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IWONA CHRZANOWSKA



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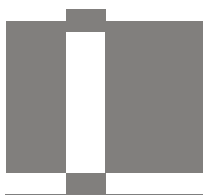
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Contents

Introduction	7
ARTICLES	
BEATA JACHIMCZAK Education for Peace in Diversified Groups: Opportunities and Threats	13
SEBASTIAN MRÓZEK Categories and activities in the area of inclusion of people with disabilities found within commune strategies – selected examples based on the communes of the counties of Żywiec and Cieszyn districts	29
BEATA SKOTNICKA Diversity in education and the phenomenon of subtle marginalisation and infrahumanisation	53
JOANNA GODAWA The child-nature-time relationship-New challenges for special edu- cation in the 21 st century – study report	83
BOGUSŁAW ŚLIWERSKI The reflection paedagogy of Vasyl Sukhomlynsky and Janusz KorczaK	99
JACEK KULBAKA Special education in Poland (until 1989) – historical perspective	117

SABINA PAWLIK	
Towards a radical life. Social and political threads of Helen Keller's activities	151
IWONA WENDREŃSKA	
Special School as One of the Implementers of Education for Sustainable Development of Persons with Moderate and Severe Intellectual Disability, as well as Multiple Disability	163
ANNA BORZĘCKA	
Inclusive Special School Teachers' Self-Assessment of their Diagnostic and Therapeutic Knowledge and Skills	181
AGATA TRĘBACZ	
Knowledge of the Poznan region citizens about speech therapy profession	197
MATEUSZ SZUREK	
An overview of tools useful in the speech diagnosis of a child with intellectual disability	223
RENATA GLIWA	
Verbal fluency in categories of common and proper names in the phase of mild cognitive impairment in the course of Parkinson's disease	249
KRYSTIAN MANICKI	
The dynamics of the language development of twins with perinatal difficulties from a neurologopedic perspective	273
IDIT PERELMUTER	
The National Days in the Bilingual School	299
JOANNA BUŁAWA-HALASZ	
Requirements for the teacher-therapist of persons with autism spectrum disorder – challenges for the new specialisation	335
AGNIESZKA JĘDRZEJOWSKA	
Child with Down Syndrome in a peer group	351
ARKADIUSZ GUT, MAŁGORZATA MOSZYŃSKA, NATALIA RESZUTA	
Who Is a Creative Person? Conceptualisation of creativity by people with autism spectrum disorder	373

KATARZYNA PARYS, SŁAWOMIR OLSZEWSKI

Demanding disability - an analysis of opportunities and threats related to the functioning of people with mild intellectual disabilities.

Part 2 389

EWA GAWLIK

Homes integrated as an institution (total) in the support system for adults with deep intellectual disability - introduction to consideration

403

IRENA RAMIK-MAŻEWSKA

Employer's Assistant - new value in employing persons with disabilities

417



Introduction

Understanding the contemporary world and the relations within it even in the context of one scientific discipline, e. g. pedagogy, or its sub-discipline of special pedagogy (special education), requires their recognition from different perspectives. Nowadays, more and more often considerations concerning pedagogy focus on the issue of inclusion, both in the educational dimension as well as in the wider social one. With a great deal of simplification, it may be considered that the perspective of inclusion is translated into the social dimension of the functioning of every person (not only with the experience of disability), at every stage of his or her development.

It can be considered that – *the perspective of contemporary trends – inclusion – and “past” educational solutions* – is one of the dimensions of the deliberations conducted in this publication. It includes all the texts that refer to inclusive education (e. g.: Beata Jachimczak, Sebastian Mrózek), but also those that focus on solutions, by some perceived as past (hence the earlier quotation marks) concerning contemporary education, that is – the existence and functioning of special education (e. g.: Iwona Wedreńska). The past of separative education is still an important area of reflection and dispute among researchers and practitioners. It appears as an important subject of discussion in the context of seeking not so much the best solutions related to the organization of education, or its “easier” financing, but the search for the best educational solutions for each participant in the educational process. Solutions which should be based on the

recognition of increasingly diverse needs not only related to the implementation of educational and school tasks, but also to broadly understood development, use of potentials and opportunities, which can only be ensured by the existence of a range of solutions, including organizational solutions concerning education. It is also worth stressing that the authors, whose texts are included in this volume, point to the important role of special educational institutions, emphasizing, among other things, their importance for the sustainable development of the pupils.

The second view, the second perspective refers to the *search for foundations for contemporary recognition of educational issues, in the historical conditions* of the development of special education (Jacek Kulbaka), but also the reflective pedagogy of Suchomliński or Korczak (Bogusław Śliwerski), whose experiences may and should serve as a base for the contemporary perspective of upbringing.

A third view is the perspective of the *specificity of the functioning of people* whose one of the characteristics is, for example, intellectual disability, Down's syndrome, autism spectrum disorders, but also speech disorders concerning both children and young people and adults (e.g.: Katarzyna Parys, Sławomir Olszewski, Agnieszka Jędrzejowska, Irena Ramik-Marzewska) and *teachers, specialists working with them* (e.g.: Anna Borzęcka, Agata Trębacz, Joanna Buława-Halasz). Educational, but also more broadly social functioning is still an interesting area of research, the results of which provide knowledge necessary for proper planning of all interactions, designing didactic-educational and therapeutic work, supporting human development at every stage. This area is invariably connected with logical considerations concerning the competence of teachers and specialists. The demands posed by changing social and educational realities. Sometimes it is a need to make people aware of the existence of certain professions, sometimes a greater specialization within them. All of this is to allow for effective, comprehensive, fully professional support of a person in their development, overcoming difficulties, dealing with educational, professional and social situations in the best possible way.

While encouraging you to read this publication, I hope that it will inspire you to do your own research and share the results with us.

Iwona Chrzanowska
Volume Editor



ARTICLES



BEATA JACHIMCZAK

Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań

Education for Peace in Diversified Groups: Opportunities and Threats

ABSTRACT: Beata Jachimczak, *Education for Peace in Diversified Groups: Opportunities and Threats*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, no. 27, Poznań 2019. Pp. 13–27. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. e-ISSN 2658-283X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2019.27.01>

The text addresses the problem of social changes related to the interpenetration of people with different cultures, religions, skills or nationalities in a common space, which also means that education is becoming more and more diverse in educational institutions. The transition from homogeneous groups to diverse groups in education has been and continues to be difficult due to many social, organizational and financial barriers. The analysis presented here relate to education for peace as a significant focus on a school (group) open to any individual difference as a resource for understanding oneself and the Other.

