed at a boarding school. Among pupils of lower secondary schools, eight (38.1%) remained at the boarding school for seven years, meaning since 1st grade, six (28.6%) – for six years, 3 (14.2%) – for five years, one (4.8%) – for four years, 1 (4.8%) – for a year, two lived outside of the facility.

The comparison group was composed of 63 seeing pupils subdivided into the same age groups of the same size. The choice for the comparative group was purposefully random, as it was selected in terms of numbers, genders, ages and places of residence as compared to the blind pupils.

When choosing persons for the group, the formerly selected criteria were adhered to: the presence or lack of eyesight damage (in case of pupils with eyesight damage, the studied group was made up of persons who were born blind or those who had lost their eyesight before the age of five); age (10; 12 14 years); determined correct intellectual development; school type (special education facility for blind pupils; public school for seeing pupils); no additional illnesses.

The present article presents results of trials spanning analogies based on image and geometric material. In order to test reasoning through geometric analogies, utilised were twelve *series B matrices* from the *Progressive Matrices* of John C. Raven. Only series B was selected because it is based on analogies between pairs of figures,

which is congruent with the set research objectives. The seeing pupils were to solve the image-based version in its original form, with the blind receiving the matrices transformed into tactile versions.

The series B of 12 matrices by John C. Raven was constructed based on analogies between two pairs of figures. The task of the pupil is to discover the relation between the pair of figures, and the transposition of this relation on to the other pair, composed of one component that is shown, and the unknown to be chosen by analogy out of six indicated sections. The figures may be rotated about the horizontal or vertical axis. The shapes of the figures in tasks B₁, B₉, B₁₀, B₁₁, B₁₂ are point-symmetric, and in tasks B₂, B₃, B₄, B₅, B₆, B₇, B₈ they are point-asymmetric. Point-symmetric figures do not change their position when rotated about their axis, and point-asymmetric figures do change their position.

Results

A statistical analysis of the data obtained thanks to the use of the 12 series B tables of *Progressive Matrices* by J.C. Raven permitted the determination of the results in terms of geometric analogies achieved by both blind as well as seeing pupils aged ten, 12 and 14, learning on the same levels of education (see Table 1).

Table 1. Differences of means for the variables for geometric analogies of blind and seeing pupils

Variable	Pupil age	Blind pupils (N=63)		Seeing pupils (N=63)		Student's t-test results		
		M	SD	M	SD	t	df	p
Geometric analogies	10 years	4.10	1.37	6.00	2.53	-3.032	40	0.005
	12 years	7.76	2.30	8.48	1.81	-1.119	40	0.270
	14 years	9.33	1.24	10.00	1.55	-1.540	40	0.131

Legend: M - arithmetic mean, SD - standard deviation, df - degrees of freedom, p - significance, bold type - statistical significance < 0.05;

Source: Own analysis based on SPSS 24.0.

In terms of geometric analogies, the pupils were to solve 12 tasks. For each correct answer, a point was awarded. The maximum score was 12, the minimum – zero. The lowest mean value in geometric analogies was achieved by blind pupils attending 1st grade of lower secondary school (14 years), at $M=9.33$, which is 77.75% of the maximum achievable score (seeing pupils achieved a mean result of $M=10$). The results diverge by 1.23, and the range for the mean results is 8.10 to 10.56. The lowest score in the group of blind 14-year-olds is seven points, the top score – 11. The mean value of results achieved by blind pupils aged 10 was $M=4.10$, which is 34.16% of the maximum achievable result. This is the lowest score achieved among all the blind pupils. The results diverge by 1.37 points, and the range of mean results thus created is 2.73 to 5.47. In this group the minimum score was two points, and the maximum – seven.

The conducted analysis had disclosed the presence of one statistically significant difference between the studied groups of blind and seeing pupils (see Table 1). Based on Student's t-test, it was shown that in terms of reasoning through geometric analogies, there exists a statistically significant difference between blind and seeing pupils aged ten, learning in 3rd grade of primary school ($t=-3.032$ (40); $p<0.05$). Based on the mean arithmetic value, one could state that seeing pupils ($M=6.00$) achieve significantly higher results for the discussed analogy type.

The numerical data from table 1 permit the conclusion that there are no statistically significant differences between groups of blind and seeing pupils aged 12 (attending 5th grade of primary school) and 14 (1st grade of lower secondary school). One can only conclude, based on the arithmetic means, that both for the former ($M=7.76$ and $M=9.33$) and the latter age group ($M=8.48$ and $M=10.00$), seeing pupils achieve better scores in solving tasks based on geometric material.

The obtained empirical material also permits the conclusion that the highest distribution of scores among blind pupils is found in 5th grade of primary school (age 12), and among the seeing – in 3rd grade of primary school (age 10). This distribution reduces with age.

Based on arithmetic means, one may notice that the highest gain in results for the base group (blind pupils) as well as the control group (seeing pupils) is found between the 3rd and 5th grades of primary school.

Below is presented data concerning the intra-group difference determination using single-factor variance analysis (ANOVA) (see Table 2). Result F of the variance analysis for the variable of geometric analogies of blind pupils aged 10 (3rd grade of primary school), 12 (5th grade of primary school) and 14 (1st grade of lower secondary school) indicates the presence of statistically significant differences for the analysed variable, indicating intra-group variability.

Table 2. Results of the single-factor variance analysis (ANOVA) for the variable of age for geometric analogies in blind pupils

Variable	Group	M	Variance analysis (ANOVA) results			
			F	Groups	Difference of means	p
Geometric analogies	aged 10	4.10	F=52.235 df ₁ =2 df ₂ =60	1 and 2	-3.667	0.000
	aged 12	7.76		1 and 3	-5.238	0.000
	aged 14	9.33		2 and 3	-1.571	0.029

Legend: M - arithmetic mean, F - variance analysis factor, p - significance, bold type - statistical significance <0.05; df₁, df₂ - degrees of freedom.

Source: Own analysis based on SPSS 24.0

The analysis of the numbers had revealed, based on F factor value for the single-factor variance analysis (ANOVA) that reasoning through geometric analogies is differentiated by the age of the analysed persons (F(2;60)=52.235; p<0,05; see Table 2). For the purpose of determination of statistically significant differences in terms of reasoning by geometric analogies between blind pupils aged 10, 12 and 14, an analysis of the results was conducted using Dunnett's Test, as the variances were not uniform. It must be noted that pupils aged 14 (1st grade of lower secondary school) are characterised by

a significantly higher mean result ($p < 0.005$) compared to pupils aged 12 (5th grade of primary school; $p < 0.005$) and pupils aged 10 (3rd grade of primary school; $p < 0.05$). One may additionally conclude, based on arithmetic means, that the higher the age difference between pupils, the discrepancies among the groups of blind people are higher.

The analysis of the results also shows that for blind people in the three studied age groups, the following turned out to be the simplest tasks: 1 (M=18.33), 2 (M=17), 3 (M=17), 4 (M=16), 5 (M= 14.33), 6 (M=13), 7 (M=10.66) and 9 (M=11.33). Difficult were the following: 8 (M=9.66), 10 (M=10), 11 (M=6.66), 12 (M=4.31). For seeing pupils, the tasks solved flawlessly are: 1 (M = 20.66), 2 (M=20.66), 3 (M=20.33), 4 (M=17.66), 5 (M=16.33), 6 (M=15), 7 (M=13), 9 (M=11.33) and 10 (M=11). The tasks that proved most difficult are 8 (M=10), 11 (M=7.66) and 12 (M=7.66). There was no task, in which blind pupils would score better than seeing pupils.

Below the individual tasks are characterised according to their numbers.

Task 1 (concerns a symmetrical figure) was the easiest of the 12 presented tasks, and did not pose too much trouble both for blind as well as for seeing pupils. Solely blind third-graders achieved a score of just 13 (61.9%). Almost all of the rest answered correctly.

Task 2 was constructed according to a similar principle as the former, but was somewhat more complicated (point-asymmetric figure). The largest difference are visible between 3rd grade (11 points - 52.38%) and 5th grade (19 points - 90.47%) in the blind group. This difference is eight points. In the group of seeing pupils, this difference is just one point. Pupils of both groups in 1st grade of lower secondary school scored 21 (100%). The typical error made by the pupils is indicating a figure close to the correct one, but differing in size and proportions of the individual components (answers two and three).

Task 3 concerned a point-asymmetric figure. The basis for the correct solution is uncovering the relation of opposition between the pairs of figures. The spread of results is similar to task 2. The high-

est difference was found between 3rd grade (11 points – 52.38%) and 5th grade (19 points – 90.47%) in the group of blind pupils. There were no such differences in the group of seeing pupils. The highest volume of wrong answers given by blind people applied to figure 5, because they did not take into account the 180° rotation. They also indicated figures 4 (figure of varied properties) and 2 (smaller figure).

Task 4 concerned a point-asymmetric figure. Its solution is dependent on the ability to perform the synthesis of a circle. Differences between groups are becoming more visible. Blind third-graders achieved a result of 10 (47.61%) and seeing pupils – 14 (66.66%). The difference amounted to 8 points between 3rd and 5th grade of blind pupils, five for the seeing group. Between 3rd grade of the blind and seeing pupils the difference was four points, and the difference between blind and seeing fifth-graders – one point. Both pupils with damaged eyesight as well as seeing pupils of the 1st grade of lower secondary school achieved scores of 20 (95.23%). The most common wrong answers were indications of figures 4 and 6 as correct. In these figures rotation is not taken into account, they are repetitions of original figures. Figure 3, a smaller-sized figure, was also chosen.

Task 5 is also a point-symmetric figure with varying properties. The analysed person, in order to solve this task, would need to rotate this figure and take into account the altered property of surface linearity. This is a task that is quite difficult for younger pupils. In all age categories, seeing pupils achieved higher results as compared to pupils with damaged eyesight. Both in the base as well as in the control groups, the result improvement progresses most between 3rd and 5th grade of primary school. The most common mistakes made by younger pupils in both studied groups was indicating tables four and five. These are figures that are not rotated by 180°. Figure 3 is the same as the main figure from the bottom left corner. Figure 5 reflects the upper right figure, to which the pupil is supposed to find an analogy.

Task 6 is point-asymmetric, and entails rotation of the figure by 180°. The biggest improvement of results in the base and control

groups was found between 3rd and 5th grade of primary school. The difference in scores in the blind group was eight points, ten points in the seeing group – 10 points. Differences between results achieved by 5th grade of primary school and 1st grade of lower secondary school are minimum and amount to two points and one point, respectively. Characteristic errors made by pupils in both groups is indicating the following answers: 2, 4, 5, 6. Figure 2 corresponds to the main figure in the upper left corner, figure 4 is equivalent to the main figure from the upper right part of the page. Responses indicating figures 5 and 6 apply to rotation by 180°, not by 90°.

Task 7 also covers a point-asymmetric figure. The difficulty level for this task is high, requiring the pupil to execute a rotation by 180° and to consider the surface linearity, which is not simple for blind pupils in lower grades. The highest improvement of scores for this task is again found in the time between 3rd and 5th grade of primary school. The difference in results between 3rd and 5th grade in the group of blind pupils amounted to seven points, and in the group of seeing pupils – eight points. The difference between 5th grade of primary school and 1st grade of lower secondary school in the group of blind pupils is three points, and one point in the group of seeing pupils. In this task, for all age groups, seeing pupils achieved better results. The answers selected most frequently were 2, 3, 4 and 6. Figure 2 repeats the main figure from the upper right part of the page. Figure 3 is rotated horizontally and vertically by 180°, but has no characteristics of linearity. Figure 4 is rotated by 180° in the horizontal axis. Figure 6 is rotated by 180° in the horizontal and vertical axes, but has characteristics of linearity.

Task 8 concerns a point-asymmetric figure. Its solution is dependent on the ability to discern a figure from its background. The highest gain in results is found between 3rd and 5th grade of primary school. In the blind group, the difference in scores between pupils of these grades was 5 points, among seeing pupils – 8 points. Differences between pupils from 5th grade of primary school and 1st grade of lower secondary school are minimal. In this task, seeing pupils again achieved better results than their blind counterparts.

Errors concerned the following figures: 1, 3, 5, 6. Figure 1 is a repetition of the main figure in the top part of the left page. Figure 3 refers to main figures placed on the right in the bottom and upper parts. Pupils who chose response no. 5 as the unknown, indicated the figure but omitted changes in its properties. Figure 6 may be similar to the correct one, but is not identical.

Task 9 refers to a point-symmetric figure and requires rotation of figures. In this task, just like in the former tasks, the highest spread of results both for blind pupils as well as for seeing pupils is found between 3rd and 5th grades of primary school. The difference in the achieved results for the blind pupil group was 5 points, and in the group of seeing pupils – 7 points. Differences between 5th grade and grade one of lower secondary school are minimal. In this task, blind people from 3rd grade got one point more than seeing pupils. However, the score of pupils from the basic and comparison group from the 1st grade of lower secondary school is 15 (71.42%) each. Wrong solutions are the following figures: 1, 2, 5, 6. Figure 1 is a repetition of the main figure on the upper right side of the page. Figure 2 is also a repetition of the main figure, to which analogies must be made, but it does not consider changes of properties due to added elements. Figure 5 is a repetition of the main figure from the lower left part of the page. Figure 6 considers properties of the main figure, but not the one to which analogies must be found.

Task 10 is a point-symmetric task, and requires the introduction of an additional element. The highest gain of results is found for the period between 5th grade of primary school and 1st grade of lower secondary school, because for blind pupils the difference here is eight points, and for seeing pupils – 12 points. This task turned out to be very difficult for blind third-grade pupils, because they only scored four points. Among the groups of blind and seeing pupils, mistakes were similar. Most mistakes were made by blind 3rd grade pupils. They indicated all the possible answers, most frequently – 1 and 2, repetitions of the main figures. Figures 3, 4, 5 and 6 were chosen less frequently.

Tasks 11 and 12 are point-symmetric. Both pupils from the base group as well as from the control group achieved low scores. In

task 11, which entailed changing the location of the figure, blind and seeing third-graders only gave two correct answers. In task 12, none of the blind pupils chose a correct answer. Neither in task 11, nor in task 12 did blind pupils achieve better results than those of seeing pupils. In terms of task 11, pupils would indicate all of the possible wrong answers, with figures 2, 3 and 6 being most frequent. Figure 2 was a repetition of the main figure from the left part of the page; figure three is a rotation of the figure, to which an analogy was to be constructed. Responses indicating figure 6 referred to a repetition of the main figure. Task 12 was the most difficult. Its basis was subtraction of figures in the centre. The most common errors were answers two and three, which were repetitions of the main figures. They appear most frequently, because pupils, not finding analogies, called on the figures to which they were supposed to find references. Responses 1 and 4 were decidedly less frequent.

Summary and conclusions

To summarise, results obtained during studies on reasoning based on geometric analogies permit the following conclusions:

1. On the basis of statistical analyses it could be shown that in terms of reasoning by geometric analogies, there exists a statistically significant difference between blind and seeing pupils in the 3rd grade of primary school (age 10), in favour of seeing pupils. Blind fifth-graders (age 12) and pupils of the 1st grade of lower secondary school (age 14) also achieved lower scores than their seeing peers, yet these are not statistically significant differences. Such results may be explained by slower development of brain operations such as comparisons, in blind pupils. With age, the distribution between the base and comparison group drops decidedly, as older-aged pupils,

thanks to systematic tactile exercises, perfect their abilities to differentiate, classify and rotate objects. Similar conclusions were drawn, based on their research, by Bogdan Pietrulewicz¹⁹ and Krzysztof Klimasiński²⁰.

2. In all 12 trials of geometric analogies, it was determined that blind pupils achieved weaker scores than their seeing peers did. This could stem from the properties of the material they worked with. Seeing pupils solved original tasks, and blind pupils used tactile versions, making noticing differences between the figures, as noted earlier, more difficult.
3. Point-symmetric trials turned out to be the most difficult, as they required changing the location of the figure and subtraction of figures from the inside. The most common errors made both by blind as well as by seeing pupils were the following: repetitions of main figures, wrong rotation, choosing similar figures that differed in size and proportion of the individual components, failing to take account linearity. Errors had similar properties in both groups, but blind people made many more of them.

Analogical reasoning is one of the basic modes of expansion and enrichment of knowledge. It is the more perfect, the more blind pupils have modes to utilise it in practice. For this purpose, teachers should care for the preparation of various tasks of analytical, synthetic and analytical-synthetic character.

Teachers should also keep in mind that during classes not only in exact sciences, pupils should be able to make comparisons, abstractions, to rotate and change the location of items. In order to improve the quality of geometric analogies, as many sensory exercises as possible are needed; these should be based on the senses of touch and hearing as well as spatial orientation.

¹⁹B. Pietrulewicz, *Rozwój rozumowanie przez analogię u dzieci niewidomych*, Wydawnictwo PAN, Komitet Nauk Psychologicznych, Zakład Narodowy Ossolińskich, Wrocław, Kraków, Gdańsk, Łódź 1983, pp. 82-95.

²⁰K. Klimasiński, *Rola wyobrażeń przestrzennych w rozwoju myślenia dzieci niewidomych*, Wydawnictwo PAN, Zakład Narodowy Ossolińskich, Wrocław-Warszawa-Kraków-Gdańsk 1977, pp. 47-89.

Bibliography

- Biela A., *Psychologiczne podstawy wnioskowania przez analogię*, Wydawnictwo PWN, Warszawa 1989.
- Bouaziz S., Russier S. Magnan A., *The Copying of Complex Geometric Drawings by Sighted and Visually Impaired Children*, "Journal of Visual Impairment and Blindness" 2005, vol. 99(12), pp. 765-774.
- Chlewiński Z., Falkowski A., Francuz P., *Wnioskowanie przez analogię w procesach kategoryzacji*, Wydawnictwo Towarzystwo Naukowe KUL, Lublin 1995.
- Cornoldi C., Fastame M.-C., Vecchi T., *Congenitally blindness and spatial mental imagery*, [in:] *Touching for Knowing*, eds. Y. Hatwell, A. Streri, E. Gentaz, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2003.
- Grzegorzewska M., *Struktura wyobrażeń surogatowych u niewidomych*, *Polskie Archiwum Psychologii*, 1927, vol. 1, 4, p. 302.
- Heller M.A., Gentez E., *Psychology of Touch and Blindness*, Psychology Press, New York 2014.
- Klimasiński K., *Rola wyobrażeń przestrzennych w rozwoju myślenia dzieci niewidomych*, Wydawnictwo PAN, Zakład Narodowy Ossolińskich, Wrocław-Warszawa-Kraków-Gdańsk 1977.
- Knauff M., May E., *Mental Imagery, Reasoning, and Blindness*, "The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology", 2006, vol. 59(1), p. 161-177.
- Kwiatkowski T., *Logika ogólna*, Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 1992.
- Nęcka E., Orzechowski J., Szymura B., *Psychologia poznawcza*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2006.
- Pietrullewicz B., *Rozwój rozumowanie przez analogię u dzieci niewidomych*, Wydawnictwo PAN, Komitet Nauk Psychologicznych, Zakład Narodowy Ossolińskich, Wrocław, Kraków, Gdańsk, Łódź 1983.
- Przybyłowski J., *O pewnej interpretacji wnioskowania przez analogie*, [in:] *Logiczne podstawy rozumowań*, part II, ed. by L. Kostro, J. Przybyłowski, Wydawnictwo, Uniwersytet Gdański, Gdańsk 1997.
- Röder B., Rösler F., *Visual input does not facilitate the scanning of spatial images*, "Journal of Mental Imagery", 1998, vol. 22(3-4), p. 165-182.
- Sękowska Z., *Kształcenie dzieci niewidomych*, Wydawnictwo PWN, Warszawa 1974.
- Sfard A., *Balancing the unbalancable: The NCTM Standards in Light of Theories of Learning Mathematics*, [in:] *A research companion to principles and standards for school mathematics*, eds. J. Kilpatrick, W.G. Martin, D. Schifter, National Council for Teachers of Mathematics, Reston, Virginia 2003.