KEY WORDS: diverse groups, inclusive education, education for peace

Social changes related to the presence of persons of different cultures, religions, abilities or nationalities in the common space have also resulted in increased diversity in educational facilities. As noted by Tomasz Szkudlarek, “the notion of diversity has become one of the basic categories in social sciences in the final decades of the 20th century, which was an element of a vision of collapse of the modernist social order. It was said about post-modernism that it was a culture for “celebrating diversity”. At that time, it was a liber-

ating concept, opening social space onto thinking in the categories of equality of various forms of individual and social life" (2015, p. 54). Such thinking about diversity has resulted in emancipation movements in the environment of people hitherto isolated or even excluded and has contributed to their fuller participation in the open environment (also the school environment). Beginnings of thinking about joint education appeared in parallel in several countries. In Europe, it is assumed that this was the moment of publication of Mary Warnock's report in 1978 (Fairbairn, Fairbairn, 2000), which performed advisory functions with respect to the integration of children with special educational needs. In the United States, movement for the sake of inclusive education was initiated more or less at the same time, according to Margaret A. Winzer (Podgórska-Jachnik, 2010, p. 47). In Poland, the idea of education for all started to be implemented in the 1990s via introduction of integrated education to schools and kindergartens, as well as inclusive education (by allowing the parents to choose the educational facility, irrespective of the diagnosed disability of the child). The shift from homogeneous groups to diversified groups in education has been difficult due to numerous social, organisational and financial barriers. However, the "post-modernist redefinition of difference, which was expressed in debates about multiculturalism, disability, political and religious tolerance, sexuality or - eventually - individuality and about uniqueness of every life and rights to determine individual and group identity" (Szkudlarek, 2015, p. 54) has made the inclusive discourse dominant in the pedagogical practice and theory in the recent years.

Many authors tackle the issue of definition of inclusive education in reference to various ranges of inter-dependence, permeation or supplementation of special and general education (e.g. Booth, Ainscow, 2002, Szumski, 2010, Gajdzica, 2018). The second current of analyses is a broad area of multicultural or inter-cultural education (Lewowicki, 2000, Grzybowski, 2018 et. al.), which focuses on another factor diversifying people and searches for optimum practical solutions for joint existence in the school realm and outside of it.

Education for all, based on recognition and understanding of diversified groups as a natural environment for development of man and building of a social community, should rely on the intersection of such various areas. Hence, remaining on the margin of multicultural or inter-cultural education, pedagogy of religion, rehabilitation, social pedagogy, pedagogy of learning difficulties, etc., yet at the same time being a special education teacher and an early education teacher, the author of this paper refers to the problem of a diversified group being aware that its diagnosis and designing educational activities is a “multi-specialisation task”. However, this is the nature of school classes (partially today and definitely in the future), where the teacher is facing diversity of problems, needs, expectations in an individual and collective dimension. In spite of dedicated sub-disciplines of pedagogy which thoroughly tackle the educational theory and practice in the selected scope, it is necessary to try to analyse the comprehensive image of a diversified group in the context of space for education without violence (physical, psychical, economic, symbolic, structural, etc.) for Everyone.

The concept of diversified groups (in the school context) has not been clearly defined, yet it has been featured in the publications of the author of this paper (2008, 2015) and of Iwona Chrzanowska (2015) for a number of years. Both these authors, with a background in special education, understand such diversification in broader terms than just having fully able and disabled pupils in one school class. Following the system changes pertaining to the transition from segregated education to inclusive education, the author of this paper is the advocate of a broad understanding of inclusion in reference to types of school culture, discussed by Maria Czerepaniak-Walczak (2018). Maria Czerepaniak-Walczak distinguishes three types of school culture:

- “elitist/ exclusive: for the beautiful, healthy and rich i.e. those who are like us;
- mass/ open/ **inclusive**: for the Others, including the unknown, strangers, as well as the neglected, the unhealthy and the poor;

- closed/ occlusive: for those who – at their own choice or as a result of standards independent from them – experience isolation in a social circle which is characterised by values and patterns specific for this circle. Members of such circles do not have the possibility of leaving the enclosure” (Czerepaniak-Walczak, 2018, p. 16).

In the context of undertaken analyses pertaining to the education for peace mentioned in the title of the paper, focus on a school (group) open to any individual diversity as a resource for understanding oneself and Others is of crucial importance. In such approach, the school should be a place of possible change where, according to Tomasz Szkudlarek, “educational activities, motivated not only by the actual status, but oriented at the future and interested in change, are possible; thus, it (the activity) should be justified by the concepts that enable such change. Henry Giroux postulated... taking a look at the school not only in the context of cultures reproduced and de-legalised by it, but also as an institution of active cultural production, where hitherto non-existent meanings, different from the current ones, appear” (Szkudlarek, 2015, p. 65).

A school environment, as Tomasz Szkudlarek notes (2015, p. 65), in Giroux’s concept should be a place of “cultural mutations, creative re-definitions of the world, whereas meanings developed within its range should be verified via practical activities solving actual social problems – and these very problems should form a basis for the curriculum”. The process of education pursued in this manner, in particular in diversified groups, could create natural conditions for reflexive induction and self-induction of young people to positive interdependence which David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson (2005, p. 283) considered the indispensable component of consensual peace, jointly worked out by a group.

Education for peace has been an area of interest of pedagogy for a number of years. As noted by Joanna Leek (2014, p. 248) “the term *peace pedagogy* was used for the first time by Pope Paul IV in 1969; in the next years, the term became popular thanks to UNESCO”. In Poland, this problem was tackled by, among others, Bogdan Su-

chodolski, Irena Wojnar and Eugenia A. Wesółowska (Leek, 2014). In reference to the UNICEF documents, Joanna Leek (p. 249) notes that “education for peace refers to the process of promoting knowledge, skills, stances and values that are necessary to effect changes in behaviour which gives children, youth and adults the possibility of preventing conflicts and violence, solving conflicts peacefully and fostering convenient conditions for peace on the inter-personal, personal and international area, as well as within individual states”. The stances above, defined as the assumptions of education for peace, should be present in daily experiences of pupils who, in conflict situations, independently, or with the support of others, strive to develop relations agreed by all parties, based on respect, acceptance, understanding and free from violence.

When thinking about diversified groups in the context of education for peace, it is necessary to focus not so much on the learning outcomes reflected by school grades, results of external examinations of pupils (which translate to the designed and pursued paths of professional careers and further life plans of young people), but on the effects of building soft skills in the area of self-understanding and understanding others, as well as comprehending mechanisms of building inter-dependence and joint liability for own functioning and the functioning of the group.

In their analyses, David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson (2005) distinguished two types of peace: “imposed peace” and “consensual peace”. By referring these two concepts to the school situation, one can notice threats and opportunities for the functioning of diversified groups, in which more conflict situations are bound to appear naturally, frequently resulting from misunderstanding, unfamiliarity with or absence of inter-personal competence of its members or low level of such competence. Threats resulting from “imposed peace” should be searched for in insufficient preparation of teachers (as well as parents) in the area of educational competence, which may be manifested in the fact that adults indicate principles of “peaceful” functioning in a group or concede that the “winner” (often physically, intellectually stronger or having advantage in

numbers) imposes his/ her domination and indicates privileges and dependences created in a group. Such mode of conduct in a school class, according to Johnson and Johnson (2015), leads to emergence of negative dependence, which will not be conducive to individual development of every member of the group and will not be effective in induction to joint participation, shared liability respecting the diversity of every person.

On the other hand, the author of this paper notices opportunities in the possibility of using the potential of all educational entities involved in education based on diversity, permeation of cultures, religions, development possibilities and limitations of man. However, bringing together different people does not guarantee solving conflicts which may arise among them. In order to use the situation of diversity for pro-development and educational purposes, it is necessary, apart from contacts, to create a space for building inter-human relations.

One of the conditions for building correct relations is support in the teaching of soft competence, both in adults and children. Such competence "refers to personal skills, character traits, the kind of people that we are and the manner in which we perceive the environment and the mode in which we act. ... the way in which we handle tasks set before us and the way in which we solve problems that appear in our lives. Soft competence is related to psyche and social skills. It focuses on man's behaviour and man's stances in various situations" (Konieczna-Kucharska, 2015, pp. 231–232). High level of such competence in teachers and students is necessary to create conditions in a school class that would be conducive to building positive relations in a group.

David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson (2005, p. 285) include the following among the above-mentioned conditions:

- creation of situations aimed at cooperation assuming joint purposes (and reduction of rivalry);
- creation of situations conducive for personal and individual talks based on an honest exchange of thoughts;
- acknowledgement of equal status of every group member;

- provision of support on the part of authorities for building contacts and relations inside the group.

The interpersonal contacts built in this manner may contribute to the reduction of prejudice and create long-term positive relations in school communities and may be transferred further, to out-of-school situations. Eventually, they may prepare young people for understanding themselves and others and make them ready for non-violent solving of new conflict situations. In line with the author's own educational practice¹, creation of space for getting to know oneself and for building relations among members of one team, as well as among cooperating class teams, offered measurable effects with respect to reduction of violence-related behaviour in the environment of an integration school. Commencement of activities in this respect required finding time in the teaching-learning process for conscious and reflectively planned project tasks for pupils in a given class, as well as for "partner" classes. The project of partner classes assumed a three-year cooperation between the first grade class starting education in a primary school and the fourth grade, which ended the cycle of early-school education with the same teacher. Joint educational projects, as well as joint out-of-school classes allowed for building relations based on talks, learning and understanding oneself, which fostered responsibility for the Other. In line with the conducted longitudinal studies², some of such relations established in a diversified group survived for a number of years and the acquired competence for solving difficult, conflict situations has already been used in adult life in the process of peer support (former school friends³) in his/ her new

¹ The author worked as a teacher in integration classes in a primary school between 1993 and 2005.

² The author conducts longitudinal studies focused on biographies of several selected pupils with respect to the planning of their education and life path (1998 - to date).

³ In this case, this is the persisting peer tutoring (often with the use of new media) between a fully-able girl and a boy with autism spectrum disorder (Asperger Syndrome diagnosis) who continues education at a university.

social environment. This is the long-term effect which results in openness to new situations and ability to find one's bearings in an acceptable and socially desired manner.

Confirmation of the above research experiences of the author is also found in the analyses of Przemysław Grzybowski and Grzegorz Idzikowski (2018, p. 69), who quote the words of a student from an integration school: "difficulties sometimes appear in communication. Fortunately, the more time we spend together, the better we understand each other. There are a lot of funny stories related to Otherness. They most often refer to misunderstanding each other... Otherness is not something that one should be afraid of. Otherness is unique. Apart from the fact that you can get to know new cultures, you can find real friendship". Teachers examined by these authors indicate difficulties too, but they also point out positive experiences of work in a diversified group, as far as relations inside the group are concerned. "Work in classes which include disabled students and students from other countries requires the teacher's great sensitivity with respect to the needs and possibilities of these students. Change in the place of residence, school, friends, new situations is very stressful for children. We are trying to minimise such stress for them and make them feel good and comfortable in our environment. Friends from the class, who are greatly involved in helping them find their bearings in a new situation, are a great support for such students. Such meetings are a wonderful lesson for everyone" (Grzybowski, Idzikowski, 2018, p. 108).

Thus, building relations seems to be one of the most important elements of work in a diversified group and requires both readiness and openness of teachers to create situations conducive to open (often difficult) dialogue and creation of a space for social integration. As indicated by David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson (2005), the more diversified a group (with respect to culture, ability, religion, etc.), the greater the need for conscious, planned and responsible building of a community based on acknowledgement and respect for individuality and distinctness of every man. Thus, for a diversified group to become an opportunity for education for peace

understood as a status of social relations characterised by cooperation, understanding and respect for distinctness of all parties, preparation of both present and future teachers to work with such groups is of crucial importance.