ELŻBIETA LUBIŃSKA-KOŚCIÓŁEK,
JOLANTA ZIELIŃSKA

Education Pedagogical University of Cracow

A person with hearing impairment as a recipient of art – the borderline of special needs education and neuroaesthetics

ABSTRACT: Elżbieta Lubińska-Kościółek, Jolanta Zielińska, *A person with hearing impairment as a recipient of art – the borderline of special needs education and neuroaesthetics*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 233–246. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.13>

In this paper the research of art perception by people with hearing disorder has been presented. This study has been performed from the perspective of special pedagogy and neuroaesthetic. The encephalography technique and QEEG analysis has been performed with usage of Mitsar-EEG-202 head. This device is controlled by WinEEG software which allows qualitative and quantitative analysis many aspects of EEG signals integrated with two physiological sensors: rhythm of heard and amplitudes of blade pulse and breathing. The results of this study shown usability of the proposed research process for identification new research topics in area of special pedagogy. They also illustrated as many important information about influence of disorder on functioning disable person may be collected by such study. This related in this case to neurological aspects of art perception by by people with hearing disorder.

KEY WORDS: hearing disorder, brain, art

1. Foreword

In his book *Splendors and Miseries of the Brain: Love, Creativity and Quest for Human Happiness*, Semir Zeki, in his original way, discusses the neurobiological foundations of human creativity. As the founder of neuroaesthetics, the discipline that deals with the neurobiological foundations of aesthetic perception, he claims that each stage of visual art, from planning through creating to perceiving, must comply with the laws of visual perception and that artists may be compared to brain researchers using specific research methods. Although art, love and beauty are generally considered to be abstract concepts, there are more and more arguments confirming that the experiences associated with them are closely linked to the activity of specific parts of the brain¹.

The tests presented subsequently, concerning specific art perception by adults with hearing impairment, were conducted on the borderline of special needs education and neuroaesthetics. Their basic objective was to determine the specific patterns of bioelectrical brain activity in adults with hearing impairment during art perception and how it differs from the same activity in hearing persons. The tests are preliminary in nature, however, despite the relatively small test group, the results already seem significant for the broadly understood rehabilitation and inclusion of persons with hearing impairment. They create new possibilities for generating new solutions and, most importantly, for rehabilitation of hearing-impaired persons. Additionally, the tests confirm the interdisciplinary nature of special needs education and prove the usefulness of research on the borderline of special needs education and other disciplines, including neuroaesthetics, for example in the area of diagnostics, therapy and rehabilitation planning aimed at equalising the chances of persons with disabilities², according to the assump-

¹ S. Zeki, *Splendors and Miseries of the Brain: Love, Creativity and the Quest of the Human Happiness*, Wydawnictwo Wiley-Blackwell, Malden 2008, pp. 15–20.

² J. Zielińska, *Metody obrazowania pracy mózgu w perspektywie pedagogiki specjalnej – wybrane zagadnienia*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2015, p. 32.

tion that the major value of neuroimaging examination consists in the usefulness of its results for planning optimum individual rehabilitation programmes³. A separate problem is to improve the quality of life of persons with disabilities and increase their educational, social and professional chances, also as visual, musical or literary artists.

The tests presented subsequently diagnose bioelectrical brain activity in adults with hearing impairment during art perception⁴.

2. Methodological bases for testing the specific patterns of bioelectrical brain activity in adults with hearing impairment during art perception

Purpose of the tests: The purpose of the tests was to determine the specific patterns of bioelectrical brain activity in adults with hearing impairment during art perception and how it differs from the same activity in persons without hearing impairment. Also, by evaluating changes in physiological parameters in the subjects of the tests, the accompanying emotions were examined and, at the same time – to a limited extent – the activity of the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous systems responsible for those emotions. The following questions were posed: How strong are the emotions of students with hearing impairment when they look at works of art – paintings? Do the emotions of deaf students differ in specific cognitive situations from those of hearing students, and if they do – what is the degree of those differences? Is the emotional reaction of hearing students and deaf students in line with their aesthetic feelings?

³ K. Cieśla, *Plastyczność układu słuchowego – badania z zastosowaniem metod neuroobrazowania*, „Nowa Audiofonologia” 2013, no. 2(3), pp. 16–23.

⁴ J. Zielińska, *Wybrane techniki obrazowania sygnałów w perspektywie pedagogiki specjalnej – przykłady zastosowania w praktyce diagnostyczno-terapeutycznej*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2016, p. 133–146.

Test group: The tests covered a group of 8 students with hearing impairment and 30 hearing students aged 22 and 23. All the subjects of the tests were informed about the research procedures and gave their written consents. The students with hearing impairment were purposively sampled. They were persons with innate hearing impairment, deaf or hard of hearing, using hearing devices (implants or aids) and without multiple disabilities. Four of the respondents came from hearing families and the other four had deaf parents. All of them were fluent users of the sign language, and five of them also used the phonic language.⁵

Test methods: The tests were conducted as individual case studies⁶. This particular method was chosen due to the fact that the tests are innovative and the research group is relatively small.

Measuring techniques: The technologies used in the tests were encephalography, QEEG analysis and a test station with Mitsar-EEG-202 head and WinEEG software for quantitative and qualitative analysis of various aspects of the EEG signal. The QEEG analysis is a record of bioelectric activity that enables not only qualitative assessment but also quantitative assessment of the ratio and strength of the respective frequency bands in the analysed image. Brain activity determined on the basis of such tests is illustrated by waves of specific frequencies that suggest the condition of the subject. They include:

- Delta waves (δ) – frequency up to 4 Hz, typical of sleep stages 3 and 4 (NREM),
- Theta waves (θ) – frequency 4 to 8 Hz, typical of hypnotic conditions: trance, hypnosis, light sleep (associated with sleep stages 1 and 2 NREM). FM θ (frontal midline Theta) Theta rhythm, typical of such cognitive activities as attention and memory processes.

⁵ J. Zielińska, *Wybrane techniki obrazowania sygnałów w perspektywie pedagogiki specjalnej – przykłady zastosowania w praktyce diagnostyczno – terapeutycznej*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2016, p. 133.

⁶ T. Pilch, T. Bauman, *Zasady badań pedagogicznych. Strategie ilościowe i jakościowe*, Wydawnictwo Akademickie „Żak”, Warszawa 2001, pp. 77–79.

- Alpha waves (α) – frequency 8 to 13 Hz and amplitude around 30-100 μV , typical of lack of visual stimuli (closed eyes). During visual perception, they are suppressed. They are typical of relaxed state and limited cognitive activity.
- Beta waves (β) – frequency 12 to around 30 Hz and amplitude below 30 μV , typical of the engagement of the cerebral cortex in cognitive activity. They may suggest that the subject's attention is focused. However, they may also be activated by various pathologies or chemical substances⁷.

The slowest Delta waves are the waves of the unconscious state, present in deep sleep. At this stage, the synthesis of cortisol, responsible e.g. for stress and ageing, is reduced, and the levels of DHEA and melatonin increase. Theta waves are a band at the borderline of consciousness, associated, e.g. with intuition; they accompany creative processes and stimulate processes that integrate the body and the mind, e.g. during meditation. If their level is too high, they cause focus and concentration disorders. The Alpha band is associated with a state of relaxation but at the same time attention. In these tests, the Beta group of waves is very important, consisting of SMR (12–15 Hz), Beta1 (15–22 Hz) and Beta2 (22–50 Hz). SMR is called the low Beta band. It is the processing rhythm of sensory information received by the senses, also called relaxation with simultaneous external attention. Medium Beta, namely Beta1, is activated during intellectual activity: concentration, thinking, analysing and problem solving. The high Beta band – Beta2 – is associated with increased emotional tension, stress, anxiety or high energy consumption. It is correlated with the release of stress hormones (mainly adrenaline) The Gamma band is the least known wave. It may be found across the entire brain area and is probably linked with association processes and integrative thinking. It may accompany extreme emotions⁸.

⁷ <http://www.emeraldinsight.com/journals.htm?articleid=1840314> [accessed: 20.02.2018].

⁸ J. Zielińska, *Wybrane techniki obrazowania sygnałów w perspektywie pedagogiki specjalnej – przykłady zastosowania w praktyce diagnostyczno-terapeutycznej*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2016, pp. 118–119.

In experimental tests, the EEG signal was registered in nineteen electrodes set up according to the international 10–20 system, using the reference setup of connected earlobes. At impedance below 5 k Ω and sampling frequency 250 Hz, the EEG signal was filtered in the band 0.53–50 Hz. The tests also used: the BPV sensor to measure heart rate variability (photoplethysmography). It is attached to the finger and analyses the heart rate and pulse amplitude, while a breath sensor measures the breath rate and amplitude. It is attached to the thoracic diaphragm and breast area with a velcro strap.

Based on the test results, LF, HF and LF/HF ratios were determined. HF – high frequency spectrum 0.15-0.4 Hz reflects the activity of the parasympathetic nervous system and is often correlated with respiratory variability; LF – low frequency spectrum 0.04-0.15 Hz. this showed the activity of two ANS branches: the sympathetic nervous system and the parasympathetic nervous system. The LF/HF ratio increase suggests increased activity of the sympathetic nervous system⁹.

The tests consisted of 4 measurements. The 1st measurement was a recording of bioelectric activity at rest with open eyes (3 minutes). The other three measurements were taken while the subjects looked at painting (the total of 75), divided into three main categories and presented every 7 seconds. The respective categories were shown after a 3-minute brake. On the computer screen, the subjects looked at, respectively: representational paintings, abstract paintings and paintings expressing particularly negative emotions. The paintings were selected in consultation with a painter. After the measurements were taken, the subjects were asked to look at the paintings one more time and assess their aesthetic value on a scale of 0 (ugly) to 5 (beautiful). As was already mentioned, the main purpose of the tests was to determine the specific patterns of bioelectrical brain activity in adults with hearing impairment during art perception.

⁹ http://www.akademiamedycyny.pl/geriatria/archiwum/201404/201404_Geriatria_004.pdf [accessed: 18.03.2018].

Also, by evaluating changes in physiological parameters in the subjects, the accompanying emotions were examined, namely the activity of the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous systems. The sympathetic nervous system is the part of the autonomic nervous system responsible, e.g. for “stimulating” the organism and its reactions to stress. It is active mainly during the day, unlike the parasympathetic nervous system, which is active mainly at night. Its fibers cause, among other things: widening of the pupils, raising of hair, sweating of the hands, increased heart rate and narrowing of blood vessels, e.g. in the skin¹⁰. Thus, the tests to a limited extent concerned the emotionality of persons with hearing impairment and the possible resulting differences in reaction to the same artistic visual stimulus compared to hearing persons.

Based on the results of empirical tests presented in the literature, it is claimed that deaf persons are emotionally immature and have emotional disorders. It was observed, among other things, that they have too strong emotional links with the family, are egocentric and experience a feeling of inferiority. It was demonstrated, for example, that the more severe the hearing impairment is and the less developed the speech is, the stronger emotional disorders deaf children develop. They fail to perceive and understand most information, which limits their ability to participate in the life of their most immediate environment. The sense of isolation that develops gives grounds for strong negative emotional reactions, such as irritation, anger or aggression¹¹. Such children are passive and negative and have low self-esteem and high levels of fear. They avoid contacts with hearing persons and their achievements are not adequate to their possibilities¹². Research concerning the specificity of psychoso-

¹⁰ http://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autonomiczny_uk%C5%82ad_nerwowy [accessed: 23.03.2018].

¹¹ A. Zborucka, *Ćwiczenia z surdopsychologii*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe WSP. Kraków 1983, p. 63.

¹² G. Dryżałowska, *Rozwój językowy dziecka z uszkodzonym słuchem a integracja edukacyjna: model kształcenia integracyjnego*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego, Warszawa 2007, p. 50.

cial development of children with hearing impairment shows that their emotional, social and cognitive development to a large extent depends of the development of speech and, at the same time, communicative possibilities¹³. Research concerning the specificity of the language describing the emotions of deaf students, focusing on optimum strategies to teach “the language of feelings”, was to a limited extent conducted on the level of special needs junior high school and high school¹⁴. A person receives sensory information in the form of stimuli perceived by the hearing, vision, touch, smell and taste receptors. If any of the senses is damaged, the image of reality created in one’s consciousness is incomplete or distorted. Hearing stimuli are the source of important information. They reach a person from all directions, thanks to which one is constantly in contact with the environment. They inform about events that happen at a longer distance, beyond eye contact. Also, the constantly stimulate attention, interest and curiosity. They influence human behaviour, making it possible to express emotions and feelings, and shape the personality. They condition the establishment and maintenance of social contacts¹⁵.

Research on the self-esteem of adults with hearing impairment, including their inclination to depressive behaviour and ways of coping with stress, led to the conclusion that this group is characterised by lower self-esteem than the hearing population. In the case of children as well as youth and adults, self-esteem is raised by identification with the deaf, bilingualism or biculturalism. Nonetheless, research suggests that problems with mental health in adults with prelingual deafness occur more frequently than in hearing persons, regardless of the preferred method of communicating with the envi-

¹³ A. Jegier, M. Kosowska, *Relacje dziecka z wadą słuchu w szkole*, Wydawnictwo Difin SA, Warszawa 2011, p. 60.

¹⁴ Z. Orłowska-Popek, *Emocje w wypowiedziach uczniów niesłyszących*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2011, pp. 5-7.

¹⁵ J. Cieszyńska, *Od słowa przeczytanego do wypowiedzianego. Droga nabywania systemu językowego przez dzieci niesłyszące w wieku poniemowlęcym i przedszkolnym*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2001, pp. 9-10.

ronment, i.e. phonic language, sign language or bilingualism¹⁶. The problem concerns the strongly distorted “self-confidence” of the deaf.

3. Results and conclusions of the tests on the specific patters of bioelectrical brain activity in adults with hearing impairment during art perception

In the research, the term “emotions”, according to the neuropsychological description, was understood as unconscious and automated body reactions to stimuli that are important for the survival of the species¹⁷. On the other hand, feelings articulated verbally were treated as the conscious interpretation of emotions on the basis of cultural patterns and experiences coded in memory, and the evaluation of situation dictated by them. The same emotion, understood as a mental process that is independent of the will and is a reaction of the organism to stimuli, may be interpreted as different feelings, depending on the situation¹⁸. The results of the research were interesting. Students with hearing disorders, the same as hearing students, correctly named the feelings accompanying the perception of paintings, and sometimes those feelings were more intensive than in hearings students. In most cases, they used the sign language to name their feelings. The intensity of feelings is exemplified by the following comment made by a deaf student to one of Zdzisław Beksiński’s paintings: “...It is disgusting, it made me feel sick...”

The subjects of the research were students of various fields: special needs education, mathematics, graphics and technical and IT

¹⁶ J. Kobosko, *Doświadczanie objawów depresji u osób dorosłych z głuchotą prelinwalną korzystających z implantu ślimakowego a sposoby radzenia sobie ze stresem i samooceną*, „Nowa Audiofonologia” 2014, no. 3(1), pp. 34–45.

¹⁷ A. Herzyk, *Mózg, emocje, uczucia. Analiza neuropsychologiczna*, Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 2000; pp. 7–8.

¹⁸ <http://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emocja> [dostęp: 23.03.2018].

education. They declared different interests, mainly associated with sport, visual art, literature, music. Even a preliminary analysis of the empirical material, namely measurements taken in relaxed state with open eyes in the group of able students and students with disability showed huge individual differences. Differences were even reported between two monozygotic twin sisters, who participated in the research. The empirical material selected to illustrate the individual differences between the two groups, which seems to confirm the conclusions presented in the former chapters, were the test results of two graphics students: a 22-year-old deaf student and a 21-year-old hearing student. The interests of the two women as well as their aesthetic evaluations of paintings were similar. Compared to other subjects, their evaluations were high. Neither of the women gave an extremely low assessment and in each of the presented categories, they found paintings that they considered to be particularly beautiful, and often, their choices were identical. Test results, in the form of topograms determining the percentage share of the respective frequency bands in the EEG spectrum in the open eyes category, showed a trend associated with bioelectrical brain activity, characterised by lower values in the Alpha band and higher values in the fast frequencies (Beta2 and Gamma), compared to the abled person. In subsequent tests, when the subjects were shown paintings in three categories, bioelectric activity underwent similar changes, on a level typical of each individual¹⁹.

The tests show that, compared to the base measurement, in all the categories of the paintings, the deaf subject displayed a more general value in slow bands and reduced activity in the Theta and Alpha bands, and increased activity in Beta1. More general were also higher frequency bands of Beta2 (20–30 Hz) and Gamma (30–40 Hz). As was already mentioned, lower values in slow frequency bands and increased activity in the Beta1 band are associat-

¹⁹ J. Zielińska, *Wybrane techniki obrazowania sygnałów w perspektywie pedagogiki specjalnej – przykłady zastosowania w praktyce diagnostyczno-terapeutycznej*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2016, p. 138.

ed with cognitive activity. To compare bioelectric activity during the perception of abstract paintings and representational paintings, increased activity in Theta, Beta2 and gamma bands was reported. A slight increase was also reported in the Beta1 band. This could be caused by the nature of the stimulus and its equivocalness, as well as an intensive search for interpretation. The changes reported between the second test and the third test, which involved paintings expressing negative emotions, consisted in more general appearance of slow frequencies radiating to the left hemisphere and lowered values in the Beta1 band. At the same time, further increase was reported in the slow frequency band Beta2. It seems that the focus of attention significantly dropped and (or) an intensified emotional reaction happened, which is confirmed by the physiological parameters described hereinbelow²⁰.

An analysis of the physiological parameters did not show any regularity in the group of subjects with hearing impairment, although such regularity was strongly marked in the group of hearing subjects. In a few persons, a gradual growth in the LF/HF ratio was reported, reflecting the ratio of the spectrum strength in the frequency range characterising the activity of the sympathetic nervous system to the spectrum strength in the frequency range characterising the activity of the parasympathetic nervous system. It reached the highest value in the last test, associated with the perception of an artistic object with strong emotional connotations. The results suggest that the activity of the sympathetic nervous system increases under the influence of this category of stimuli. In the group of persons with disabilities, the results were so varied that to make any conclusions, a larger population would have to be tested. It was noted that, compared to abled persons, the LF/HF ratio was usually higher in the base measurement. As an illustration, table 1 presents the results of the abovementioned two graphics students.