The report of the project “Teacher Education for Inclusion” (TE4I) implemented by the European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education clearly shows that education of teachers is the vital element of the system which translates to the functioning of future citizens, as well as initiates changes that are necessary for broader introduction of education of diversified groups (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2012, p. 7). The agency considers the following core values the most important in the work of an “inclusive” teacher related to the process of teaching/ learning:

1. valuing learner diversity: difference is considered a resource and an asset to education;
2. supporting all learners: teachers have high expectations for all learners’ achievements;
3. working with others: collaboration and teamwork are essential approaches for all teachers;
4. personal professional development: teaching is a learning activity; teachers take responsibility for their lifelong learning (p. 13).

Teachers trained in this manner should be ready to perform the teaching process based on multiple interactions of the child’s traits and the traits of the educational facility (Brzezińska, 2002). The school’s openness and readiness to look for areas for “interaction” of individual participants of the didactic and educational processes may provide an opportunity for education for peace, introducing respect for other people and handling conflict situations. It is necessary to foster such social situations in which every student, irrespective of his/ her individual needs, may effectively and fully perform various social roles, but not only. On the other hand, a school “closed” to diversity may condition emergence of difficult situations from the point of view of correct functioning of individual

students within a team, as well as among whole teams. The most frequent “sins” committed in educational facilities and related to low efficiency of work in a diversified group include: excessive focus on didactic activities in relation to the necessity of satisfying “ranking” expectations; neglecting the educational process; insufficient care for interpersonal relations in a group and at school; lack of respect for different values, needs and possibilities of students.

Work in a diversified group, as noted earlier, requires the teacher to acknowledge every child’s right to be educated among peers in a facility that was chosen by the child’s parents. Such acknowledgement means acceptance of “responsibility by adults for activities in four important areas of pedagogical work, which make it possible to help the student build positive relations with oneself and with others. They include:

- getting to know: observation of the child during classes and outside of classes; evaluation of learning outcomes in reference to the student’s starting point (internal); establishment of contacts with parents; in-depth analysis of documents pertaining to the child’s health; building understanding with other teachers for the sake of fostering an environment supporting the child’s school functioning;
- acceptance: permitting behaviour that results from the student’s development disorders and may be accepted by others; introduction of changes in work with the student with special educational needs instead of challenging values, bases and standards;
- acquisition: building authority by taking interest in the student; focus on positive features, behaviour and skills; supply of positive feedback in individual and group context;
- change: by supporting natural activity (every child has a strong side: sport, art talents, sense of humour, organisational skills...); avoiding control and enforcement: gradual withdrawal from control activities; partnership: joint responsibility (teacher in the role of a consultant and adviser, democratic establishment of objectives, tasks to be performed, consequences

of own decisions); individual and group contracts” (Chrzanowska, Jachimczak, 2015 p. 189).

The opportunity for building positive and long-term relations based on trust and positive dependence are cooperation-type activities which, when properly designed and implemented, may enhance positive interactions that are created in a group. David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson (2013, pp. 372-374) indicate three methods of work applied most frequently in a school class. The first of them is individual learning focused on the students who work independently and accomplish learning outcomes not related to objectives of other students. Another form distinguished by them is competitive learning when students work against one another, in order to accomplish a stipulated objective, which may be accomplished by one or a few of them. In competitive situations, students look for effects that are beneficial for them, but may be detrimental for all other members of the group. The last form indicated by these authors is cooperative learning. This is work in small groups relying on teamwork to maximise the effects of own work and to provide one another with reinforcement and support. As part of this form of work, students/ people look for objectives and strive for results which are beneficial both for them and for all other members of the group. However, for cooperation activities to be successful, they must be properly planned and implemented. Johnson and Johnson indicate five basic elements of every lesson that is focused on cooperation in small groups. The first and the most important element is, according to them, positive interdependence. It exists when members of the group notice and acknowledge that they are related in a manner that accomplishing individual success is possible only when everybody accomplishes it. The second important element of group learning is individual and group responsibility. The group has to be responsible for accomplishing its objectives, but also every member of the group has to be responsible and engaged, making own contribution to work. The third important element is “promotive interaction”, which may be explained as interactions that support activities undertaken by students. As part of these interactions,

members of the group share their resources, help one another, support one another, encourage one another to further work and praise one another's efforts and effects. In this respect, it is important to take care of the school support system (so that every student may receive assistance of somebody who is involved in help in learning), as well as the personal support system (every student may count on social and emotional support). The fourth necessary element is providing the students with interpersonal skills and ability to work in small groups such as, e. g., leadership, decision making, building trust, communication and conflict management. The fifth element of cooperative learning is "group processing" i.e. the ability to work in a group during the entire process, which consists of discussions pertaining to the modes of accomplishing the stipulated objectives, maintenance of positive, effective working relations, as well as conflict-free evaluation of actions of group members with respect to their utility or lack of utility and in relation to this, making decisions whether specific activities should be continued or changed.

Remodelling the school's work from individual work for the sake of cooperative work in diversified classes seems to be a justified assumption for building positive relations based on cognition, understanding and acceptance of oneself and others.

Recapitulation

Social diversity resulting from various causes, that has also reached schools as a realisation of premises of education for all in the main current of teaching (no divisions, segregation) on the one hand increased - with respect to quality and quantity - emergence of conflict situations in intra and inter-personal relations. On the other hand, it created a space for getting to know oneself and Others in difficult situations, as well as a space for building dialogue for the sake of education for peaceful co-existence of people who are diversified with respect to culture, religion, ethnic origin, ability, etc. However, in order to make use of this opportunity which appeared

together with opening of the school to Everybody, it is necessary to combine it, in a reflexive manner, with “education for peace, which is meant to praise kindness in stances and pro-social behaviour, support respect for human dignity, accept equality among people, promote activities undertaken jointly against injustice in own community and inter-human relations, liability of every human being for maintenance of peace” (Leek, 2014, pp. 255–256).

For the emergence of diversified groups to be a chance for enhancing positive relations and dependences of people not only in the educational context, but also as a long-term mode of building social relations, externalised belief about their rank and significance in the life of every man is necessary. However, skills in the area of support granted to every child and support granted to adult participants of educational process are also necessary. Thence, preparation of all employees of a pre-school/ school is necessary, as well as adult legal guardians of the child within the scope of: recognition of equal rights of everyone to satisfy their needs; basic knowledge about the causes of difficulties in socio-emotional functioning of people and effective measures undertaken in conflict situations. Bogdan Śliwerski (2015) accurately captured the tasks of modern pedagogy referring them to the situation of post-industrial revolution; nevertheless, these challenges are also related to the issue of positive use of inclusive education for the purpose of building a community ready for transmission of behaviour free of prejudice, violence and exclusion, which are tackled by the author of this paper. Śliwerski noted that we are currently facing the “challenge of building a *humanum* civilisation, in which we will help not only children and youth, but the world of adults or elderly solve their daily problems in real life with simultaneous understanding of senses occurring in the virtual world. For the first time pedagogy must become not only the forerunner of social changes and build or co-create the future, but it must also defend humanity in the conditions of increasingly de-humanising world. We cannot be passive and stand on the side of manipulators, look at toxic changes and even critically describe and interpret them; we have to start to in-

tervene, oppose what is pathological and destructive in order to reinforce the self-defence potential in next generations against the rapacity of the world that is hiding evil” (Śliwerski, 2015, p. 50).

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Categories and activities in the area of inclusion of people with disabilities found within commune strategies – selected examples based on the communes of the counties of Żywiec and Cieszyn districts

ABSTRACT: Sebastian Mrózek, *Categories and activities in the area of inclusion of people with disabilities found within commune strategies – selected examples based on the communes of the counties of Żywiec and Cieszyn districts*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, no. 27, Poznań 2019. Pp. 29–52. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. e-ISSN 2658-283X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2019.27.02>

The issue of strategies of activities aimed at people with disabilities living in the relevant communes is a topic rarely undertaken in discourse of special pedagogy. These issues are found among the other activities that local government entities are contemporary obligated to implement, and span solutions and activities in the area of inclusion for people with disabilities. It is hence important to know and overcome problems and barriers that hinder or block the right functioning of people with disabilities. Some of solutions and activities are contained in the two types of communal strategic documents, these are: *Commune Development Strategies* and *Strategies for solving social problems*.

The article consists of three parts. The first covers the characteristics of communal strategies and social policy towards people with disabilities. The second part presents the assumptions and results of research based on a qualitative analysis of strategic documents of 27 communes (about 3900 pages of documents) in terms of categories and activities regarding the inclusion of people with disabilities. The whole is summarised in the final conclusions. The aim of the study is preliminary

recognition of exemplary activities found in the strategies of communes from the counties of Żywiec and Cieszyn. Text notes the “good practices” and noteworthy solutions for inclusion applied by local government entities with respect to people with disabilities.

KEY WORDS: commune, Strategies of development, Strategies for solving social problems, people with disabilities, good practices in the area of inclusion

Introduction

When constructing a vision of the local development for the coming years, and designing activities characterised by actions against social problems (e. g. alcohol abuse, violence, unemployment, and among them sadly still-disabilities), local government entities utilise the strategic approach. Both local development as well as attempts at countering social problems are long-term processes, requiring ordered and regularly updated solutions.¹ In order to precisely describe development goals, a prior verification of the situation at hand and the analysis of (very diverse) needs and expectations of the individual social strata is required. Development in itself should describe progress, and the solutions implemented and identified with it should contribute to the improvement of life quality, in particular of groups threatened by exclusion and disfavoured ones.

The meaning of the term “strategy” has evolved over the years, changing its location within fields. In the original meaning, the word stems from the Greek word *strategom*. This was a concept related directly to military activity. It described the art that characterised generals fighting against enemy forces. As spontaneity in this regard did not yield the expected results, the decision was made to develop meticulous, thought-out action plans and relevant unit

¹ Conf. T. Wołowicz, D. Reško, *Strategia rozwoju gminy jako narzędzie zarządzania zmianą gospodarczą*, „Zeszyty Naukowe WSEI seria: EKONOMIA”, 5(2/2012), pp. 61–89.

manoeuvres. Contemporarily, the concept of *strategy* plays a powerful role in economy, marketing or social policy – hence in areas that fit very well in the activity of local government entities. Strategies are used to win ‘battles’ for something socially significant. One cannot commence developing a strategy if one is not certain what one wants to achieve as a result. Developing the strategy, one must not show indecision, obfuscate any lack of knowledge about actual objectives or, including grandiose words, hoping at the same time for other gains. When creating a responsible and valuable strategy, one needs to keep in mind all the time the recipients of the services to be provided. Their problems, needs, deficits and resources should constitute the core, around which the detailed action plan would be developed.²

According to business historian Alfred D. Chandler (1962), strategy is a “process of determination of the fundamental, long-term objectives of an organisation”. It includes the assumption of specific directions of action and the allocation of resources necessary to achieve those objectives.³ Economist and sociologist Herbert Simon (1976) in turn defines it as a “string of decisions describing behaviour in certain periods of time”.⁴

Strategy is hence understood as a kind of action plan of an organisation, related to its (contemporary and future) status in the environment, as well as a fairly stable and specific mode of functioning. It is a coherent concept approved by the organisation’s leadership, the implementation of which will ensure the achievement of basic and long-term goals within a specific chosen domain.⁵

² M. Grewiński, A. Karwacki, *Strategia – istota, reguły i wyzwania implementacji ze środowiska biznesu do polityki społecznej*, [in:] *Strategie w polityce społecznej*, ed. by M. Grewiński, A. Karwacki, publication co-financed from resources of the European Social Fund as part of the Human Capital Operational Programme, priority VII, activity 7.1.3., Mazowieckie Centrum Polityki Społecznej, Warszawa, 2011, pp. 16–18.

³ A.D. Chandler, *Strategy and Structure*, MIT Press, Cambridge, Mass 1962, p. 13.

⁴ H.A. Simon, *Działanie administracji*, PWN, Warszawa 1976, p. 163.

⁵ K. Oblój, M. Trybuchowski, *Zarządzanie strategiczne*, [in:] *Zarządzanie. Teoria i praktyka*, ed. by A.K. Koźmiński, W. Piotrowski, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Wydanie piąte zmienione, Warszawa 2006, p. 127.