²⁰ J. Zielińska, *Wybrane techniki obrazowania sygnałów w perspektywie pedagogiki specjalnej – przykłady zastosowania w praktyce diagnostyczno-terapeutycznej*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2016, p. 140.

Table 1. LF: HF value. Results for graphics students – the hearing student and the deaf student (Own elaboration)

Test	LF/HF	
	Deaf person	Hearing person
Open eyes	1.64	0.38
Representational paintings	1.83	0.49
Abstract paintings	0.64	1.71
Paintings with strong emotional connotations	1.77	1.02

As table 1 shows, the results for the hearing student do not reflect the measurements typical of that group, as the LF/LH ratio was the highest when she looked at abstract paintings, rather than in the last test. This is probably due to increased activity in the Alpha and Theta bands, balancing the sense of anxiety with curiosity raised by the stimulus and visualisation in the last test, and a slight increase in Beta2 in test III, when the ratio was the highest. On the other hand, a significant increase in the ratio was observed in the deaf person in the last test, and the result was compliant with the measurement of bioelectric brain activity and the sense of fear and anxiety associated with paintings, declared by the student. The lowest ratio was associated with abstract paintings. It is hard to interpret this fact as the test group was limited and the results were very different and individualised²¹.

4. Summary and suggestions for practice

The results and conclusions of the tests suggest specific patterns of bioelectrical brain activity in persons with hearing impairment during art perception. One of the functions of the brain is to give

²¹ J. Zielińska, *Wybrane techniki obrazowania sygnałów w perspektywie pedagogiki specjalnej – przykłady zastosowania w praktyce diagnostyczno-terapeutycznej*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2016, p. 145.

meaning to the surrounding reality and the signals a person receives. The process is complicated and, confronted with a number of equally justified meanings, a number of different interpretations of a painting are admissible²². The phenomenon is called multiple narrative interpretation and it occurs during art perception. As the research on persons with hearing impairment on the borderline of special needs education and neuroaesthetics presented in this article suggests, hearing impairment influences this phenomenon. Thus, it must contribute to the development of a person with hearing impairment as a recipient and creator of art.

Consequently, the results of the research first of all have an important educational dimension. They prove once again that persons with disabilities must be treated in an individual way. The research is preliminary in nature, due to the limited size of the test group of persons with hearing impairment and require a reliable and empirical verification on larger, statistically significant test groups. Subsequent research should also take into consideration the compensatory role of vision in the development and functioning of a person with hearing impairment and the impact of that compensatory mechanism on the neurobiological activity of the brain. Also, the impact of using of hearing aids by a person with hearing impairment, in terms of hearing perception and the acquired linguistic, communicational and social skills, should be considered. These parameters may also influence the neurobiological activity upon contacts with visual arts. Since such research encompasses a number of disciplines, cooperation in research teams comprising multiple fields of science and is needed. This concerns both the planning and implementation phases as well as analysis and interpretation of results. For example, the research results presented in this article, concerning art perception by adults with hearing impairment, should be interpreted not only by deaf educators but also by researchers with relevant knowledge in the field of neuroaesthetics.

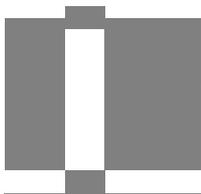
²² S. Zeki, *Splendors and Miseries of the Brain: Love, Creativity and the Quest of the Human Happiness*, Wydawnictwo Wiley-Blackwell, Malden 2008, p. 98.

Bibliography

- Cieśla K., *Plastyczność układu słuchowego – badania z zastosowaniem metod neuroobrazowania ni*, „Nowa Audiofonologia” 2013, no. 2(3), pp. 16-23.
- J. Cieszyńska, *Od słowa przeczytanego do wypowiedzianego. Droga nabywania systemu językowego przez dzieci niesłyszące w wieku poniemowlęcym i przedszkolnym*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2001, pp. 9-10.
- Dryżałowska G., *Rozwój językowy dziecka z uszkodzonym słuchem a integracja edukacyjna: model kształcenia integracyjnego*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego, Warszawa 2007, p. 50.
- Herzyk A., *Mózg, emocje, uczucia. Analiza neuropsychologiczna*, Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 2000, pp. 7-8.
- Jegier A., Kosowska M., *Relacje dziecka z wadą słuchu w szkole*, Wydawnictwo Difin SA, Warszawa, 2011, p. 60.
- Kobosko J., *Doświadczenie objawów depresji u osób dorosłych z głuchotą prelinwalną korzystających z implantu ślimakowego a sposoby radzenia sobie ze stresem i samooceną*, „Nowa Audiofonologia” 2014, no. 3(1), pp. 34-45.
- Orłowska-Popek Z., *Emocje w wypowiedziach uczniów niesłyszących*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2011, pp. 5-7.
- Pilch T., Bauman T., *Zasady badań pedagogicznych. Strategie ilościowe i jakościowe*, Wydawnictwo Akademickie „Żak”, Warszawa 2001, p. 77-79.
- Zborucka A., *Ćwiczenia z surdopsychologii*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe WSP. Kraków 1983, p. 63.
- Zeki S., *Splendors and Miseries of the Brain: Love, Creativity and the Quest of the Human Happiness*, Wydawnictwo Wiley-Blackwell, Malden 2008, pp. 15-20, 98.
- Zielińska J., *Metody obrazowania pracy mózgu w perspektywie pedagogiki specjalnej – wybrane zagadnienia*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2015, p. 32.
- Zielińska J., *Wybrane techniki obrazowania sygnałów w perspektywie pedagogiki specjalnej – przykłady zastosowania w praktyce diagnostyczno – terapeutycznej*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2016, pp. 118-119, 133-146.

Netography

- <http://www.emeraldinsight.com/journals.htm?articleid=1840314> [access: 20.02.2018].
- http://www.akademiamedycyny.pl/geriatria/archiwum/201404/201404_Geriatria_004.pdf [access: 18.03.2018].
- http://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autonomiczny_uk%C5%82ad_nerwowy [access: 23.03.2018].
- <http://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emocja> [access: 23.03.2018].



WANDA HAJNICZ, IWONA KONIECZNA
Maria Grzegorzewska University in Warsaw, Poland

Open Problems in Medical Pedagogy

ABSTRACT: Wanda Hajnicz, Iwona Konieczna, *Open Problems in Medical Pedagogy*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 247–262. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.14>

It has recently been noticed that problems of specific specialisations in the area of special education overlap or exceed the constraints of a given sub-discipline. The article addresses the issues related to outlining the major problems that may be encountered in the area of medical pedagogy, and which are crucial for the lives of people suffering from a chronic illness in various areas of their functioning. These issues include body traits and their importance in building identity in the situation of experiencing a chronic illness; coping with loss in a situation of a chronic illness; adjustment in reciprocal contacts with a person with a chronic illness and participation in social exchange.

KEY WORDS: medical pedagogy, chronic illness, body, identity, sense of control, resource, loss, coping, adjustment in contact, social exchange

The teaching of persons with a chronic illness was traditionally combined with the teaching of persons with motor disabilities, and these activities were called medical pedagogy. Nowadays, these two approaches are often separated, primarily on account of the fact that problems encountered by chronically ill persons have a different nature¹.

¹ A. Zawisłak, *Wybrane zagadnienia z pedagogiki specjalnej*, Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls, Kraków 2009.

The task of medical pedagogy is primarily educational and maintenance support for children, youth and adults suffering from a chronic illness, incorporated into the treatment process.

The teaching of chronically ill persons is often related to such issues as: impact of the chronic illness on the individual's functioning in various areas of life, including the use of educational activities and maintenance activities as a therapeutic factor; it determines and adjusts educational activities to the physical and stress capacity of chronically ill persons, contributes to the organisation of the educational and maintenance process at the place of stay of the chronically ill person and ensures support for the family of a chronically ill person.

It is worth emphasising that medical pedagogy, on account of its' area of interest, exceeds the strict range of special education and is related to the issues pertaining to the old age.

In the area of medical pedagogy, it is possible to separate issues that require in-depth examination and research exploration. Thus, the primary objective of the paper is to provide new perspectives on issues in this respect. We would like to delve into four problems which may be divided into two categories. Two of them refer directly to the person suffering from a chronic illness, whereas two others refer to his/ her interactions with other people.

The first group includes problems pertaining to:

- (1) body traits: their significance in building identity in a situation of a chronic illness experience;
- (2) coping with loss during a chronic illness.

The second group of problems encompasses:

- (1) adjustment in reciprocal contact with a chronically ill person;
- (2) participation of chronically ill persons in social exchange.

Body Traits: Their Significance in Building Identity in a Situation of a Chronic Illness Experience

The body is a place where we have the pleasure or the misfortune of residing. It is the source of a good frame of mind and pleasure, but it is also the object of illnesses and stresses. It is not only

a physical object that every man possesses. It constitutes a scheme of operation and a source of practices, whose active involvement in daily interactions is necessary to preserve a consistent self-sense².

Every man functions in the world in the "corporeal" manner. A human being cannot function without a body. We function in such reality and we experience it in a manner that is enabled by our bodies. Body is an individual's property; it offers the individual a possibility of self-control, feeling of corporeal consistency, but also the experience of its' absence. Man also has a certain possibility of shaping own body, yet this is related to the fact that man assumes responsibility for the "effect"³.

The sense of corporeal identity is a process of accumulating individual experiences related to own body. Inability to name own feelings, experiences and needs that originate from the body causes numerous stresses and results in the loss of bearings in the world of personal experience. The ability of modulating the power of own experiences and knowledge about the causes of their origin contribute to self-control. Erving Goffman claims that everybody who experienced moments of confrontation with emotions that are impossible to bear, in particular when their emergence was unexpected, knows the feeling of alienation from such experiences. People are also aware of the sense of corporeal consistency and the experience of its' absence. The body gains special significance in the case of persons whose bodies are "attacked and affected" by an illness. Symbolic interactions between the feeling of normalcy in reference to the physical appearance or functions of individual organs of the body may be related to the loss of significant attributes and lead to stigmatisation, consistent with the approach presented by Erving Goffman.

In the light of the assumptions of symbolic interactionism and studies of Katarzyna Piątek, it is possible to define body control:

² A. Giddens, *Nowoczesność i tożsamość „Ja” i społeczeństwo w epoce późnej nowoczesności*, PWN, Warsaw 2001, p. 137.

³ Z. Bauman, *Ciało i przemoc w obliczu ponowoczesności*, Wydawnictwo UMK, Toruń 1995, p. 192.

“body control and management depend on the relatively autonomous human subject”⁴. In illness, the feeling of loss of control over own body is one of its’ most important consequences. Social identification of an ill person exerts impact via changes in the body (decimated body, body deprived of certain inner invisible organs) or a body with visible changes, stigmatised by an illness and disability or mutilated as a result of the applied therapy. This may be accompanied by the sense of embarrassment, self-consciousness, mortification on account of the stigma of illness on the body.

The body acquires the status of a resource which can be managed; it contributes to creating a version of “own I”⁵. Meanings ascribed to the body are designated by the conventional form of non-verbal communication over which the individual has no control, yet which influences the categorisation of own self and others. People are being taught from early years how to present their bodies in the social space. A body that does not meet certain “standards”, a body over which one has no control and the behaviour of which is not clear to interpret for the environment is subject to exclusion⁶. The significance that man ascribes to own body is, to a great extent, conditioned by knowing the idiomatics of the body; a chronically ill person not always has direct control over it⁷.

Referring to the body concept of Erving Goffman, it has to be emphasised that an individual that undertakes activities within social borders has certain restrictions that influence the individual’s autonomy. In her studies on women with motor disabilities, Katarzyna Piątek (2012) presents them as persons having potentially the only impact on their corporeality, yet who are dependent on social control. This is related to the stance of Chris Schilling (2010), who claims that a human body is characterised by a dual location:

⁴ K. Piątek, *Ciało nadzorowane. Strategie kontroli ciała podejmowane przez kobiety z niepełnosprawnością fizyczną*, [in:] *Fenomeny kontroli ciała*, ed. E. Banaszek, P. Czajkowski, R. Florkowski, Diffin, Warsaw 2012, p. 168.

⁵ C. Schilling, *Socjologia ciała*, PWN, Warsaw 2010.

⁶ Ibidem.

⁷ K. Piątek, op. cit., pp. 168–169.

individual (as the property of every individual) and social (defined and controlled by the society)⁸.

Thus, the body plays a vital role in the relations between the identity of an individual and the social identity. Social value attributed to the body is accepted by the individual and has its' share in the formation of "I" and the feeling of self-esteem. The feeling of social identity built through the body and the concept of the image of own body means the control of own life situation via efficiency of undertaken activities, which are aimed at maintaining or verifying the hitherto social relations⁹.

Body management plays a crucial role in maintaining social relations (joining the social space by a chronically ill person) and results in the fact that such person enters the world of meanings and languages of other people, functioning in a slightly different reality. In such a situation, the body becomes an "intermediary" between the personal identity and the social identity.

The discussion above implies problems in the area of medical pedagogy. First of all: in which degree do chronically ill persons perceive their bodies as an element of causality and have control over it, as well as which control strategies do they use with respect to their bodies? Secondly: how do chronically ill persons experience control within their body and in which degree do their decisions pertaining to the body depend on social control?

Coping with Loss During Chronic Illness

In the context of issues discussed here, the problem of loss is of fundamental significance. A person suffering from a chronic illness, in order to function in a satisfactory manner based on the possessed resources, has to be able to cope with the feeling of loss.

⁸ C. Schilling, *op. cit.*

⁹ M.P. Kelly, D. Field, *Medical sociology, chronic illness and the body, "Sociology of health and illness"*, 18, 1996, pp. 241-257.

Loss is “what is no longer possessed; also: the fact that one no longer owns something”¹⁰. The feeling of loss is an emotional state emerging in reaction to an inner conviction about “absence” of an object, a person, possibilities. This emotion is unpleasant and it is used to make one aware of the need, which has to be satisfied with different methods than so far (before the loss)¹¹. Different types of experienced losses may be listed here.

A loss may be perceived as a situation when something is missing; there is less of it within one’s reach. It may also be interpreted as a situation of deprivation, a deficit of something that was available or what is available to others, but not to a given person. A loss may also be experienced as absence, disappearance of somebody or something significant for the individual. Coping with the feeling of loss is related not only to its’ object (what has been lost), but also the mode of experiencing and interpreting it and its’ significance.

The situation of loss of a person (as a result of death) entails anxiety that is difficult to cope with, despair, feeling of helplessness, risk of losing the sense and the purpose of life. It is perceived as uncompensated loss related to the feeling of disappearance, absence of a significant person. Reaction to it acquires the form of grieving. The characteristic phenomena in this situation are reactions of escape and return to the problem, yet with a lesser intensity of emotions¹².

In psychology, the loss of a person is identified with grieving. Grieving is a process, as emphasised by Z. Freud. Erich Lindemann was the first to talk about doing “grief work” and emphasised its’ variability and necessity of utilising physical and mental energy to be able to cope with such process. Grieving is the “working” of feel-

¹⁰ Słownik Języka Polskiego ed. L. Drabik, PWN, Warsaw 2006.

¹¹ G. Sędek, *Jak ludzie radzą sobie z sytuacjami, na które nie ma rady?*, [in:] *Złudzenia, które pozwalają żyć. szkice z psychologii społecznej*, ed. M. Kofta, T. Szustrowa, PWN, Warsaw 1991.

¹² G. Sędek, *Jak ludzie radzą sobie z sytuacjami, na które nie ma rady?*, [in:] *Złudzenia, które pozwalają żyć. Szkice z psychologii społecznej*, ed. M. Kofta, T. Szustrowa, PWN, Warsaw 1991, pp. 289–319.

ings, stances and relations with a person who is gone¹³. Its' stages are have different names and are diversely interpreted by various authors. In this place, it is worth paying attention to the model of Franklin C. Shontz, important for clarifying the reaction to the loss of a close person. The model assumes that the first reaction to death is a shock. Persons in a state of shock retain amazing lucidity of thinking and significant efficiency in undertaken actions. The "drama" does not reach them; they live separated from the reality. They encounter the helplessness, disorganisation and despondence only after a while and it is only then that they are confronted with the pain; this significantly aggravates cognitive functioning. A constant feeling of loss tends to be tiring. In relation to this, people try not to think about a difficult event, which leads to a situation where there is suppression and a temporary improvement of spirits. At the moment when difficult emotions emerge, some people find it difficult to cope with them and the consequence is the appearance of the withdrawal stage.¹⁴ According to Franklin C. Shontz, the variability of ensuing stages has a good impact on a given person and in the course of time allows for adjustment to the new situation. Along with the passage of time, difficult emotions appear more and more rarely and, in effect, new goals may be determined. Moving between the stages of confrontation and withdrawal does not have the accommodative nature. It is a necessary condition of development¹⁵.

Another type of experiencing loss may have the character of **a loss in the context of loss of an object**. In this case, there are various modes of interpreting such situation. The mode of interpreting it depends on the scale of loss and the significance that the lost objects had for one's well-being. When the means that allow for the

¹³ A. Ostrowska, *Śmierć w doświadczeniu jednostki i społeczeństwa*, Wydawnictwo IFIS PAN, Warsaw 1997.

¹⁴ Ibidem, pp. 289-319.

¹⁵ B. Dobrzańska-Socha, *Pomoc psychologiczna w sytuacji straty*, [in:] *Zmagając się z chorobą nowotworową. Psychologia współczesna wobec pacjentów onkologicznych*, D. Kubacka-Jasiecka, W. Łosiak ed., Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, Kraków 1999, pp. 289-340.

satisfaction of basic life needs are lost, one may sense their disappearance, non-existence and experience trauma. With respect to other minor scale cases, one may experience deprivation, which is combined with the irreversibility of loss or one may perceive certain loss as a deficiency, reduction of certain resources. Coping with such situation has a primarily pragmatic nature, material and instrumental support allowing for a decrease in the costs of deficiency. One of the forms of coping with this type of loss is transformation of this experience into a subject that forms a basis for contacts with others (story about ...). It may be analysed in the context of what a specific situation has given the person who experiences it, what it has taught such person, what kind of experiences may be drawn from such situation and what may be done in reference to such loss (starting the strategy of coping with the loss and minimising its' costs). This type of loss has the nature of being experienced "from the outside" as a result of personal situation, which a given person could not have avoided.

A chronic illness, both at the beginning and in the course of its' progress, is related to the fact that the person is experiencing **loss within oneself**: the person is deprived of the skills, the capacity with respect to body functions, the autonomy, the self-fulfilment and the ability to perform social roles. The experience of loss may be very serious and may refer to important aspects of body functioning, even leading to its' complete incapacity.

Loss within oneself in a situation of a chronic illness is the most painful loss. It is due to the fact that the individual is aware of the difficulties of substituting such loss. Loss in the dimension of loss of health results in the fact that an individual experiences the decrease of the feeling of own potential.

The process of becoming reconciled with the losses in life and the feeling of development within the limits designated by an illness is never easy and painless for man. The feeling of loss is often accompanied by the feeling of failure, which results in the fact that a loss is additionally assessed and the entire burden seems to be unbearable. Losses sustained as a result of a chronic illness include

losses that are hard to become reconcile with. According to Silvia Bonino "heavy losses are like wounds, which are a part of ourselves; we have to learn to live with them; in their existence, we have to find a reason for inner development, in spite of the fact that such wounds may sometimes open, hurt and bleed"¹⁶. The process of loss within oneself is not identical with the experience of grieving. It may be treated as grieving, but a given person has to work the loss.