The construction of a strategy is a task requiring particular balance in terms of development of activities for marginalised groups or those threatened by broadly understood exclusion – e. g. persons with disabilities. Local government entities, deciding to utilise the strategic approach, face a grand challenge burdened by huge responsibility.

The recent few decades are a time of intense social, cultural or economic changes in the area of normalisation of the environment of life and the equalisation of chances of persons with disabilities. Social policy began to play a significant role in terms of role in terms of issues of disabilities. The changes described above, however, are characterised by the fact that the influences they exhibit emerge quickly, sometimes even unexpectedly, and if they are not properly controlled – they disappear just as quickly or are marginalised. In light of such a changing state of affairs, particular significance is gained by the development of mechanisms serving the perspective activities towards persons with disabilities. These activities should guarantee durability and permanence of implemented solutions, and be fairly resistant to uncontrolled political or economic changes. The tools that initiate or implement diverse ideas in the social, educational or therapeutic sense are social policy strategies, constructed on the national or local level.⁶ Issues related to the implementation of social activities on the communal level are particularly interesting. Local government entities⁷ are obligated to plan and implement a range of public activities (also in the area of functioning of persons with disabilities), which are found in two types of commune strategy documents; these are: *Commune Development Strategies* i *Strategies for solving social problems*. These are documents

⁶ Z. Gajdzica, *Social policy of the local government unit as an initiator of good practices in activating the disabled*, [in:] „Osoba niepełnosprawna w środowisku lokalnym. Problemy Edukacji, Rehabilitacji i Socjalizacji Osób Niepełnosprawnych”, ed. by I. Fajfer-Kruczek, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, Katowice 2015, vol. 20, pp. 14–15.

⁷ Local government entities are authorities that are not direct representatives of the national government.

that should constitute a source of good practices and the basis for implementation of necessary changes.⁸

The present study is composed of three parts. The first attempts to characterise *Commune Development Strategies* and *Strategies for solving social problems*. The core of the study is the second part, encompassing the presentation of results of own research. This research seeks to find responses to questions about superordinate categories and activities within them, which in the context of inclusion of persons with disabilities are found within strategies. The entirety is summarised by closing conclusions.

The objective of the presented study is an attempt at a fragmentary, preliminary analysis of example activities towards persons with disabilities included in strategic documents of communes⁹ that make up two neighbouring counties: Żywiec (15 communes) and Cieszyn (12 communes). I am interested in the categories of the process of inclusion of this group that the mentioned activities are executed in, and the form they take.

Commune strategies – properties and significance in the perspective of inclusion of persons with disabilities

In relation to the tendency of decentralisation of government power¹⁰ entities that are in contemporary democratic states engaged in the execution of public tasks include, among others, local

⁸ Conf. Z. Gajdzica, S. Mrózek, *Cele i zadania działań edukacyjnych w obszarze kształcenia uczniów z niepełnosprawnością oraz edukacji o niepełnosprawności zawarte w strategiach rozwoju gmin a problem rozwoju edukacji inkluzyjnej*, [in:] Z. Gajdzica (ed.) „Studia Pedagogiczne. Wokół wyzwań pedagogicznych” vol. LXX, ed. by Z. Gajdzica, Polska Akademia Nauk. Komitet Nauk Pedagogicznych, Cieszyn 2017.

⁹ This study refers to categories and activities for the people with disabilities located in two types communal strategic documents, these include: *Commune Development Strategies* and *Strategies for solving social problems*.

¹⁰ Conf. M. Grewiński, *Wieloaspektowa polityka społeczna. O przeobrażeniach państwa opiekuńczego*, Wyższa Szkoła Pedagogiczna Towarzystwa Wiedzy Powszechnej w Warszawie, Warszawa 2009, pp. 162–166.

government entities. Their satisfaction of the group needs of various social groups (with the mentioned strata not only including disabled persons) should be achieved by way of implementation of planned, varied activities. It is expected for these to be designed on the basis of fundamental information and thorough analyses.¹¹ Assuming such a form, activity of local government entities also forms a part of the development of the culture of inclusion related to the inclusion of representatives of disfavoured groups.¹² Disability continues to be one of the factors that strongly marginalise, and at times even completely exclude, an individual from public life. For this reason, it and the conditions related to it have become subjects of interest of social policy makers. They are primarily focused on achieving efficiency of activities reducing the level of social pathologies.¹³

Local government entities, establishing local policies with respect to disabled persons, are obligated to include and enrich solutions of inclusion, which stems already from such fundamental documents as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (1993) or the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006).¹⁴ A particular role is played by processes of cognition and attempts at conquering issues and barriers that hinder the correct functioning of persons with disabilities. Knowledge about social needs and issues guarantees suitable efficiency of the planned and implemented support activities. Neces-

¹¹ A. Kołomycew, B. Kotarba, *Interes polityczny w realizacji polityki oświatowej*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe SCHOLAR, Warszawa 2018, p. 82.

¹² Conf. B. Bąbska, *Rozpoznanie potrzeb grup marginalizowanych i wykluczonych*, [in:] *Środowiskowe usługi społeczne – nowa perspektywa polityki i pedagogiki społecznej*, ed. by M. Grewiński, B. Skrzypczak, Wyższa Szkoła Pedagogiczna TWP w Warszawie, Warszawa 2011, pp. 135–154.

¹³ M. Lejzerowicz, A. Książkiewicz, *Osoba z niepełnosprawnością a instytucje pomocowe*, Wydawnictwo Gaskor, Wrocław 2012, pp. 33–34.

¹⁴ More: M. Radziejewska, A. Mazurczak, *Konwencja o Prawach Osób Niepełnosprawnych. Poradnik RPO*, Biuro Rzecznika Praw Obywatelskich, Warszawa 2013.

sary is thus cohesion between the needs of the benefactor and the types of aid provided. Inclusion applies to all areas of daily life of persons with disabilities.¹⁵ One of its objectives is sensitising the local community to issues of functioning of citizens with disabilities. It is only then that a permanent improvement of the social situation and the perception of these people, devoid of excess stereotyping, and, accordingly, aversion, fear and avoidance of contact, may emerge.

Commune authorities, represented e. g. by commune and urban social aid facilities, as well as commune head offices, play a fundamental role in the provision of financial, legal, psychological or paedagogical aid.¹⁶ Still, of importance are forms of aid provided by the family, professional circles, organisations as well as local communities that are actually engaged in the solution of persons suffering from disability and ready for mutual coexistence, based on full acceptance.¹⁷ In the age of inclusion, the communes should thus offer an entire spectrum of aid and support work. Some of them are strongly accented in the *Commune Development Strategies* and in *Strategies for solving social problems*.

The creation and planning of strategies has significant importance from the point of view of local policy. Solutions offering high efficiency in the commercial or business sector have been in Western Europe introduced in social policy at least three decades ago, in Poland this period is about a decade. Strategies delineate fields of cooperation and engagement of individual entities to achieve the set objectives.¹⁸

¹⁵ K. Frysztański, *Wokół istoty „społecznego wykluczenia” oraz „społecznego włączenia”*, [in:] *Ekskluzja i inkluzja społeczna. Diagnoza – Uwarunkowania – Kierunki działań*, ed. by J. Grotowska-Leder, K. Faliszek, Wydawnictwo Edukacyjne Akapit, Toruń 2005, p. 18.

¹⁶ B. Kołaczek, *Polityka społeczna wobec osób niepełnosprawnych*, Instytut Pracy i Spraw Socjalnych, Warszawa 2010, p. 29.

¹⁷ M. Lejzerowicz, I. Książkiewicz, *Osoba z niepełnosprawnością...*, op. cit., p. 135.

¹⁸ M. Grewiński, A. Karwacki, *Strategia – istota, reguły i wyzwania...*, op. cit., p. 11.

The construction of *Local Development Strategies* is a fairly fresh planning experience of Polish communes, counties and voivodeships. It describes a long-term action plan of the commune (the local community), which includes three components, that is¹⁹:

- the establishment of development objectives;
- the description of resources and modes of achievement of objectives;
- the description of relations with the environment.

The content of *Strategies for solving social problems* in turn spans a social aid programme, prevention, solutions to social problems. Their fundamental objective is the integration of persons and families from risk groups. The fundamental area of aid activity includes social and professional activation of benefactors and the creation of conditions for education, meaning “public education”. Professional therapeutic aid and integrated psychological aid are also required.²⁰

Methodologies of working on strategies can be varied. The relatively highest rated is the mode of their development that factors in the commune leaders, commune office employees, employees of local government entities, external consultants and representatives of political parties, unions, foundations, the catholic Church, local business, community leaders. The social span of the process of development of the strategy increases the level of engagement of all entities in the execution of the set objectives and raises the probability level of achievement of the assumed objectives and goals.²¹

It must be stressed, however, that contemporarily the visions of development of communes for the subsequent years are constructed not only by representatives of local governments and aid institu-

¹⁹ A. Lipiński, *Strategie rozwoju lokalnego*, [in:] *Strategie rozwiązywania problemów społecznych w subregionie radomskim*, ed. by K. Głąbicka, Biuletyn Informacji PTPS, Radom 2011, p. 27.

²⁰ K. Głąbicka, *Strategie rozwiązywania problemów społecznych jako przykład realizacji lokalnej polityki społecznej*, „Wrocławskie Studia Politologiczne”, 15/2013, p. 190.

²¹ E. Pawłowska, *Strategia rozwiązywania problemów społecznych – nowa jakość usług społecznych w Szklarskiej Porębie*, [in:] *Środowiskowe usługi społeczne – nowa perspektywa polityki i pedagogiki społecznej*, ed. by M. Grewiński, B. Skrzypczak, Wyższa Szkoła Pedagogiczna TWP w Warszawie, Warszawa 2011, p. 294.

tions, but also “marketing specialists”. At times they contribute to the negative phenomenon that is the simulation of certain activities. Such processes are not only ethically questionable, but also inefficient, not to mention that persons (being hypothetical benefactors) interested in specific tasks (the strategies are publicly available usually in public information bulletins²² of the relevant commune or social organisation) that in reality are not implemented at all could just feel cheated.

In the social world, simulated activities are important, but also “awkwardly”, negatively assessed functions – they maintain the life of social systems. Their excess presence may leave far-fetching and unwanted effects that include the solidification of simulations and social opposition. People seeking fake and fraudulent activities stop trusting each other, a fact that leads to deepening social disintegration.²³

It is worth analysing, what categories related to the inclusion of persons with disabilities are found within commune strategic documents, and what are the activities listed within them. I would like for the present study and the results of the pilot research included in them to form an introduction to a broader diagnosis concerning the detailed analysis of the situation of people with disabilities in the local community and the verification of the prevalence of the listed activities with respect to this group in the strategic documents of the individual communes.

Own research concept

The efficiency of solving of problems of local communities determines at the same time the proper operation of the local entity

²² Public Information Bulletins are information publications with key data under care of the authorities.

²³ Conf. D. Trawkowska, *Działania pozorne w pomocy społecznej – przypadek (i przypadłość) pracy socjalnej*, „Problemy polityki społecznej. Studia i dyskusje”, 10/2007, Dom Wydawniczy „Elipsa”, Warszawa 2007, p. 132.

that is the commune. These are a socially significant issues, because in terms of the existence of persons with disabilities, they call for respect, dignity and the equalisation of chances. This is the basis for broader musings on the efficient use of social resources and the increase of social integration.²⁴

Within the scope of the selected research topic, I was primarily interested in issues concerning categories and related inclusion work aimed at persons with disabilities, found within two types of commune strategies: *Commune Development Strategies* and *Strategies for solving social problems*. The research issues are described by two basic questions:

- What superordinate categories related to the inclusion of people with disabilities are reflected in commune strategies?
- What activities reinforcing tendencies of inclusion towards persons with disabilities were inscribed in the analysed commune strategies?

In the search for answers to research problems described in this way, the qualitative analysis encompassed strategies of all communes from the area of two counties in the Silesian voivodeship of Poland: Żywiec county (15) and Cieszyn county (12).²⁵ The selection of the area was purposeful – it allows for the collection of information on the basis of an analysis of strategies of neighbouring counties that are mutually comparable in terms of demography and administration. A further phase of preliminary work was also described, an amendment to the current analyses. This shall be exploratory and diagnostic research. It is related to the verification of the frequency of projects concerning activities for people with disabilities in selected communes of Poland, broken down by rural, urban-rural and urban communes, along with a mutual comparison of the individual Polish counties. The objective here shall be the discovery and description of provisions concerning persons with disabilities

²⁴ K. Głębicka, *Strategie rozwiązywania problemów społecznych...*, op. cit., p. 183.