Loss within oneself also acquires another nature when one is dealing with acquired and not inborn illness. In such case, the person compares what was available and possible before the illness in various areas of life. Along with the appearance of illness, a person loses his/ her prior opportunities and in case of a progressing illness, the person is also aware of the future, subsequent losses.

An ill person experiences loss in an irreversible manner. When discussing the phenomenon of loss related to the illness, it is necessary to draw attention to the fact that acceptance of an illness may take place after coping with the loss within oneself. In relation to this, the following questions appear: in which context does the loss within oneself have a mobilising character and in which context does it become demobilising, with special attention given to the dynamics of the entire illness process? Which strategies are used by chronically ill persons to cope, with special attention given to the dynamics of a given illness process? May a loss (and in which degree) experienced internally by a chronically ill person become a subject matter in contacts with other persons, with whom and for which purpose?

Adjustment in Reciprocal Contacts with a Chronically Ill Person

The issue that our body delimits the reality in which we function was emphasised at the beginning of discussing the selected

¹⁶ S. Bonino, *Tysiące nici mnie tu wiążę*, Wydawnictwo APS, Warsaw 2008, p. 66.

problems in the area of medical pedagogy. In relation to this, people may experience a certain dissonance between own awareness pertaining to the reality and the possibilities of functioning with the body in such reality (or with respect to the information from the outside – we see others or own experience from before the illness).

Thus, it may be claimed that a chronically ill person has to cope with a situation of dissonance. If an individual rejects the dissonance, this may cause certain forms of rebellion, passive or active resistance, struggle with the adversities or with the environment. Reflective “work” on the dissonance allows for attempting to fit in specific situations and may form an important factor in the process of adjustment.

The phenomenon of adjustment occurs in two forms: (1) adjustment of activities to external conditions (items created by man acquire ergonomic shapes adjusted to his/ her motor activities); (2) in interactions, consisting in the awareness of signals and communications deriving from persons with whom specific activities are shared¹⁷.

The problem of adjustment also occurs in verbal communication (in the area of partner communication). Specific behaviour is often required from a person with whom one enters into contacts. People even demand that such person is able to function within a designated outline and stereotypically fits into the framework created for a specific situation. For example, when our interlocutor behaves in a non-standard manner on account of his/ her characteristics, we try to “adjust” to him/ her.

Taking care of the satisfaction of own needs in mutual contacts is greatly important in the communication perspective. In the relations of both partners with varied communication skills, each of them should always preserve their individuality and be aware of their needs and reasons. However, this may be hindered when, on

¹⁷ H.R. Schaffer, *Wzajemność kontroli we wczesnym dzieciństwie*, [in:] *Dziecko w świecie ludzi i przedmiotów*, ed. A. Brzezińska and G. Lutomski, Wydawnictwo Zysk i S-ka, Poznań 1994, pp. 130–131.

account of communication according to various linguistic codes, mutual understanding is impeded or one of the parties experiences dependence on the other party. Use of varied vocabulary or display of a different style of holding a conversation may determine the failure of a given situation, without the conscious fault of interlocutors. This happens because each of them communicates according to a well-known scheme, at the same time applying own communication strategies, without taking the interlocutor's perspective into account.

In the literature, adjustment primarily takes place with respect to the analysis of activities of a person taking care of a small child – the younger the child, the more pronounced adjustment is noticed; in case of adults, attention is primarily drawn to problems resulting from lack of adjustment, leading to depersonalisation. This phenomenon is discussed more broadly in the context of total institutions¹⁸. In the relation of caring, adjustment is hidden in the specification of the term of **care**. This term is often treated as the synonym for the term **caring**, yet in her monographic study, Judith Philips tries to nuance these terms by indicating the emotional charge contained in the term care. She presents the following description of the term care: *“a reaching out to something other than self: it is neither self-referring or self-absorbing. Second, care implicitly suggests that it will lead to some type of action.”* Furthermore, the author emphasises that care may be perceived as a holistic term, pervading all relations and human activities¹⁹. By understanding this term in this manner, it is possible to distinguish between caring as activities supporting the accomplishment of other person's needs, which such person cannot satisfy on his/ her own, and care where the emotional context of such activities becomes visible, leading to attention to the well-being of the care-recipient.

¹⁸ E. Tarkowska, *Ludzie w instytucji totalnej. Przypadek domów pomocy społecznej w Polsce*, [in:] *Upośledzenie w społecznym zwierciadle*, ed. A. Gustavsson, E. Zakrzewska-Manterys, Wydawnictwo ŻAK, Warsaw 1997.

¹⁹ J. Phillips, *Troska*, Wydawnictwo SIC!, Warsaw 2009, pp. 24–25.

It may be noticed that in such understanding of the term care, the phenomenon of adjustment is emphasised more clearly. It becomes apparent in both meanings: in the first case, pertaining to the relevance of activities and external conditions and, in particular, in the second one, focused on the awareness of signals and communications deriving from a person with whom a given activity is shared. In this place, a very important issue of co-sharing care is revealed; care refers to a supported person. The supporting person shows care when, whilst performing specific support activities, he/ she pays attention to the signals and communications improving or threatening the well-being of the recipient of care/ assistance. The care relationship is, however, co-dependent. The care of the supported person with respect to the person who provides support is also important; it is expressed in various types of behaviour, revealing active co-participation in the co-shared activity.

The analyses above imply specific problems for medical pedagogy: What costs are related to the process of adjustment of activities as part of interactions of persons participating in it? How to define the borders of possibility of adjusting activities as part of interaction which has the nature of assistance? What effects result from lack of adjustment in interaction, in particular in case of a situation when assistance is provided?

Participation of Chronically Ill Persons in Social Exchange

In sociology, social exchange is the process of exchange of goods and services at least between two persons, leading to the establishment of durable acquaintances and setting up supremacy over others²⁰. It is also treated broadly: interaction as an exchange²¹. Exchange is one of the modes in which persons create and solidify

²⁰ P. Blau, *Wymiana społeczna*, [in:] *Socjologia. Lektury*, ed. P. Sztompka, M. Kucia, Wydawnictwo Znak, Kraków 2005.

²¹ G.C. Homans, *The nature of social science*, University Press, New York 1967.

the social organisation. In such approach, the exchange is a very important source of social order for such persons, which is created as an unplanned result of acts of exchange among members of the society. The exchange becomes a certain voluntary transaction, consisting in the transfer of various types of goods between two or more individuals, from which everybody derives benefits. In this case, the transferred goods have material nature, as well as immaterial one (social recognition, prestige and value of what is attributed to a given group)²². For Georg C. Homans, social interaction takes place when “activity of one person is rewarded or punished by another person”²³. In such approach, participation in a social interaction is related to the conviction that goods valued by one person or needed by such person are owned by other people who can reward him/ her with the use of them. To encourage them to do it, it is necessary to give them something in the form of goods or services. This is how the social network is created.

The core of the functioning of the social network is social exchange. Social exchange is a contract that builds durability. As far as social exchange is concerned, the principle of reciprocation applies with respect to it²⁴. It may be noted that exchange and the principle of reciprocation applicable as part of it are the mechanism of **building a social network**. The more a person participates in the exchange, the more “rooted” he/ she is in the social network.

In this context, it is necessary to refer to the concept of social support, which is the consequence of a man’s affiliation to the social network²⁵. Social support may be described as a type of social interaction which was undertaken by one or several participants of a problematic, difficult, stressful or critical situation. In the course of

²² B. Szacka, *Wprowadzenia do socjologii*, Wydawnictwo Oficyna Naukowa, Warsaw 2003, p. 124.

²³ Ibidem, p. 124.

²⁴ C. Lévi-Strauss, *Zasada wzajemności*, [in:] M. Kempny, J. Szmatka ed., *Współczesne teorie wymiany społecznej. Zbiór tekstów*, PWN, Warsaw 1992.

²⁵ J. Pommersbach, *Wsparcie społeczne a choroba*, „Przegląd Psychologiczny”, 1988, 31, 2, pp. 503–525.

such interaction, transfer or exchange of emotions, information, instruments of activities and material goods takes place. The exchange may be unilateral or bilateral, whereas its' direction may be fixed or variable. It is worth emphasising that in a specific layout of interaction, it is possible to distinguish a supporting person, a person looking for support or a person receiving support. For the social exchange to be efficient, liability between the type and the range of provided support is of great importance, as well as the needs of the recipient – a chronically ill person²⁶.

Functional features of support constitute a basis for its' division into perceived support and received support. Perceived support primarily results from knowledge and convictions of an ill person with respect to the fact where and from whom assistance may be procured, who can be counted on in a difficult, stressful situation. In this type of support, assessment of beliefs of a given person about availability of the network is made. On the other hand, received support is evaluated objectively or subjectively narrated by the recipient as actually received type and amount of support. Perceived support and received support depend on the context of a difficult situation, as well as needs of chronically ill persons and features of social networks available and used in specific situations. Support interactions and efficiency of their operation are significantly conditioned by the features of a supported person. They depend on the persons' personal resources, resources of the "I" structure, self-evaluation, self-control, social competence and the person's social position. Taking into account the features of a chronically ill person (supported person), it is necessary to indicate the needs of social support as permanent features. They may be objective, taking into account the age and the social position, impacting independent coping with difficulties or they may form the feature of a dependant personality. Slight intensity of the needs of support and revealing

²⁶ H. Sęk, R. Cieślak, *Wsparcie społeczne – sposoby definiowania, rodzaje i źródła wsparcia, wybrane koncepcje teoretyczne*, [in:] *Wsparcie społeczne, stres i zdrowie*, ed. H. Sęk, R. Cieślak, PWN, Warsaw 2006, p. 18.

them is encountered in persons with a strong desire for autonomy and independence²⁷.

If support is not perceived by a chronically ill person, it is possible to determine that it is more beneficial for the individual. Primarily due to the fact that if a man is aware of the support, it influences his/ her self-esteem. The effect of underestimated self-esteem is revealing specific modes of recovering control over the situation (example: entitlement mentality). Thus, participation in the social exchange is necessary for the ill person to experience well-being primarily in order to feel in control of the situation.

Thus, the key questions appear: how to offer support, including educational support, to chronically ill persons in order to solidify their potential in the social exchange? And: how to offer support to chronically ill persons in order to facilitate their participation in the asymmetrical social exchange?

The problem questions presented as part of the individual areas constitute open issues that require further in-depth exploration due to the fact that they are of key significance for the life of chronically ill persons in various areas of their functioning.

Bibliography

- Bauman Z., *Ciało i przemoc w obliczu ponowoczesności*, Wydawnictwo UMK, Toruń 1995, p. 192.
- Blau P., *Wymiana społeczna*, [in:] *Socjologia. Lektury*, ed. P. Sztompka, M. Kucia, Wydawnictwo Znak, Kraków 2005.
- Bonino S., *Tysiące nici mnie tu wiążę*, Wydawnictwo APS, Warsaw 2008.
- Dobrzańska-Socha B., *Pomoc psychologiczna w sytuacji straty*, [in:] *Zmagając się z chorobą nowotworową. Psychologia współczesna wobec pacjentów onkologicznych*, D. Kubacka-Jasiecka, W. Łosiak ed., Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, Kraków 1999.
- Giddens A., *Nowoczesność i tożsamość „Ja” i społeczeństwo w epoce późnej nowoczesności*, PWN, Warsaw 2001.
- Homans G. C., *The nature of social science*, University Press, New York 1967.

²⁷ Ibidem, p. 21.

- Kelly M.P., Field D., *Medical sociology, chronic illness and the body*, "Sociology of health and illness", 18, 1996.
- Lévi-Strauss C., *Zasada wzajemności*, [in:] M. Kempny, J. Szmatka ed., *Współczesne teorie wymiany społecznej. Zbiór tekstów*, PWN, Warsaw 1992.
- Ostrowska A., *Śmierć w doświadczeniu jednostki i społeczeństwa*, Wydawnictwo IFIS PAN, Warsaw 1997.
- Pillips J., *Troska*, Wydawnictwo SIC!, Warsaw 2009.
- Piątek K., *Ciało nadzorowane. Strategie kontroli ciała podejmowane przez kobiety z niepełnosprawnością fizyczną*. [in:] *Fenomeny kontroli ciała*, ed. E. Banaszek, P. Czajkowski, R. Florkowski, Diffin, Warszawa 2012, p. 168.
- Pommersbach J., *Wsparcie społeczne a choroba*, "Przegląd Psychologiczny", 1988; 31, 2, pp. 503-525
- Schaffer, *Wzajemność kontroli we wczesnym dzieciństwie*, [in:] *Dziecko w świecie ludzi i przedmiotów* ed. A. Brzezińska and G. Lutomski, Wydawnictwo Zysk i S-ka, Poznań 1994.
- Schilling C., *Socjologia ciała*, PWN, Warsaw 2010.
- Sędek G., *Jak ludzie radzą sobie z sytuacjami, na które nie ma rady?* [in:] *Złudzenia, które pozwalają żyć. Szkice z psychologii społecznej*, ed. M. Kofta, T. Szustrowa, PWN, Warsaw 1991.
- Sęk H., Cieślak R., *Wsparcie społeczne – sposoby definiowania, rodzaje i źródła wsparcia, wybrane koncepcje teoretyczne*, [in:] *Wsparcie społeczne, stres i zdrowie*, ed. H. Sęk, R. Cieślak, PWN, Warsaw 2006.
- Słownik Języka Polskiego ed. L. Drabik, PWN, Warsaw 2006.
- Szacka B., *Wprowadzenia do socjologii*, Wydawnictwo Oficyna Naukowa, Warsaw 2003.
- Tarkowska E., *Ludzie w instytucji totalnej. Przypadek domów pomocy społecznej w Polsce*, [in:] *Upośledzenie w społecznym zwierciadle* ed. A. Gustavsson, E. Zakrzewska-Manterys, Wydawnictwo ŻAK, Warsaw 1997.
- Zawiślak A., *Wybrane zagadnienia z pedagogiki specjalnej*, Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls, Kraków 2009.



Self-interpretation of the Medical Profession: Physicians' Narratives

ABSTRACT: Beata Antoszevska, *Self-interpretation of the Medical Profession: Physicians' Narratives*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 263–285. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.15>

This paper is an attempt to examine the senses and meanings attributed by physicians to the medical profession. The collected material is part of a larger project devoted to the physician-patient relationship reconstructed on the basis of individual narratives provided by physicians. The conducted research is closely linked to the qualitative perspective: Interpretative Paradigm and Interpretive Paradigm. The study was performed in 2015-2017. The examined group consisted of 16 subjects (6 female and 10 male physicians) from several regions of Poland, all highly esteemed (subjective opinions) by their patients. The empirical data was collected by means of narrative interviews and the methodology applied for the analysis of the content was that of phenomenography.

KEY WORDS: doctor, physician – patient relationship

Introduction

We are not who we are, but what we make of ourselves¹

One of the oldest in the world, medical profession is associated with extensive knowledge and skills employed in the service of

¹ A. Giddens, *Nowoczesność i tożsamość*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 2012, p. 107.

patients. In hindsight, it is clear that the medical profession has gone through various phases, and yet the interest in the profession and physicians has continued to this day. This is evidenced by the pieces included in *Historia medycyny* edited by Tadeusz Brzeziński², and *The Century of the Surgeon* and *The Triumph of Surgery* by Jürgen Thorwald³, which cover both success and failure stories in the pursuit of medical knowledge. John Chrysostom refers to physicians as *iatros*, a Greek term for one who treats people, who takes care of the sick. Please note that John Chrysostom also qualifies doctors with terms such as: ‘outstanding physicians’, ‘competent physicians’, ‘smart physicians’, ‘well-experienced physicians’, ‘physicians handling their patients with great care’, thus denoting not only their medical knowledge, but also great skills. Importantly, he also argues, some physicians have mastered the art of medical practice and dealing with patients better than others⁴.

The presence of physicians has always been and will likely be important to every human being, especially patients⁵. This is because of both specialized knowledge and skills necessary in the event of serious diseases, as well as skills typical of a caring parent, who will do everything to help their child (“transfer response”)⁶.

Literature offers few explanations of the term ‘physician’ itself. The ones you can find mostly point to qualified healthcare professionals, who have acquired graduate degrees and are primarily committed to preventing and treating diseases⁷. It is thus argued

² Cf. T. Brzeziński ed., *Historia medycyny*, Wydawnictwo PZWL, Warsaw 2000.

³ Cf. J. Thorwald, *Triumf chirurgów*, Wydawnictwo Znak, Kraków 2010; Id., *Stulecie chirurgów*, Wydawnictwo Znak, Kraków 2009.

⁴ W. Ceran, *Jan Chryzostom o leczeniu i lekarzach*, “Acta Universitatis Lodziensis”. Folia Historica 1993, No. 48, pp. 6–7.

⁵ This argument is corroborated, among others, by *Pamiętniki lekarzy*, ed. K. Bi-dakowski, T. Wójcik, Spółdzielnia Wydawnicza CZYTELNIK, Warsaw 1968.

⁶ Cf. M.M. Hollender, *Stosunki między lekarzem i pacjentem*, [in:] *Psychologia w praktyce lekarskiej*, ed. M.H. Hollender, PZWL, Warsaw 1975; A. Kępiński, *Poznanie chorego*, Wydawnictwo Literackie, Kraków 2002; J. Bogusz, *Lekarz i jego chorzy*, PZWL, Warsaw 1984.

⁷ P. Kostrzewski, J. Ziółkowski, ed. *Mała encyklopedia medycyny*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 1999, p. 426.

that the term 'physician' applies only to those who have acquired medical knowledge⁸. The Law on Medical Profession (Journal of Laws of 2011, No. 277, item 1634, Article 2, item 2.) provides that the career of a physician consists in a qualified person, i.e. one holding applicable qualifications, providing healthcare services: deliver health examinations, identifies and prevents diseases, treats and rehabilitate patients, and provides medical advice and opinions and certificates"⁹. However, we may readily complement and enrich the concept of a physician in soft skills based on biographies of eminent physicians or the writings by the authors who define the features that define good physicians. A physician, claims Krzysztof Leśniewski,¹⁰ who draws on ancient Greece, was not just an expert on diseases and related treatment methods, but also a sage, or a philosopher, treating body and soul, alike.

This paper presents the meanings and senses that medical professionals attribute to the concept of a physician and their profession.

Research methodology

The collected material is part of a broader project that covers the physician-patient relationship as reconstructed on the basis of individual physicians' narratives. The research was carried out in line with the Interpretative Paradigm / Interpretive Paradigm¹¹, which looks at the human being as an actor drawn into the world of their own life, constructed with the meanings negotiated within social interactions¹². The

⁸ W. Ceran, op. cit.

⁹ *The Law on the Medical Profession* Journal of Laws of 2011, No. 277, item 1634, Article 2.2.

¹⁰ K. Leśniewski, „Nie potrzebują lekarza zdrowi...” *Hezychastyczna metoda uzdrawiania człowieka*, Wydawnictwo KUL, Lublin 2006.

¹¹ P. Chomczyński, *Paradygmat interpretatywny*, [in:] *Słownik socjologii jakościowe*, ed. K. Konecki, P. Chomczyński, Difin, Warsaw 2012, p. 211.

¹² D. Urbaniak-Zajac, *Jakościowa orientacja w badaniach pedagogicznych*, [in:] *Badania jakościowe w pedagogice*, ed. D. Urbaniak-Zajac, E. Kos, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 2013.

nature of reality is, thus, processual and ambiguous, and each actor that co-creates this world seeks to make it a reality they can readily recognize. The researchers using the interpretative paradigm primarily seek to explain the way social actors construct their worlds through everyday experience¹³.

The research project aims to examine the physician-patient relationship and shed light on how physicians conceive of their profession and the very notion of 'a physician'. This study aims to dissect the relationship¹⁴ between doctors and patients, and, more accurately, the meanings attributed to the concept of 'a physician' and the medical profession.

The research problem has been formulated as follows: how do physicians perceive their profession/vocation and what meanings do they attach to it?

This research was carried out between 2015 and 2017. The group was selected in a deliberate manner, meaning that the survey covered a group of doctors who are highly esteemed by patients, as reflected by subjective opinions from patients¹⁵. The opinions addressed both clinical knowledge (doctors were seen as competent professionals) and communicative skills (very nice, focused on the patient, explaining their doubts). The doctors lived in several regions, including *warmińsko-mazurskie*, *podlaskie* and *pomorskie*. Both the age of the respondents and their practical experience varied. The youngest one was 30 years old, the oldest – 68. The Table 1 provides a detailed specification of the group¹⁶. My study refers to the respondents alternatively as speakers, respondents or narrators.

¹³ B. Sławecki, *Znaczenie paradygmatów w badaniach jakościowych, Badania jakościowe. Podejścia i teorie*, ed. D. Jemielniak, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 2012.

¹⁴ The author used the opinions posted online as well as spoken testimonies provided by patients.

¹⁵ I was primarily interested to study the physicians highly esteemed by their patients. Arguably, these are the physicians any patient would be happy to deal with, who are likely to fulfil their requirements and expectations. I have deliberately omitted physicians who did not get on well with their patients or were not esteemed. I sought to look at the profession and people behind it primarily from the angle of physicians who get on well with their patients.

¹⁶ Presentation of the data in the table reflects the chronology of interviews.

The research material was collected through narrative interviews. The method I subsequently used to analyse the collected material was that of phenomenography.

Table 1. Speakers defined in terms of their work experience and specialties

Physician ID No./interview No./sex	Work experience	Specialty
I/1/M	38	Paediatrics, 2 nd degree of specialization
II/2/K	10	Dentistry
III/3/K	45	Paediatrics, 1 st and 2 nd degree of specialization
IV/4/M	34	Obstetric-gynaecology, gynaecological endocrinology
V/5/M	19	Neurosurgery
VI/6/M	23	Family medicine
VII/7/M	23	Oral and maxillofacial surgery Palliative medicine
VIII/8/K	30	Paediatrics, paediatric oncology
IX/9/M	36	Orthopaedics, 2 nd degree of trauma and orthopaedic surgery
X/10/K	26	Internal medicine, nephrology, transplantology
XI/11/K	15	Internal medicine, nephrology
XII/12/M	8	Internal medicine, pulmonary diseases
XIII/13/M	14	Urology
XIV/14/M	18	Internal medicine, sports medicine and emergency medicine
XV/15/K	25	Oncological surgery
XVI/16/M	14	Paediatrics, gastroenterology

Analysis of research results

Physicians' statements addressing their concepts of their profession and themselves as individuals can be divided into three categories:

1. Metaphorical category (physicians' profession being compared to other professions);
2. Social category (associated with the social perspective);
3. Everyday category (associated with the requirements of everyday reality).

Below is a specification of all of these categories.

1. Metaphorical category

This category consists in physicians themselves and their profession being compared to other vocations or social/family relationships while at the same time pointing to its uniqueness.

"(...) It is the constant contact with the human biological material on spiritual, emotional and intellectual levels. This is absolutely unique (...)" (X/10/K)

Please note that this category is the most numerous one as it crops up with virtually every respondent; however, it is not just typical of the narrators' way of thinking. In describing physicians, patients also employ this concept, the content of which is pretty broad: it covers such diverse qualifications as superhuman features, the possession of supernatural powers that can restore patient's health and prevent their death or just postpone it for a while, and the concept of physicians being fellow-creatures or brethren.

The most prevalent metaphor is the one where the doctor is compared to **God**. This metaphor may originate from the oath formerly made by doctors, with which they would establish an agreement with gods, thus embedding their moral authority in the sacred realm. The oath provided physicians with a duty: they became assistants to gods and goddesses in restoring and keeping other people's health. It was a task due to the gods¹⁷. A physician is thought

¹⁷ Cf. K. Szewczyk, *Bioetyka. Medycyna na granicach życia*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 2009. The religious roots of medicine are also mentioned by

of as someone exceptional, gifted with healing and saving power. It is someone who possesses knowledge, skills and tools needed to restore one's fitness or health. The god concept definitely points to the creative power and agency¹⁸, the physician being elevated to the rank of a saint. However, this concept also comes with certain limitations. The narratives mention no other divine attributes such as gentleness and mercy. This conceptualization cropped up mostly in the narratives by three physicians (a neurosurgeon, a transplant physician and an emergency department physician), who often witness patients die despite the measures they undertake, but they also save patients from death. Here are the examples of such concepts:

„(...) The truth is a doctor is God in this country, really. Although everybody seeks to strip this profession of esteem... this is a person that one's life often depends on. Indeed, we can do a lot. We can shorten one's suffering - eliminate or reduce it. A competent doctor may cure a patient to the point of preventing a disability. (...) If a doctor is competent and can do it, it's cool. That's the way it should be.” (XIV/14/K)

“Let me put it this way: in my specialty, this uniqueness is about what doctors have in their hands... they decide whether his patient is going to survive. Are they going to be able-bodied? Are they going to be mute? Are they going to be paralyzed or not? These are often the sort of things in my hands” (V/5/M).

Anselm Grun and Meinard Dufner, who claimed that ancient doctors believed that the whole power of healing came from the God. A healthy lifestyle was supposed to be combined with the worship of gods, the proper relationship with the creator of the universe. Cf. *Ta choroba zmierza ku życiu*, Wydawnictwo Salwador, Kraków 2008.

¹⁸ W. Szumowski refers to anyone who has the power, ability or a gift to heal others as a healer. In his view, this group primarily includes doctors. Originally, anyone who knew how and wanted to treat could commit to treating people. Self-proclaimed healers included witch doctors, wizards, priests, chiefs, then replaced by professional physicians. In temples, this role would be played by priests, Jesus Christ, and the Saints. All of the above-mentioned people were healers. Medical practice certificates were required in the Middle Ages among Arabs and issued by the Salerno Medical School, especially since the famous Constitutions adopted by Emperor Frederick II. Cf. W. Szumowski, *Filozofia medycyny*, Wydawnictwo Marek Derewiecki, Kęty 2005, pp. 113-114.

“(…) To be able to communicate about things that others have no access to seems to me like being the master of life and death. Because this is so, indeed. You put a man to sleep on the table. There comes the surgeon and everything is in his hands. He might have golden hands or be a bodger. He might lead another human this way or that way. These things are unique. This is the daily existence at the interstices of life and death” (X/10/M).

The reason for this interpretation is probably (also) the fact that patients increasingly want to constantly enjoy good health, reduce pain at all costs and avoid suffering and death. They have the illusory hope for postponing death, a happy life and even longevity. Many expect doctors, and thus medicine at large, to achieve impossible things and think of doctors as the preachers of longevity, the kings of life and death, and the prophets of human's fate¹⁹. Now, speaking about significant challenges they face daily, doctors themselves mostly point to the knowledge and skills needed in their profession to save patients' lives. Nobody who is not a doctor (does not study medicine, has no medical training) cannot perform actions reserved to doctors and does not bear such responsibility. Sometimes, the narratives show that doctors might be tempted to think of themselves as gods, especially if treatment is successful despite the slim chance of success.

Another issue worth mentioning is the medical training system, which envisages omniscience and infallibility and makes students adopt this view. A person who embraces this concept of their profession becomes someone else, has a disturbed concept of their capacity and cannot see their limitations, and thus accept failure. Failure might either result from a mistake or the biological capacity of a specific patient's body. This way of thinking makes it difficult to function in the professional realm as it becomes a source of stress and constant dilemmas and responsibilities.

“(…) In tough and hopeless cases, I continued to do all I could as if I wanted to turn the fate around. This was unnecessary. It was awful.

¹⁹ Cf. K. Leśniewski, „*Nie potrzebujq...*”, op. cit.

Now, with a more professional mind-set, I realize what it was about then. I was so charged it seemed to me that every hour, every day is so important, without regard for the quality and what is really going on (...)" (III/3/K)

„(...) Medicine requires all of them to be omniscient, to know everything, know what needs to be done. Doctors are required to be supernatural in a way. Doctors cannot be wrong. They cannot. If they do, they are good doctors. Now, who wants to be a bad doctor? To them, their profession does not accept a failure; they think they “cannot go wrong in their profession.” They think: “I will never go wrong.” It would be cool not to ever be wrong; patients would benefit from that, and there would be no damage. There will be damage, though, because I might always go wrong. (...) If medicine, society and patients expect that a doctor will know answers to all questions, always know what to do etc., the physicians somehow adapt to that; they want to actually respond to that demand. “They expect something from me, I will do it”. I always need to know, I need to know it right now, I need to know for sure, and this is often not the case. (...) This is the kind of a human who thinks they always know, they know everything, they know better, they don't need to listen to their patients, they don't need to talk to them”(VI/6/M).

The doctor/God concept is likely to translate into hierarchical relationships between doctors and patients and objectification of the latter. This is a trap of sorts that leads to a utopian image of the way doctors function in their profession, a sense of superiority, their adopting a higher position in the social hierarchy (both among people and professionally). Thus, the reflection, humility and the real judgement of reality (a given medical situation and one's possibilities) are needed.

The narrative shows that the educational system that trains medical professionals is not the only source of the conceptualization in question. What is equally important is the society that expects doctors to be infallible and near-omniscient. All patients love doctors who make no mistakes and are confident about their decisions. Any doctor is a God until they go wrong²⁰.

²⁰ The expectations regarding doctors are excessively high: patients think of doctors' actions in terms of miracles. Only doctors receive requests and wishes that inherently cannot be fulfilled, as if they possessed unlimited knowledge of diseases

“(…) Let me just say one more thing – patients think doctors must keep smiling and have no right to be sick. They have no right to have problems of their own. It is a common case with our profession. “What, the doctor sick?” I recall the following situation that happened back in the days. We are having a briefing. A patient comes in [and asks – B.A.] “is Doctor X around”? He is not [I respond – B.A.], he is sick. “How come he is sick?” [the patient is surprised – B.A.]. The concept of a doctor always enjoying good health and being satisfied still prevails in our society. They have no right to divorce, no right to be troubled, have a child sick or have had a sleepless night (…)” (IX/9/M).

Although it makes the role of a physician difficult, this metaphor is also a source of privilege and prestige. „It’s a burden, but also a privilege to an extent” (V/5/M). It is worth noting that the God metaphor does not only apply to actions taken with regard to the patient, but also to doctor’s social status, which rests on doctor’s medical knowledge and skills. The society is of the view that having a doctor for a family member or a friend helps oneself handle health-related matters (e.g. obtaining a diagnosis or a referral to an appropriate specialist), and thus provides a sense of security and peace. It is worth noting that this belief is universal and often borrowed from others²¹.

„(…) As I about to divorce, my mom said: You’re a doctor. You always win.” I told her it wasn’t the case. I didn’t agree with her. As time went by, though, I realized she had been right... I don’t mean it in the mean way or with satisfaction, but with regret, because I used to think (…)

(XIV/14/K).

Another metaphor similar to the God metaphor is that of the **shaman**²². It occurs in one narrative only but it is worth highlight-

and death, noted Stefan Schwarz. Cf. S. Schwarz, *O zawodzie lekarza, Przegląd lekarski* 1973, No. 5, p. 418.

²¹ L. Peter Berger argues that identities are allocated in a social fashion. They need to be reaffirmed socially on a regular basis. We become what others think of us. Cf. Berger, *Zaproszenie do socjologii*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 1988, p. 97.

²² Shamans would act as intermediaries between human and supernatural forces in various matters, often health-related issues. They may be regarded as some of

ing. A shaman is represented as the chosen one; one who 'brings' good health and discards the disease. The narrator also emphasises having various values at their disposal, with the most important being life and health.

„(...) This is a bit of a shaman profession, that is, you have many values in your hands that others have no access to. The fight against the disease often happens the interstices of life and death” (X/10/K).

Another metaphor is that of a **priest (confessor)**, whom one can confess their secrets to knowing they will never reveal them to anyone²³. As pointed out by Roman Tokarczyk²⁴, the priest conceptualization is of the universal and timeless variety – “if a priest deals with human souls, then doctors are priests dealing with human bodies”²⁵. However, it seems that this framing applies to problems that are not directly related to patients' somatic aspects, but their mental life.

„(...) You are often a bit of a confidant (...), one supposed to listen to what patients have to say rather than just recommend a dose or so” (XVI/16/M).

„The doctor is supposed to be helpful (...) and in a way becomes a close person to the patient. (...) This mother is going to tell you everything. Patients can say things to doctors that they would not to many others. They may get to talk about their family problems. Even their own problems (...)” (III/3/K).

“(...) This is a profession in which patients reveal their secrets to us; we know things... the abuse of this trust could make us unbelievably rich, wealthy. God knows what else, but this would compromise your career (...)” (VII/7/M).

the original physicians, cf. T. Brzeziński, *Wprowadzenie*, [in:] *Historia medycyny*, ed. T. Brzeziński, PZWL, Warsaw 2000, p. 26.

²³ Patients should confidentially provide their doctors with all information that can help the doctor properly diagnose the patient and design a treatment process.

²⁴ R. Tokarczyk, *Normatywne aspekty relacji lekarz-pacjent*, [in:] K. Imieliński ed., *Humanizm i medycyna. Relacje lekarz-pacjent*, Warsaw 1993, p. 92.

²⁵ *Ibid.*

„(...) People tell doctors things they cannot reveal to anyone else. Sometimes, doctors know more... I often jokingly say: „Please tell me everything from the beginning, because you need to tell your doctor more than you would to a priest at a confession or a prosecutor”. I found out about that on many occasions. Some of the situations have been hair-raising (...)” (IX/9/M).

„(...) Patients tell us things you usually don't reveal in a wider circle. You don't undress in front of others. (...) The boundaries not to cross in other relationships are crossed naturally in this profession. This is quite unique. Even at the stores, we use changing rooms. And in this case, one meets another person for the first time and gets naked in front of them. It is unique that natural resistance and boundaries have to be broken for us to do a good job [...]. Because of our profession, we get to experience what others normally don't, and we ought to respect it” (XI/11/K).

The priest metaphor points to the culturally entrenched belief that some of the standards of social interaction are being suspended in doctor-patient relationships, for instance the standards manifested in one's refraining from intimacy and keeping certain reserve. The medical relationship between doctors and patients is marked by the asymmetrical contact that consists not only in the disparity in the knowledge and power, but also patients' revealing their personal, intimate and concealed problems. The patient comes out with these problems and the doctor might choose to attentively listen to them without revealing any of their own weaknesses, dilemmas, trouble or secrets. This narrative implies that this perspective might be considered in terms of a problem. Such a perspective is typical of patients. From physician's perspective, we can also see some uniqueness about this phenomenon. Both perspectives are valid, but one should not disregard patient's optics and view it as less important, or just another part contributing to diagnosis. One should also reduce the shame that comes with all situations related to examinations, diagnostic situations and hospitalization and make them as impersonal as possible.

Another conceptualization of 'a doctor' may be associated with the symbolic **brother**. A doctor is seen as a brother, the relationship

being compared to the relationship between brothers²⁶. The relationships between brothers in tribal communities are relationships by kinship, which exist since the moment of birth, due to one's origins²⁷. Another significant type is brotherly relationships between biologically unrelated individuals, who want to 'be like brothers' to each other. The original source of these relationships is rooted in religious and magical beliefs²⁸. Fraternal obligations are reciprocal. When one of the partners does something valuable for the other, the latter is expected to do something valuable in return"²⁹. This, however, does not mean that the obligations need to be identical. "It depends on the extent of help each 'brother' needs from the other, and how much each can actually do for the other"³⁰.

"(...) This hospital has always been like a family place. Should anyone say: "Listen, I've got a problem," then they would always get helped at that hospital, and even if they work somewhere else, they would always get there. (...) And yet I think of a janitor's and a professor's children in the same way: they are just children suffering from a disease. The only criterion in this case is the severity of the disease, and not the profession or connections, and I have pretty much acted this way so far. (...) I remember that child (...) who arrived from an orphanage. They suffered from anencephaly. They had severe pneumonia and were dying during my call. Nobody wanted to do anything with that. I told nurses that they should not worry, that I would take it upon myself. But "take it upon myself" implied I knew what needs to be done. I have graduated in oncology and palliative care (...), with the awareness of dying and holding this child's hand. Watching the screen as it is

²⁶ "One can also be a brother exclusively in a given matter. Should the connecting link go missing, people will just live one next to each other; they won't be connected to each other anymore. One cannot be a brother in isolation". Cf. A. de Saint-Exupery, *Nocny lot. Ziemia planeta ludzi. Pilot wojenny*, Biblioteka Klasyki Polskiej i Obcej Wydawnictwo Literackie, Kraków 1974, p. 339.

²⁷ F. Znaniecki, *Relacje społeczne i role społeczne*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 2011.

²⁸ Cf. *Ibid.*, p. 183 et al.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 186.

³⁰ *Ibid.*

shutting down. It is more of pure presence, because one could have done little there, but this story has a follow-up to it. The next day, a man came who introduced himself as this boy's father and told me, crying: I had been told he would be useless, and so I gave him up and abandoned him at an orphanage." I could have told him: You did wrong." I didn't, I thought that this was a one-in-a-lifetime moment to him. I told him: "Please, don't worry, I have substituted you by holding this boy's hand. Nobody would have done it better than I did. Please, rest assured that he had a father by his side." I showed him that he had done wrong yet someone else fixed it. (...)" (I/1/M).

The narratives also featured comparisons between doctor's work and **hairstylist's**, **fairy's** and **psychologist's** work. The similarity is highlighted to stress the significance of conversations in all of those professions. They appear to differ from each other, but in the light of their context, they are similar and complementary. The doctor comes across as one who will change patient's life for the better, will make life more beneficial to the patient. Hence, the doctor has a 'fairy-tale power' of changing patient's life. Then, the comparison to the hairstylist points to the direct change in patient's body. Like a hairstylist, a physician has to be technically able, his actions being aimed at transforming both patient's appearance and his frame of mind. For the change to satisfy the patient, the doctor needs to know their needs and desires, something only a friend or a psychologist can do. The allusion to a psychologist is probably not accidental because it alludes to previous statements about meeting patients' non-medical needs, i.e. those related to mental, spiritual and social realms. It is worth noting that all of the above-mentioned terms were made in the unique context of the narrator's speciality, that is dentistry. In this case, the act of 'transforming' the patient from outside seems more understandable.

The last comparison is to **an official**. This is about the purely service-based exchange between the parties. The doctor acts in the capacity of an official and is obligated to execute actions pursuant to their mission. Official's career used to come with significant esteem and prestige, unlike today - though it ultimately depends on

a community. Doctors often point to such attitudes among patients, who view them solely as service providers (e.g. issuing certificates, prescriptions and other documents). This situation is confirmed by the Head of the Ethics Commission of the Lower Silesia Physician Council³¹, who said that, in light of 'medical services/procedures' and 'operational algorithms' in place, physicians have come to be service providers. Accordingly, not only do a large number of patients approach physicians expecting them to have services rendered to them, but they also seek to hold their physicians accountable for these services. However, the treatment process – as arguably pointed out by the author – is something more than merely a service.

„(...) This occupational group has definitely lost some respect from their patients. We are often treated like officials. Patients want something from us, we need to give it to them, as if they were applicants. They take the roles of applicants themselves and treat us like officials. (...) Patients acting as applicants, and physicians acting as officials: these are not good roles (...)” (XV/15/K).

“(...) I get in touch with a GP, and he tells me: “Doctor, when the patient with an untreatable tumour had been discharged, they brought me this list of tests. They want to have tests for their thyroid and prostate cancer. They probably searched for information online and have no idea about it all. They told me I was the one supposed to provide them with prescriptions (...). What should I do?” And I see this is as absurd and pointless (...)” (VII/7/M).

„(...) There are more and more papers, we are in front of computers all the time. We count points. We do things that should be done by someone else. (...) This worries me (...)” (XVI/16/M).

2. Social category

Another major category is associated with **the social view of the profession**, which reveals some grand ideas, emphasising public

³¹ M. Orlicz-Benedycka, *Dehumanizacja medycyny zagraża lekarzom i pacjentom*, „Medium” 12/2012-1/2015.

trust³² and responsibility for patients' life and health. In this context, it is worth pointing out that physician's practice is governed by a number of regulations such as the Law on Physician's and Dentist's Professions, and the Law on Healthcare Institutions³³. Now, the ethical rules that govern physician's practice are set forth within the Medical Code of Ethics³⁴.

This group's narratives clearly point out that the occupation in question is a distinguishing feature, something that elevates their social rank, or puts them in a special position. The rank of the medical profession has been built as medicine has developed. As Jan Hartman points out³⁵, in the 20th century, doctors reached the heights of social prestige. However, the essence of doctor's occupation as such has not changed and is thought of as the service based on a special calling. It is worth pointing out that at the heart of both ideas – the service and the calling – is Christianity. Although doctor's service and a priest's serving God are not identical, one should think of the former as the healthcare service for the humanity at large and the specific individuals.

"(...) These are people whom you should trust the most. If you trust me, I should live up to it. It is not that I get it as a bonus... I often tell my kids that putting yourself in this position comes with a greater pressure than positioning yourself as one among many. I think this is a great elite that should act as a role model (...)" (XIV/14/K).

"Medical practice is one of the few vocations referred to as "the profession." You say "medical profession" and you understand what it is about. The word 'profession' (...) is derived from the Latin word 'pro-

³² "Medical profession is one of the vocations with 'a social mission', as observed by B. Bajcar, A. Borkowska, A. Czerw, A. Gąsiorowska in *Satysfakcja z pracy w zawodach z misją społeczną. Psychologiczne uwarunkowania*, GWP, Warsaw 2011, p. 17.

³³ Journal of Laws of 2008, No. 136, item 857; Journal of Laws of 2009 No. 219, item 1708; Journal of Laws of 1991, No. 91, item 408.

³⁴ B. Bajcar, A. Borkowska, A. Czerw, A. Gąsiorowska, op. cit., pp. 18–19.

³⁵ J. Hartman, *Bioetyka dla lekarzy*. Wydanie 2, LEX a Wolters Kluwer business, Warsaw 2012.

profession', i.e. an oath. There are several vocations that differ from others in that their members are bound by an oath. (...) The essence of this profession is that patient's welfare is the most important thing, that I will keep self-improving and work with my colleagues, other physicians" (VII/7/M).

„And then comes selflessness: I should help them even if I don't get paid because I'm a doctor. The Medical Code of Ethics says: "Physician should receive decent remuneration for their work. However, if they face a situation where they can help someone without getting paid, they still need to help them" (X/10/K).

Upon taking an oath, a physician is bestowed upon a special position. They come to be thought of as a professional. One aspect of this concept is "a competent professional that has the responsibility for their patients' health." Another is that doctors need to constantly improve their qualifications; at last, the third aspect is about doctors' need to work with their colleagues. Doctors' medical practice rests on their knowledge and craftsmanship. Having attained this craftsmanship and improving it is obvious part of the medical ethos. The concept of craftsmanship has been extended to cover organizational and social skills related to one's working as part of a group under specific conditions. This refers to one's being routinely efficient, technologically savvy, capable of using their work tools and working within healthcare system. In terms of professionalism, physician's activity seems to boil down to the rendition of services, but this would be too simplistic a view³⁶.

The narrators are aware of the obligation towards their patients, which might not always be able to pay for their services and planned treatment process. All of this instils some optimism as nowadays the image of the healthcare industry and the people behind it is not quite optimistic. We can easily come up with a list of failed medical interventions, conflicts between physicians and their patients, all of which have ruined the trust and faith in selfless help.

³⁶ B. Bajcar, A. Borkowska, A. Czerw, A. Gąsiorowska, op. cit.

3. Everyday category

The third category shows that the realities of the career that has no time standards and is associated with the strong commitment to patients' problems. These statements often feature the term '**total profession**'. The narrators point to heavy workloads and related (patients') problems. Here are some examples:

„In my view, this is not a 9-5 profession, where you clock out and go home. (...) This profession is actually your life, I have always known that (...)”(XVI/16/M).

“We go home, depressed about something that happened at work. The hospital as seen from a physician’s perspective is full of sick, suffering people. If you spend a lot of time there, you leave some of your energy there. (...) This surfaces in conversations with my wife. She carries her patients within, she keeps the things that happened, the tragedies, within herself. You invest a lot of your emotions in it. This definitely changes your mind-set. I tell my students that medical practice will make them act different in life. If I need to make a hard decision, I will cut off all of the extreme options and pick the safest solution. This is physician’s way of thinking. (...) This translates into your entire life. It is a profession full of tension (...)” (I/1/M).

„(...) I pick up 40 patients’ phone calls a day. I do not know if it’s good, it is just the way it is” (IV/4/M).

„Yesterday, I left my home at 7:10 and got back at about 22:10. I spent the whole time at work. I was on the ward. I was at the hospital. I was at my office, and then I came to carry out the surgery in the evening. Of course, I was lucky not to be alone, I worked with my team. As I returned home, my kids were already asleep (...). I saw them for a couple of minutes while having breakfast (...)” (XIII/13/M).

“(...) To this day, if I have a patient with a critical illness, my thoughts keep being elsewhere. These days, it is different, though. This has to be a seriously ill patient. In the beginning, a complex problem was enough for me to have my mind occupied with that patient. This has had a huge impact on my life” (X/10/K).

"(...) This is a profession that requires you to be very careful, it is not just about what you say but also how you act" (VIII/8/K).

The narratives that make up this category primarily show the amount of effort put into work. The narrators focus primarily on ordinary, daily activities and actions taken with respect of their patients. They also speak of physicians in terms of normal human beings, who have certain physical capacity, resilience and problems. Furthermore, as they emphasise a lot, in the doctor-patient relationship, a medical professional is requested to handle their task well. In that process, he is, on the one hand, a specialized professional and, on the other, a human being who understands the other: their patient.

"(...) Normal people in the face of concrete challenges (...) (I/1/M).

"A doctor has to be, above all, a human (...)" (VI/6/M).

"(...) Physicians who primarily approach themselves with distance. They should not be condescending. They should be good people. They need to have the right character to handle stress well" (XII/12/M).

The way medical profession is conceived within this category oftentimes disregards the unique position, i.e. the authority, the great respect and esteem physicians enjoy, something that used to be stressed a lot. Some narrators reduce their profession and related duties to the difficult work that comes with great responsibility and burden. At the same time, they point to various doctor/patient relationships, which involve power and knowledge.

Professional training

The presented meanings and senses attributed to the profession of a physician carry certain implications for both medical and educational practice. It is primarily about training physicians in a way that provides them with sensitivity towards their patients' needs, their subjectivity, autonomy and dignity. One's conceiving of their

professional role in terms of a special calling and service for the good of another human being translates into the quality of their decisions and the way they perceive other people, for whom they take their actions. The research project by Neeli M. Bendapudi and her research team³⁷ shows that 'accuracy' was most often mentioned by patients as "the best kind of behaviour they have experienced from a physician", and 'empathy' was the least frequently mentioned. The 'worst kind of experience' was mostly disrespect and lack of sensitivity from the physician. The authors behind the survey concluded that the low quality of physician's service, as articulated by patients, results from physician's arrogance, manifested in their disregard for their patient's contribution towards treatment, the physician's disinterest in their patient as an individual, impatience in responding to patient's questions or callousness in discussing possible treatment outcomes. Without a doubt, the *strictly medical* obligation is easier to execute than the one related to soft skills, including communication with patients. It is impossible to help patients without comprehensively considering their individuality – their living conditions, family situations and emotions experienced due to their diseases and other matters. We differ from each other as individuals. On the one hand, each of us is special and unique, on the other, hard to interact with because of the diverse experiences that have constructed us³⁸.

Medical training should primarily address patients as special and unique individuals. It is, therefore, essential for the medical education to draw upon anthropological categories formed within Christianity, which facilitate individual's deeper commitment to their vocation/profession, and thus the help provided to the suffering. Physicians shall want and be able to communicate with other people (patients) if they want to deliver their duties well and live up

³⁷ M.N. Bendapudi, L.L. Berry, K. Frey, Turner, J. Parish, W.L. Rayburn, *Patients' perspectives on ideal physician behaviors*, "Mayo Clinic Proceedings" 2006, vol. 81, No. 7, pp. 338–344.

³⁸ Cf. for instance W. Eichelberger, I.A. Stanisławska, *Być lekarzem być pacjentem. Rozmowy o psychologii relacji*, Wydawnictwo Czarna Owca, 2013.

to the expectations. The way we behave towards others is decisive in whether we are human or not. Furthermore, the above-mentioned categories clearly accentuate human's spiritual dimension, which allows physicians to establish personal relationships with their patients and initiate the process of providing help, accompanying and being with the patient, "the internal healing," something covered in greater detail by Małgorzata Krajnik³⁹.

The training programme for the medical profession should offer more course time as part of the courses dedicated to communication and development of soft skills in prospective physicians⁴⁰ (it would make sense to audit the teaching programmes of those courses as well). Special teachers may be involved in teaching some courses or issues. It is worth pointing out that special education, especially special medical education, shares a lot with medicine, e.g. the similar objective: the recovery of what has been damaged or impaired in one's body, although the paths to achieve this objective are obviously different⁴¹; nevertheless, they complement each other. Aware of the human body's compensation capabilities and the way that patient's acceptance of their own disease or disability impacts their lifestyle, special teachers, or special medical teachers, can use their many years of experience with patients to transfer their practical (and also theoretical) knowledge and make prospective physicians more attuned to their patients' problems.

Medical schools should consider offering medical graduates obligatory courses in communication with patients (by analogy to the courses provided for prospective teachers). Such courses would aim to provide future physicians with a rudimentary set of communication skills through appropriate training methods and techniques.

³⁹ M. Krajnik, *Whole-person care – hope for modern medicine?*, "Polish Archives of Internal Medicine" 2017 (on-line in press).

⁴⁰ A cursive look into teaching programmes at medical universities shows that the time allocated to courses teaching communication and non-medical knowledge and skills cover are too few.

⁴¹ Cf. J. Doroszewska, *Pedagogika specjalna*, t. I, Zakład Narodowy im. Ossolińskich Wrocław, Warsaw, Kraków, Gdańsk 1981.

The value of physicians' undeniable knowledge and skills aside, it is worth stressing the importance of physicians' humility with respect of themselves and their achievements. Humility shall help physicians constantly improve their knowledge and skills and make them approach others as they do themselves. "A physician will never be a miracle maker. Regardless of the progress of science, we will never succeed in creating a utopian world, in which we will be able to cure any disease and get rid of any structural defect of the body. It would be so good if medical practice came with a kind of humility based on the understanding of the imperfections of this practice", says Zbigniew Szawarski⁴².

Bibliography

- Bajcar B., Borkowska A., Czerw A., Gašiorowska A., *Satysfakcja z pracy w zawodach z misją społeczną. Psychologiczne uwarunkowania*, GWP, Warsaw 2011.
- Bendapudi M.N., Berry L.L., Frey K., Turner Parish J., Rayburn W.L., *Patients' perspectives on ideal physician behaviors*, "Mayo Clinic Proceedings" 2006, vol. 81, No. 7.
- Berger P.L., *Zaproszenie do socjologii*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 1988.
- Bidakowski K., Wójcik T. ed., *Pamiętniki lekarzy*, Wydawnicza Spółdzielnia czytelnik, Warsaw 1968.
- Bogusz J., *Lekarz i jego choroby*, PZWL, Warsaw 1984.
- Brzeziński T., ed., *Historia medycyny*, Wydawnictwo PZWL, Warsaw 2000.
- Brzeziński T., *Wprowadzenie*, [in:] *Historia medycyny*, ed. T. Brzeziński, PZWL, Warsaw 2000.
- Ceran W., *Jan Chryzostom o leczeniu i lekarzach*, "Acta Universitatis Lodziensis". Folia Historica 1993, No. 48.
- Chomczyński P., *Paradygmat interpretatywny*, [in:] *Słownik socjologii jakościowe*, ed. K. Konecki, P. Chomczyński, Difin, Warsaw 2012.
- Doroszewska J., *Pedagogika specjalna*, t. I, Zakład Narodowy im. Ossolińskich Wrocław, Warszawa, Kraków, Gdańsk 1981.
- Eichelberger W., Stanisławska I.A., *Być lekarzem być pacjentem. Rozmowy o psychologii relacji*, Wydawnictwo Czarna Owca, 2013.

⁴² Z. Szawarski, *Mądrość i sztuka leczenia, Obraz/ Słowo/Terytoria/ Gdańsk 2005*, p. 352.

- Giddens A., *Nowoczesność i tożsamość*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 2012.
- Grun A., Dufner M., *Ta choroba zmierza ku życiu*, Wydawnictwo Salwador, Kraków 2008.
- Hartman J., *Bioetyka dla lekarzy*, Wydanie 2, LEX a Wolters Kluwer business, Warsaw 2012.
- Hollender M.M.H., *Stosunki między lekarzem i pacjentem*, [in:] *Psychologia w praktyce lekarskiej*, ed. M.H. Hollender, PZWL, Warsaw 1975.
- Kępiński A., *Poznanie chorego*, Wydawnictwo Literackie, Kraków 2002.
- Kostrzewski P., Ziółkowski J. ed., *Mała encyklopedia medycyny*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 1999.
- Orlicz-Benedycka M., *Dehumanizacja medycyny zagraża lekarzom i pacjentom*, "Medium" 12/2012-1/2015.
- Regulation of the Minister of Health of 2 January 2013 on doctors' and dentists' specialties* (Journal of Laws of 8 January 2013, item 26)
- Schwarz S., *O zawodzie lekarza*, "Przegląd lekarski" 1973, No. 5.
- Sławecki B., *Znaczenie paradygmatów w badaniach jakościowych*, *Badania jakościowe. Podejścia i teorie*, ed. D. Jemielniak, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 2012.
- Szawarski Z., *Mądrość i sztuka leczenia*, *Obraz/Słowo/Terytoria*, Gdańsk 2005.
- Szewczyk K., *Bioetyka. Medycyna na granicach życia*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 2009.
- Szumowski W., *Filozofia medycyny*, Wydawnictwo Marek Derewiecki, Kęty 2005.
- Thorwald J., *Stulecie chirurgów*, Wydawnictwo Znak, Kraków 2009.
- Thorwald J., *Triumf chirurgów*, Wydawnictwo Znak, Kraków 2010.
- Tokarczyk R., *Normatywne aspekty relacji lekarz-pacjent*, [in:] *Humanizm i medycyna. Relacje lekarz-pacjent*, ed. K. Imieliński, Warsaw 1993.
- Urbaniak-Zajac D., *Jakościowa orientacja w badaniach pedagogicznych*, [in:] *Badania jakościowe w pedagogice*, ed. D. Urbaniak-Zajac, E. Kos, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 2013.
- Law on the medical profession Journal of Laws of Laws of 2011, No. 277, item 1634, Article 2.2.*



OLEKSANDRA YEHOVA

Pedagogical University, Kyiv, Ukraine

Perspectives of Civic Upbringing as in Non formal Education

ABSTRACT: Oleksandra Yehorova, *Perspectives of Civic Upbringing as in Non formal Education*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, No. 21, Poznań 2018. Pp. 287–304. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.16>

The article covers the theoretical aspects and importance of civic education in its broad sense nowadays and analyzes its role, tasks, the after-school programs, best experiences and practices of after-school education in the United States in the field of civic education and upbringing. In the article civic education in the framework of U.S. out-of-school time is substantiated as a systematic object in its substantive and procedural aspects, which aims to form national, universal human values, civic activity and competencies required in the XXI century. It has been established that civic education and upbringing has been integrated in the secondary school and out-of-school education curriculum and practice, is considered as a priority task for education at the present stage in the United States and is a perspective area for non-formal education in Ukraine and beyond.

KEY WORDS: civic education/upbringing, competences of the XXI century, non-formal education, after-school education, out-of-school education

The task of developing recommendations on the development of a system of non-formal education in Ukraine based on experience and best practices in the United States includes the analysis and comparison of the state of non-formal education in the field of civic

education as a special area of non-formal education in both countries. First of all, we would like to note that the issues of development of civic education in general and non-formal education in particular, are closely linked with a separate direction of pedagogical science and practice – civic education (upbringing). It is known that this was and is one of the most characteristic features of out-of-school education in the United States. In Ukraine, the direction of “civic education” (civics) has become very relevant at the present moment, when the problem of forming the civic competence of modern children and youth is actualized. To achieve this goal, much attention is paid to studying the experience and successful international practices of other countries, in particular the United States as a country with well-developed system of non-formal education.

It is established that at the present stage there, civic education is considered rather broadly. According to T. Wagner, one of the Directors of the Leadership Change Group at the Harvard Graduate School of Education Development, there is “convergence” among the skills required in the global economy and those skills that contribute to the security and prosperity of democracy¹. The Guardian of Democracy reports, based on various studies, that civic education “not only promotes civic knowledge and skills, but also promotes learning” competencies of the 21st century². “The Crucible Moment: College Learning and Democracy’s Future” paper states: “A socially strong and economically developed American democra-

¹ Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Seria 2(351), pp. 8-14; Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Seria 2 (351), pp. 8-14.

² Gould J. Guardians of Democracy: The Civic Mission of Schools / J. Gould // Philadelphia: Lenore Annerberg Institute of Civics of the Annenberg Public Policy Center, Campaign for the Civic Mission of Schools. Philadelphia 2011. p. 159; Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Seria 2(351), pp. 8-14.

cy ... needs knowledgeable, engaging, open and socially responsible people. who are committed to the common good and practice democracy "...civil education needs to be an integrative component of every level of education..."³. The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement also mentioned the change of the paradigm of modern national civic education as a priority education direction; historical and contemporary understanding of democratic values; attraction of different points of view and opinions of different layers of population, focus on collective decision of civil problems; orientation at higher levels of civic education, skills, values of each student and university student⁴. At the same time, K. Popadyuk points out that the National Council for the Education of the United States of America (NCSS), a professional association of educators in the field of civic education in the world and an umbrella organization that brings together organizations in 50 states of America and 69 organizations from other countries, the primary task of civic education is to help students "adopt transparent and well-considered solutions for public welfare as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interconnected world"⁵.

³ Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Seria 2(351), pp. 8-14; Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Seria 2(351), pp. 8-14.

⁴ Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Seria 2(351), pp. 8-14; Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk, 2017. Seria 2(351), pp. 8-14.

⁵ Popadyuk K. Specificity of the adaptation of the American information in the sphere of civic education and upbringing/ K. Popadyuk // Actual problems of civic education and upbringing: Ukrainian and foreign experiences: materials of the I scientific and practical conference, 19 June 2013. / National. Univ. „Ostrozka Akademia“, non-governmental organization „Center for Democratic Leadership“;

That is, there is an understanding of the need to preserve and convey common values and ideals, the important role of civic education in this process, and the need to adapt the program to current needs. So nonformal education can help in this, support self-knowledge, the education of tolerance, openness to the new, the ability to co-operate with different people⁶. Thus, in modern pedagogical science, we can distinguish two approaches to the meaning of the concept of civic education. First, narrow one – teaching as a separate school subject. Secondly, the broad significance of the process and the result of preparing of the younger generation. As for the subject of our study, we mean civic education in the broad sense as a special field of non formal education. At the same time, this program, besides knowledge of political and state systems and mechanisms of their work and democratic principles, also contains debates on application.

The C Programming for the Twenty-First Century Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement points out the values that civic and historical education should bring: respect for freedom and human dignity, openness, empathy, tolerance, responsibility for universal good, justice, ethical integrity, equality. Particular attention is paid to such a category as “actions in a team”, namely: compromise and mutual respect, solving public problems involving different parties, integrating knowledge, skills and values in action, moral behavior, orientation in political systems and processes⁷.

[Віди. Ed. O.S. Batishcheva]. Ostrog 2013, p. 234; Popadyuk K. The formation of the civic education in Ukraine. A glance at the problem / K. Popadyuk; N. Vyatkina // Implementation of western experiences in school system of Ukraine. K.: Abris 2002, p. 184; Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Serii 2(351), pp. 8-14.

⁶ Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Serii 2(351), pp. 8-14.

⁷ The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement / A Crucible Moment: College Learning and Democracy's Future // Association of American Colleges and Universities. Washington D.C., 2012, p. 98; Yehorova O.

It has been established that the set of program standards for teaching civic education, concluded by the members of the National Council for Civic Education (NCSS) is: “culture; time, continuity and variability; people, places, environment; individual development and identity; persons, groups and institutions; power, power structures and management; production, distribution and consumption; science, technology and society; global connections; civil ideals and practice”⁸. It should be added that this organization implements the College, Career and Civic Life (C3) program at social studies⁹.

The analysis of sources and information has shown that the content of civic education in the USA is changing at the present time. Thus, within the framework of the subject of civic education, the information on the various branches of government and on the history of America was also supplemented by further materials on the political system of the state and ways of influencing it, the cultural and global contexts of democracy and the principle of effective democracy has been added. Former Secretary of the United States Department of Education Arne Duncan and former Supreme Court Justice Sandra Day O’Connor stressed that in order for civic education to become more attractive and interesting, it should not remain at the level of “grandmother’s civics but to go forward, develop in accordance with the requirements of time”¹⁰. It was found that the

Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Seriiia 2(351), pp. 8-14.

⁸ National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), <http://www.socialstudies.org/about> [access: 9.2016]; Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Seriiia 2(351), pp. 8-14.

⁹ National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), <http://www.socialstudies.org/about> [access: 9.2016].

¹⁰ Duncan A., O’Connor S. Civics Education, from <http://www.thedailybeast.com/articles/2011/07/01/icivics-sandra-day-o-connor-and-arne-duncan-on-civics-education-online.html> [access: 9.2016]; Advancing Civic Learning and Engagement

present content was supplemented by the cultural and global contexts of democracy and democracy in action. Thus, civic education (upbringing) and involvement in democracy, that is, so-called active democracy, is often heard now and comes more in the focus. That is, the training and preparation of students for participation in social and democratic life, "providing opportunities for the development of knowledge of public education and skills ... through learning and practice" and integrating this knowledge into other subjects"¹¹. Thus, events of active democracy are considered as priorities, which fully correlates with out-of-school education¹². It was found that in America, civic education as a special field of non-formal education is conveyed through teaching civic education as a separate subject as well as through variety of out-of-school programs and activities.

In analyzing civic education as a prospective direction of out-of-school education, it should be noted that in the United States particular attention is paid to the issue of its implementation. Thus, one of the unique programs is learning through service, which integrates learning with projects and mandatory participation of high school students in community projects. As part of this program, secondary and high school students must work approximately 50 hours per year in community projects¹³. Former English teacher at Maryland School, and now researcher Kathy Megyeri shares her implementation strategies in her book, *The History of Teaching through Service*

in Democracy: A Road Map and Call to Action / U.S. Department of Education, Office of the Under Secretary, Office of Postsecondary Education. Washington D.C., 2012, p. 40; Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Seriya 2(351), pp. 8-14.

¹¹ Bauer O. *The Question of Nationalities and Social Democracy* / O. Bauer // University of Minnesota Press. – Minneapolis – London 2000, p. 489.

¹² Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Seriya 2(351), pp. 8-14.

¹³ Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Seriya 2(351), pp. 8-14.

and Requirements in Maryland. Element of teaching through ministry in the daily activities of teachers. Among them highlights: writing of works justifying the need for projects; developing an oral historical research project on community initiatives; writing letters of gratitude to parents and older people who have had a positive impact on the students; Letters to known people asking for things for charity fairs or auctions; Letters-tips for younger students about how to succeed in high school or college; preparing younger students for advice on children's books or writing children's books for them; donation of books to the primary school library; writing letters to editors and writing petitions to local, state and federal officials on local issues; study of works that include elements of civic education "Mice, People and Flowers for Elgerona", "King Lear", "Kill a Mocker"; different forms of reflection; attraction of funds and publication as a result of the use of elements of civic education [13].

Also, according to the National Nation Report Card, the following means are generally used: discussion o mainly use the following means: discussion of materials studied at school; writing short answers to questions, tests or riddles; role-playing games, simulating processes or playing scenes; group projects; work with additional literature; work in the library; discussion; Writing detailed answers to tasks; participation in debates or panel discussions; writing reports; preparing students for a class report; writing letters to express a position or help solve a community problem; a trip or a trip; invited speakers from the party¹⁴. It is revealed that also the following programs are included in the road map of engagement in democracy:

- The Facing History program, which promotes the involvement of students in civic engagement and critical thinking through the teaching of teachers in the study of cases of religious or racial persecution;

¹⁴ The Nation's Report Card / History, Geography and Civics at Grade. - 2015, https://nces.ed.gov/whatsnew/commissioner/remarks2015/04_29_2015.asp [access: 09.2016]; The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), <https://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard> [access: 9.2016].

- Engineering Projects in Community Service (EPICS), in which engineering faculty students as well as students from 50 secondary schools in ten states work with community organizations to address community problems;
- Public Achievement (Coaching for Public Work) coaching program, where college students, graduates or secondary school teachers as community cohorts help primary and secondary school students in different teams to develop and implement joint projects or activities for the benefit of the school or community¹⁵;
- The Mikva Challenge program enables young people to express their views and participate in the decision-making process with the assistance of educators and leadership in the state or community¹⁶;
- The Network for Teaching Entrepreneurship (NFTE) program teaches teachers the basics of opening a business so that they have the opportunity to teach their students, while the business ideas of students are largely social in nature¹⁷;
- Civics 2.0 – educational program of interactive games in the field of civic education, familiar with the work of the government, various branches of government, work of courts, etc.¹⁸;
- Educational program or „Day of Constitution” ceremony, supported by the federal government, held annually on September 17 in each institution, in order to emphasize the importance of an active civic position and the importance of the Constitution¹⁹;

¹⁵ Public Achievement project, <http://www.augsburg.edu/sabo/what-we-do/publicachievement> [access: 9.2016].

¹⁶ The Mikva Model, <http://www.mikvachallenge.org> [access: 9.2016].

¹⁷ The Network For Teaching Entrepreneurship, <https://www.nfte.com> [access: 9.2016].

¹⁸ ICivics, <https://www.icivics.org/our-story> [access: 09.2016].

¹⁹ Constitution Day, <http://www2.ed.gov/policy/fund/guid/constitutionday.html> [access: 01.2017]; *Advancing Civic Learning and Engagement in Democracy: A Road Map and Call to Action* / U.S. Department of Education, Office of the Under Secretary, Office of Postsecondary Education. Washington D.C., 2012, p. 40.

- The National Student / Parent Mock Election Program, which uses a variety of activities, including "Democracy in Action", when students participate in election simulation and voter registration;
- "Kids Voting USA" program;
- UN Model Program, where events take place in youth city councils;
- The American Public Broadcasting project, which teaches the federal budget and online simulation games, such as the online budget game Hero Budget [20].

The US experience in the area of civic education was greatly beneficial for Ukrainian educators, which contributed to the development of cooperation between American and Ukrainian educators and public figures in the 1990s.

With the support and funding of the US government, several programs on civic education were implemented, events were being held. Among them are "Street Law", "Partners in Education" (Partners in Education) (PIE), etc. Thus, within the framework of the exchange program for teachers of history and social sciences disciplines, exchange visits of these teachers and school administrators were carried out aimed at familiarization with the best practices of civic education, studying history, etc.

It should be noted that, with the assistance of various funds and embassies, there were other programs and activities, including: CIVITAS and Education for Democracy programs, which supported teachers and democratization processes at school, the development of critical thinking and advanced pedagogical experience; trainings for teachers of social science disciplines; a program of mini-grants "Innovation in Education", which provided funding for trainings in the field of civic education, democracy in education; publishing of a newsletter for educators "Visnyk", etc. In addition, the following forms of work on civic education were introduced: debatable clubs, civic education centers in various regions of Ukraine (Kyiv, Poltava, Sevastopol, Tsyryupinsk, etc.). Such organizations as Nova Doba (Lviv), Teachers for Democracy and Partnership (Kyiv), have been

created and actively research and develop civic education in Ukraine. It was established that the efforts of these organizations were published manuals and textbooks on civic education, in particular "Art to live in the community", "Civic education", "We are citizens of Ukraine", "We learn to be citizens". Also, electives in civic education are taught in separate schools in Ukraine. It should be noted that Ukrainian participants of the Teachers' Excellence Awards (TEA) program, secondary school educators funded by the US government, also had the opportunity during the late 90s of the twentieth century to participate in exchange programs with US peers. In the course of the study, the author as the coordinator of the Program for the Exchange of High School Students (SSEP), studied the issues of civic education as a special area of afterschool education. At the same time, it was possible to give an objective assessment of the importance of this experience, both for teachers and for students. During their visit to the United States and the contemplation of how American students respect their country, the flag, sang the anthem at schools, the students began to appreciate these attributes more and more at home, and feel themselves as citizens of their country.

In Ukraine, foreign experience in the field of civic education was theoretically and practically investigated quite actively. However, unfortunately, systematic work in the field of civic education in schools in Ukraine did not work out, despite the efforts of many activists and educators who really contributed greatly to the process of the birth, development and spread of civic education in Ukraine. Even in those schools where a civic education faculty was created, it was very difficult to keep this subject due to the excessive loading of the school curriculum, the lack of sufficient civic education manuals, a lack of training or a lack of teacher of civic education, etc.

It has been found that in the United States and Ukraine there similar problems with the content of civic education in schools. At the same time, training programs, project work and elements of civic education during non-formal programs compensate for these gaps and, moreover, they have the opportunity to monitor the situa-

tion by monitoring the status of cases of civic education of students. For example, the 2010 National Report (Civics 2010) indicates a deterioration in the knowledge of pupils in civic education, compared with 1998. It was found that according to the report, 24% of 12-class teachers and 23% of the 8- the clerks have shown a sufficient or higher level of knowledge on the subject of civic education. At that time, 36% of students showed a lower level than the basic one. This is due to the insufficient amount of educational material on civic education. Less than half of the 12-class students are studying international topics and 2/3 – certain important areas of the civic education of their country (such as the electoral system, the judicial system, the constitution)²⁰. The report for 2014 did not show any significant changes, but only a slight improvement. So, 2/3 of 8th grade students pointed to the subject of civic education as a favorite.

To our mind, this influenced the fact that civic education disciplines are not available in every school due to the availability of programs and the need to prepare for the passing of tests. Therefore, half of the states do not require the completion of a course of civic education at the end of school, which affects such negative consequences as the poor level of knowledge about civic education of school graduates and universities.

Analyzing the recent information from the US Department of Education, we can assume that there is an intention to encourage schools and states to review school curricula and balance them with subjects such as history, civic education, economics, government programs. It is also planned to provide assistance to schools through OST programs. In Ukraine, the indicators of knowledge of civic education are even more disappointing given the unsystematic training of civic education, the crisis in society and education. O. Batishcheva in his paper "Behavioral Aspects and Differences in

²⁰ The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), <https://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard> [access: 9.01.2017]; The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement / A Crucible Moment: College Learning and Democracy's Future // Association of American Colleges and Universities. Washington D.C., 2012, p. 98.

Values: An Analysis of the Status of Civic Consciousness in Ukrainian Youth” cites the results of a survey on understanding the features of civic education, their citizenship and civic attitude among high school students in secondary schools and undergraduate students in the framework of the project “Civic Education”, conducted in the period from 09.2012 to 06.2013. When asked about the assessment of their own knowledge about the system of state authorities in Ukraine and the principles of democratic governance, 44% of respondents noted their knowledge as “good”, 42.4% – “satisfactorily”, 10% – “unsatisfactorily” and only 3.4% of respondents indicated “excellent”²¹. O. Batishcheva observes that relatively high indicators of awareness of self-awareness “correlate with the very small results of youth assessment of their activity”. Interesting associations of young people on the question of the meaning of “state” for them through the term – “power” (9%), “unity” (7%), “nation, people” (7%) and „order” (6%). There were also such associations as „motherland”, as well as negative ones – “evil”, “control”, “shame” (2% respectively)²² [21].

At the same time, a survey of the impact of the Orange Revolution on the national identity of young people conducted by us on the basis of McCoon’s test with participants of the Youth Camp „School of Equal Opportunities” showed that the importance of the national identity of youth increased significantly after 2004. So, to the question: “Who am I?” the young people have increased their identification with the “ethnic group” and the share of the “private life” category, while the share of “positive and negative categories” has decreased. Also, categories became more active: for example, “a person who aspires to equality, freedom and love”, “a fighter for the truth”, “I love Ukraine”, and others like that. All this confirms

²¹ Batishcheva S. Povedinkovi aspekty ta rozbizhnosti u tsinnostyakh: analiz stanu hromadyanskoyi svidomosti u Ukrayinskoyi molodi. <http://eprints.ua.edu.ua/2368> [access: 01.2017].

²² Batishcheva S. Povedinkovi aspekty ta rozbizhnosti u tsinnostyakh: analiz stanu hromadyanskoyi svidomosti u Ukrayinskoyi molodi. <http://eprints.ua.edu.ua/2368> [access: 01.2017].

that revolutions contribute to the activity of the national consciousness of youth. But revolutions are radical measures, and gradual civic education from childhood is more effective.

Thus, the civic education of children and youth acquires a special significance and care in non formal education in Ukraine. The representatives of different regions of Ukraine, practicing teachers and scholars D. Desiatov, I. Kostiuk, A. Kucher, A. Panchenkov, S. Ratushniak, O. And Rostotskaya, S. Sayenko, G. Senkovska, L. Seredyak, A. Kovtonyuk, O. Shiyan and others adapted foreign experiences though textbooks, projects and other activities on civic education and upbringing in school and out-of-school. As a result of this process, programs and teaching and learning materials and guidelines on teaching and learning of civic education were created, in particular, „The Concept of Civic Education of Ukraine”, authored by T. Aslamova, T. Buck, P. Verbitskaya, O. Voitenko, V. Bortnikov, T. Ginetova, L. Dukh, O. Zheliba, V. Kononenko, T. Ladichenko, T. Meleschenko, M. Mykhailychenko, G. Mikhailovich, S. Poznyak, O. Pometun, O. Salat, N. Syik, Ye Sinyova, N. Sophia, O. Suslova, V. Tereshchenko, S. Terno and others²³.

It should be noted that many conferences and seminars on issues of civic education through the study of world experiences in Ukraine. A major contribution to the study of American experience was the All-Ukrainian Scientific and Practical Conference “American Philosophy of Education through the Eyes of Ukrainian Researchers”, organized by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences with the financial support of the PAS,US Embassy in Ukraine on December 22, 2005. As part of the development of the use of American experience, the “Anthology of adapted experience or the reason of programs of educational exchanges”, which included articles by educators, alumni of exchange programs funded by the Government of the

²³ Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk 2017. Seriiia 2(351), pp. 8-14.

United States, which elaborated American experience and covered strategies for its adaptation to Ukrainian educational space²⁴.

One of the examples of successful adaptation of the American experience of civic education in non-formal education in Ukraine is the annual public action of secondary school students "I am a Citizen", which has been conducted throughout Ukraine for about ten years now by All-Ukrainian Association of Teachers of History and Civics "Nova Doba" (Lviv). The goal of the project is to create meaningful social projects by students who solve a certain actual problem of their local community. The names of some social projects on the public action of students in Ukraine "Citizen 2015" are very eloquent and indicate a great variety of social problems and the creative search for their solutions: "Causes of pollution of the village of Kornin by household waste", "Creation of a complex nature monument "Kurgan", "The Center for Intellectual and Legal Growth" Perspective", "The Name of the Hero lives in the street name", "I am a person, then I have the right", "With faith in the defenders! With Hope for the World! With Love to Ukraine! "Homeland begins with you"²⁵. Other programs contributing to the formation of citizenship are the following activities "Nova Doba": the creation of youth councils at local councils, the "Youth Act" project, SOS - Historical monument - a competition for projects aimed at preserving the historical heritage of the area²⁶.

It should be noted that, from Nova Doba organization's example, we can see the effective use of American experience in civic education in OST activities of students, adaptation to Ukrainian conditions and the development of their unique programs on civic education, in particular tolerance and critical thinking, events "Democracy in Action", "Deliberation in Democracy", "I am a Citizen".

²⁴ Ischenko Y. *Philosofsky analiz pytan adaptatsiyi zakordonnoho osvityansko-ho dosvidu // Antolohiya adaptovanoho dosvidu abo dlya choho isnyuyt program osvitynikh obminiv*. Rivne 2004, pp. 9-14.

²⁵ Nova Doba, <http://www.novadoba.org.ua> [access: 11.2017].

²⁶ Nova Doba, <http://www.novadoba.org.ua> [access: 11.2017].

The civic orientation of the educational process makes it possible to really influence the acquisition of the competencies of students necessary for life in class and outside school, facilitates life in society and promotes identification of their inclinations, talents, manifestation of conscious civic activity and position. For the effective implementation of the concept of civic education in the non-formal sector and for the improvement of the process of civic education, it is necessary to: democratize the afterschool educational space; training and increasing the professional qualifications of teachers of afterschool educational institutions regarding civic education. The Guardian of Democracy report provides guidance to schools and educators, including those that may apply to Ukrainian institutions: to revitalize civil education by discussing events; use successful practices; encourage students to participate in school and out-of-school community events and programs²⁷.

Summarizing the above, it should be noted that civic education is one of the priority areas of education in the United States and in Ukraine. It has long historical roots and its significance is due to the fact that the out-of-school programs for education for democratic citizenship, organized activities and activities in out-of-school establishments are an effective means of building the abilities and competences necessary for community living. After all, such practical activity of youth is more flexible, implemented in the local community and is of interest to young people. Thus, civic education in after-school education in the United States is considered and justified as a systematic object in its substantive and procedural aspects, which aims to form national, universal human values, social activity, competencies required by the person in the 21st century. Among them – the integration of knowledge, skills and values in action; the ability of critical thinking, the skills of “collective action”: the skills of achieving a compromise and mutual respect; solving public issue

²⁷ Gould J., *Guardians of Democracy: The Civic Mission of Schools* / J. Gould // Philadelphia: Lenore Annerberg Institute of Civics of the Annenberg Public Policy Center, Campaign for the Civic Mission of Schools. Philadelphia 2011, p. 159

involving different parties; orientation in political systems and processes.

Consequently, modern pedagogical forms of civic education contribute to the development of social competences and active participation in social life, develop the skills of critical thinking, discussion, cooperation, negotiation, decision-making, interaction, competencies necessary for life, facilitates life in society and contributes to revealing their inclinations, talents, and conscious civic activity and position.

Throughout the OST history in America, the theme of civic education was a red thread, and today OST programs around the world could be of use in this regard. So, given the schools workload, OST establishments can more actively implement elements of civic education in their programs and educate citizens also by OST teachers' own example. Therefore, we consider it expedient to carry out further theoretical and methodological development of the issue of civic education as prospective direction of after-school education.

Bibliography

- The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement / A Crucible Moment: College Learning and Democracy's Future // Association of American Colleges and Universities. Washington D. C., 2012, p. 98.
- Gould J. Guardians of Democracy: The Civic Mission of Schools / J. Gould // Philadelphia: Lenore Annerberg Institute of Civics of the Annenberg Public Policy Center, Campaign for the Civic Mission of Schools. – Philadelphia, 2011, p. 159.
- Advancing Civic Learning and Engagement in Democracy: A Road Map and Call to Action / U.S. Department of Education, Office of the Under Secretary, Office of Postsecondary Education. Washington D. C., 2012, p. 40.
- Popadyuk K. Specificity of the adaptation of the American information in the sphere of civic education and upbringing/ K. Popadyuk // Actual problems of civic education and upbringing: Ukrainian and foreign experiences: materials of the I scientific and practical conference, 19 June 2013. / National. Univ. „Ostrozka Akademia”, non-governmental organization „Center for Democratic Leadership”; [Відп. Ed. O. S. Batishcheva]. Ostrog, 2013, p. 234.

- Popadyuk K. The formation of the civic education in Ukraine. A glance at the problem / K. Popadyuk; N.Vyatkina // Implementation of western experiences in school system of Ukraine. K.: Abris, 2002, p. 184.
- Bauer O. The Question of Nationalities and Social Democracy / O. Bauer // University of Minnesota Press. – Minneapolis-London, 2000, p. 489.
- The Mikva Model, <http://www.mikvachallenge.org> [access: 09.2016].
- National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), <http://www.socialstudies.org/about> [access: 09.2016].
- Duncan A., O'Connor S. Civics Education, from <http://www.thedailybeast.com/articles/2011/07/01/icivics-sandra-day-o-connor-and-arne-duncan-on-civics-education-online.html> [access: 09.2016].
- Ponomarenko L. Mental'nist yaderni tsinnosti ta philosophia osvity v Ukrayini s SshA / L. Ponomarenko // Amerykanska philosophia osvity ochyma ukrayinskykh doslidnykiv / Materialy Vseukrayinskoyi naukovo-practychnoyi konferentsiyi 22 hrudnya 2005. Poltava: POIPPO, 2005, pp. 142–148.
- Sukhina B., Shaparenko O. Pro dosvid SShA u horomadyanskomu vykhovanni / B. Sukhina, O. Shaparenko // Amerykanska philosophia osvity ochyma ukrayinskykh doslidnykiv / Materialy Vseukrayinskoyi naukovo-practychnoyi konferentsiyi 22 hrudnya 2005. Poltava: POIPPO, 2005, pp. 187–193.
- Ischenko Y. Filosofsky analiz pytan adaptatsiyi zakordonnoho osvityanskoho dosvidu // Antolohiya adaptovanoho dosvidu abo dlya choho isnuyut program osvity obminiv. Rivne, 2004, pp. 9–14.
- Megyery K. History of the Service-Learning It Requirement in Maryland. University of Nebraska Omaha, 1997, p. 5.
- The Nation's Report Card / History, Geography, and Civics at Grade. 2015, https://nces.ed.gov/whatsnew/commissioner/remarks2015/04_29_2015.asp [access: 09.2016].
- The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), <https://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard> [access: 09.2016].
- Yehorova O. Hromadyanske vykhovannya yak spetsialnyi napryam pozashkilnoyi osvity // Pedahohichni nauky Shidnoyevropeiskoho natsionalnoho universytetu imeni Lesi Ukrayinky. zb. nauk. st. Lutsk, 2017. Seriya 2(351), pp. 8–14.
- The Network For Teaching Entrepreneurship, <https://www.nfte.com> [access: 09.2016].
- Public Achievement project, <http://www.augsburg.edu/sabo/what-we-do/publicachievement> [access: 09.2016].
- ICivics, <https://www.icivics.org/our-story> [access: 09.2016].
- Teaching History, <http://teachinghistory.org/digital-classroom/tech-for-teachers/25813> [access: 01.2017].
- Batishcheva S. Povedinkovi aspekty ta rozbizhnosti u tsinnostyakh: analiz stanu hromadyanskoyi svidomosti u Ukrayinskoyi molodi. <http://eprints.ua.edu.ua/2368> [access: 01.2017].

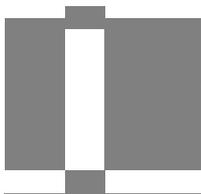
Nova Doba, <http://www.novadoba.org.ua> [access: 11.2017].

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), <https://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard> [access: 9.01.2017].

Constitution Day, <http://www2.ed.gov/policy/fund/guid/constitutionday.html> [access: 01.2017].



REPORT



JUSTYNA SOCHA

University of Łódź

Report on the 7th *Yes! Meeting* – Scientific Conference (*Non*)-*directively*, Poznań, 17th–18th November 2017

Yes! Meetings are a cycle of international scientific conferences organised by the Na Tak [Yes!] Association and Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań. On 17th–18th November 2017, the 7th meeting entitled (*Non*)-*directively* took place. This conference was entirely devoted to the subjectivity of persons with intellectual disability. Its recipients were therapists, teachers, students of fields related to special pedagogy, and parents of intellectually disabled persons. The main topic of the meeting consisted of reflections on the possibility of conducting a non-directive therapy and the meaningfulness of division into directiveness and non-directiveness. We can state with full responsibility that organisers and lecturers managed to achieve their goal, i.e., to implement the ‘theory meets practice’ assumption.

The first day of the conference was divided into two sessions of lectures and a discussion panel *Non-evaluative remarks* hosted by Kamil Łodziński. The participants were greeted warmly by Halina Grzmisławska-Słowińska (Yes! Association), Full Professor Agnieszka Cybał-Michalska, PhD (Adam Mickiewicz University) and Jarosław Urbański (Harpo).

On the first day, we met practical experts who work in the non-directive stream. The first speech was delivered by Maria Dąbrowska-Jędrał, whose motto is: ‘to live easier with autism.’ Apart from conducting a therapy, Maria is the parent of an autistic person. She gave an incredibly interesting presentation of objections to non-directiveness in therapy and explained the actual purpose of non-directiveness. The lecturer said what

this stream of research means to her. She thinks that non-directiveness is adaptation to another person and going hand in hand with him/her. According to Maria's theory, when we let our pupils be themselves, they allow us to do much more. In order to confirm these words, she presented interesting videos showing the progress of a therapy with an autistic person. The punch line of this speech was to mix directiveness with non-directiveness in the therapy of disabled persons.

Another speech was delivered by Beata Waclawowicz. She brought up the subject of the challenge of non-directiveness, i.e., difficulties connected with withdrawal from the delivery of ready strategies to pupils, which is an easier solution. She talked how important it is to learn to wait and to focus on the resources rather than deficiencies of the person with whom we work. She suggested that we should avoid giving instructions and minimise the role of the therapist/teacher in the session. If the patient misunderstands any principle, we should not talk to him/her about this and allow him/her to reach this conclusion by himself/herself. In such case, he/she will understand the sense of doing this and training in 100%. Although Beata works in a non-directive manner, which he also presented on videos, she strongly approves of setting limits during a therapy. Her speech was followed by a short discussion between the first and the second lecturer.

During the break between lectures, participants had an opportunity to visit an exhibition of therapeutic equipment and become familiar with materials of various publishing houses. The third speech was delivered by Katarzyna Ślęczek, who talked about the use of video recordings as an effective supervision tool for therapists working with persons with various kinds of disability. The primary goal of the lecturer was to show how important it is 'to meet during a meeting,' which means observation and the analysis of one's own work and the effects of the therapy. This is achievable thanks to the feedback that occurs when we watch videos together. Such an experience may also be very useful for a supervisor in thinking about a change in such things as efforts and approach to therapy. During her presentation, the lecturer also talked about the most important conceptions related to the theory of learning, the psychology of awareness, and the theory of self-confrontation, which is influenced by the self-image during therapy. Skills necessary to carry out a supervision in a proper and beneficial manner were covered in more detail.

The subsequent lecture was conducted by Wojciech Kozłowski, a motor physiotherapist who works with disabled children. He clarified what

physiotherapy actually means to him: repairing or supporting the development process? The lecturer strongly supports the second definition; he tries to play with his patients so that they could laugh as much as possible. He agrees with the saying associated with laughter therapy: 'You will never cry out the tears that you will laugh out.' In his speech, he defined also the strength of exercises that consist of internal and external motivation and active and passive stimulation. Kozłowski places emphasis on being responsive in therapy, i.e., reacting to the child's initiatives. Moreover, he tries to be an authority without being authoritarian and thinks that the sense of security is the most important thing for the child during the support of its motor development and not only. The lecturer finished his speech with an interesting statement: 'A child does not see methods. It sees a human being; and even if it cannot see physically, it certainly feels.'

After the finished lecture, Wojciech Kozłowski and the preceding speaker Katarzyna Ślęczek conducted a discussion on speeches delivered by them. Then the participants in the Conference were invited to a lunch break, after which the aforementioned discussion panel *Non-evaluative remarks* took place. Acting as master of ceremony, Kamil Łodziński organised a discussion between previous speakers and other participants.

The lecture closing the first day of the 7th Yes! Meeting was conducted by Elżbieta Olszak on the subject of the limits of using the non-directive approach. The lecturer presented arguments for the inclusion of assertiveness in therapies of intellectually disabled persons conducted in the non-directive stream. She drew the audience's attention to a significant difference between aggressive dominance and firmness that is necessary in relations between the educator and the pupil. In this context, she pointed out the process of realisation that is necessary in the upbringing and development of each human being. A child is unaware of rules of ethics, so parents and guardians become its guides: they exercise control and impose limits, requirements and obligations. At the same time, they should give freedom and warmth to it and be open to its needs. The educator's task is to teach the pupil how to live in accordance with social ethics by giving minimum necessary help. Olszak also referred to the ideas of autonomy that gives the full freedom of decision-making to the human being. She stressed that the limit of autonomy is also necessary in the non-directive stream because a child does not realise that it has to brush teeth, do the homework or pay for goods taken away from a shop. The educators' task is to serve as role models for their pupils.

The lecture by Elzbieta Olszak was followed by the third discussion between lecturers and participants. Then Natalia Marciniak-Madejska summarised and concluded the first day of the conference.

The second day of the meeting was held in the traditional form of a workshop divided into two blocks. Each participant in the Conference could choose two out of nine available workshops thematically related with working with disabled persons. The workshop was conducted by practical experts working in the non-directive stream. Most of them were the lecturers whom we had heard on the previous day. The workshop concerned, among others, working with difficult behaviours in the non-directive approach, communication by touch between the therapist and the child, the attitudes that inspire children's development and spontaneous games that deepen relations between therapists and children and young people with an autism spectrum. Some specialists conducting workshops familiarised participants with interactive aspects of therapy. These were mobile applications supporting SelfFind, which were aimed at familiarising a person with intellectual disability and introducing AAC to beginners through Interactive Learning.

It is worth noticing that the program of the Conference was constructed in such a way that a broad circle of recipients, i.e., experts and volunteers working with disabled persons as well as their families could obtain much interesting information and reflections connected with the non-directive stream and its use in therapy. Organisers managed to provoke a discussion on the appropriateness of contrasting non-directive methods with directive methods. Speakers fabulously brought up a large number of very significant issues concerning therapies in the theoretical and empirical sense. They presented many practical solutions, using examples from their own experience captured on videos. Another favourable aspect of the conference were auxiliary exhibitions of technologies supporting communication from all parts of Europe. *(Non-)directively* is the seventh conference held as a part of Yes! Meetings. Thus, we can say with full responsibility that these conferences have become a permanent part of the calendar of international meetings bringing up the subject of working with disabled persons.



AGNIESZKA NYMŚ-GÓRNA

Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań

Report on the Polish Conference *Creating Intimacy.* *Daily challenges* (Wrocław, 4 December 2017)

The Polish Academic Conference *Creating Intimacy. Daily Challenges.* was held on 4 December 2017 in Wrocław. The organisers of the event were the Sociology Institute of the University of Wrocław, the Department of the Sociology of Gender and Family and the Polish Sociological Association. It was already the fourth edition of the conference.

The first speech was given by Paweł Czajkowski, PhD. He substituted for Professor Rafał Drozdowski, who, unfortunately, could not attend the conference for health reasons. He spoke about the role of new technologies and market trends relevant to the perception of contemporary intimacy. He was followed by Professor Dorota Majka-Rostek of the University of Wrocław. She deliberated on whether intimacy is nowadays private or public. She quoted the concepts of such classics as: A. Giddens, Z. Bauman and U. Beck. The last speech was given by Ewa Banaszak, PhD, who discussed the assumptions and some of the results of her research. She said that embodiment and intimacy are not easy research areas. She also mentioned that in the family, bodily presence affects the quality of bonds. The above three speeches opened the conference.

The first part was moderated by Paweł Czajkowski, PhD. Robert Florkowski, PhD spoke about intimacy in BDSM. He mentioned that those who practise BDSM pay more attention to the needs of the partner and are more emphatic. He also discussed the role of safe words in this kind of relationship. He shared with the audience his experiences as psychothera-

pist. He was followed by Paulina Stępień, MA, whose speech proved to be very controversial. She discussed intimate relationship with a plastic doll imitating a real woman, a popular phenomenon in Japan and the USA. She emphasised the fact that it concerns not only lonely persons. In this context, she also presented the concept of intimate relationships according to L. Jamieson. The next speaker was Grzegorz Wiktorowski, MA, who discussed at length the transformation of intimacy in American Fundamentalist and Evangelical Protestantism. The last speech in the session was given by Agnieszka Sobik, MA, who presented the results of her own research concerning the important topic of the attitude to intimacy of homosexual persons.

After the coffee break, the second part was moderated by Robert Florkowski, PhD. In this part, presentations were given by: Monika Mucha, MA, Sebastian Surendra, MA and Joanna Jankowska, MA. They spoke about the perception of intimacy and sharing intimacy in cyberspace, and more specifically in various social networks (mainly Facebook, Instagram and Twitter) and reality shows (e.g. Big Brother, Warsaw Shore, Dating Naked, Naked Attraction, Undressed). Next, Julita Czernecka, PhD presented the results of surveys conducted among users of the Sympatia.pl dating portal. She emphasised the fact that real feelings may be born in virtual reality.

The third part of the conference, concerning intimacy in the family, was moderated by Professor Dorota Majka-Rostek. Agnieszka Nymś-Górna, MA, introduced the audience to a different perception of intimacy in the context of the family. Her line of thought was continued by Ewa Malinowska, PhD, who spoke about the intimate relationship between grandmother and granddaughter. The social context of the contemporary phenomenon of voluntary childlessness was presented by Emilia Garncarek. Andrzej Perzanowski, PhD spoke about close family relationships and intimacy in psychiatry. He presented examples from the Psychiatric Hospital in Choroszcz (near Białystok). The session was closed by Krystyna Dzwonkowska-Godula, PhD, who presented the intimacy of women in delivery. She also mentioned the role of the Childbirth with Dignity Foundation.

More speeches were given in the fourth session, moderated by Ewa Banaszak, PhD. Mariola Bieńko, PhD spoke about the intimacy in young adult couples, Aleksandra Drabina-Różewicz, MA and Agata Krasowska, PhD presented the intimacy of the young precariat class, Agata Rejowska-Pasek, MA spoke about humanist wedding vows, Jolanty Klimczak,

PhD discussed the intimacy created in every home and Klaudia Renusch, MA presented her analyses based on Sławomir Mrożek's Journals.

The conference passed in a very pleasant atmosphere. It became a platform for exchange of opinion and development. It is worth noting that the multiple perspectives offered during the conference presented the current status of research and theory in this particular field and inspired further academic explorations.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.21.18>

Published on the basis of an authorised copy

Projekt okładki: Izabella Grzesiak

Redaktor techniczny: Dorota Borowiak

Łamanie komputerowe: Eugeniusz Strykowski

WYDAWNICTWO NAUKOWE UNIWERSYTETU IM. ADAMA MICKIEWICZA W POZNANIU
61-701 POZNAŃ, UL. A. FREDRY 10
www.press.amu.edu.pl

Sekretariat: tel. 61 829 46 46, faks 61 829 46 47, e-mail: wyd nauk@amu.edu.pl

Dział Promocji i Sprzedaży: tel. 61 829 46 40, e-mail: press@amu.edu.pl

Ark. wyd. 17,00. Ark. druk. 19,625.

DRUK I OPRAWA: VOLUMINA.PL DANIEL KRZANOWSKI, SZCZECIN, UL. KS. WITOLDA 7-9