²⁵ A list of the analysed strategies is found after the literature list. A total of almost 3900 pages of documents were studied.

in two types of commune strategies; detailed knowledge and analyses of conditions of creation of the commune strategies and the inclusion within them of the issue of disability; identification of indicators of implementation of the suggested activities. Due to the limited scope of the study, the results of the mentioned analysis shall constitute the object of a separate publication.

The basis for the analysis of the content of strategic documents is the creation of a system of categories.²⁶ The creation of a category key entails the collection of a set of categories concepts that deal with the analysed content. In this regard, two techniques of categorisation may be used: emergent – developing the key only on the basis of the collected empirical material (typical for qualitative studies) and a priori – creation of the key on the basis of one's knowledge, only before commencement of the encoding proper (approach typical for quantitative studies).²⁷ In the qualitative analysis, the category key is the study result described within itself. It is like a bullet list of issues discussed in the research process, and at the same time it seeks to present its maximum diversity. Qualitative studies, the establishment of the key is based on a multiple, thorough reading of the entirety of the research material, with the consideration of repetition of certain topical categories, their mutual ties or the discovery of diversity.²⁸ I assume that as a result of the ordering qualitative analysis of the commune strategies, categories shall be discerned related to broadly-understood inclusion of persons with disabilities, and the individual categories shall encompass activities in this regard. I therefore assume that social inclusion is a process, the main objective of which is disabled persons acquiring the capacities and skills necessary for holistic participation in the economic, social and cultural life, along with the maintenance and

²⁶ Conf. E. Babbie, *Podstawy badań społecznych*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2013, pp. 428–434.

²⁷ K. Szczepaniak, *Zastosowanie analizy treści w badaniach artykułów prasowych – refleksje metodologiczne*, „Acta Universitatis Lodziensis Folia Sociologica”, no. 42/2012, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, pp. 88–89.

²⁸ *Ibidem*, pp. 98–99.

permanent continuation of their standards of living that are considered normal in the given society. At the same time, a different aspect of related work is the increase in participation of persons with disabilities in decision processes influencing their lives, and access to fundamental rights.²⁹ The main objective of the present preliminary study is the initial description of superordinate categories related to inclusion and work in this regard for the benefit of the group of persons described in commune strategies. The acquired information shall allow one to sketch out the fundamental areas of influence of local government entities and the projects undertaken in their areas that are useful in the creation of an environment that would be friendly for persons with disabilities. Such a commencement forms the basis for broader and more commonplace solutions that could be referred to as good practices in the area I am interested in.

Presentation and discussion of research results

Below I present ordered tables concerning categories related to the inclusion of persons with disabilities and activities within commune strategies of all communes of the counties of Żywiec and Cieszyn discovered within them. According to the quoted assumptions, the frequency of the provisions I am interested in shall constitute the subject of a separate study – and was not presented here.

In course of the performance of the quality analysis to arrange the provisions of strategic documents in order, and in relation to the concept of social inclusion described earlier, I have discerned the following categories³⁰:

²⁹ Conf. A. Zajadacz, J. Śniadek, *Modele niepełnosprawności jako determinanty przeobrażeń struktury podażowej rynku turystycznego dostępnego dla osób niepełnosprawnych*, [in:] *Ewolucja podaży i popytu w turystyce*, ed. by B. Walas, J. Sobczuk, Wydawnictwo Wyższej Szkoły Turystyki i Ekologii, Sucha Beskidzka 2014, pp. 215–216.

³⁰ The entries in the strategies usually take on the form of a set of activities, frequently related to each other – hence the selections are verb-based.

- Informing persons with disabilities;
- Arrangement of aid and support for persons with disabilities;
- Equalisation of areas of deficits related to the functioning of persons with disabilities;
- Activation of persons with disabilities and the local community;
- Execution of support, aid and diagnostic forms for persons with disabilities.

Table 1. Category: “Informing persons with disabilities” and activities within it

Informing persons with disabilities
– Informing persons with disabilities on their rights, available forms of aid and support, their privileges, entailing the creation in the individual communes of special information points for this group of people;
– Informing persons with disabilities on the possibility of professional employment on the job market, the available jobs offered by the County Employment Agency;
– Information on the possibility of obtaining aid and the type of aid from the County Family Aid Centre, the Urban Social Aid Facility or other organisations or associations operating in the specific commune;
– Informing about financial aid acquired by the commune from funds of the EU that could be provided for rehabilitation or revalidation of the disabled;
– Informing the local communities of the communes on the needs of disabled persons and the support they are provided with.

Source: own work.

Table 2. Category: “Arrangement of aid and support for persons with disabilities” and activities within it

Arrangement of aid and support for persons with disabilities
– Organising of cultural and educational events that persons with disabilities actively and passively take part in;
– Organising for persons with disabilities of support groups with local community centres, occupational therapy workshops, day aid centres that offer psychological and education aid;
– Organising of social integration clubs that take into account the situation of persons suffering from disabilities;

Arrangement of aid and support for persons with disabilities
– Organising of social services and increasing their availability for persons with disabilities;
– Organising of early support for child development;
– Organising of free time and rest of persons with disabilities (trips, excursions, including integration events – together with fully-able persons);
– Organising of courses and seminars improving the competences of persons with disabilities in the social, education or professional area;
– Organising of developed social aid – advice in formal issues, contacts with institutions and usage of modern forms such as streetworking, development of EU projects or international cooperation projects;
– Organising of transport of persons with disabilities to their place of employment or learning;
– Organising special care and assistance services;
– Organising of social campaigns for the benefit of persons with disabilities.

Source: own work.

Table 3. Category: „Equalisation of areas of deficits related to the functioning of persons with disabilities” and activities within it

– Equalisation of areas of deficits related to the functioning of persons with disabilities
– Equalisation of education chances and availability of education in the commune in the form of integration or public schools;
– Equalisation of access to information – issuing brochures, bulletins, newsletters, creation of specialised websites where people with disabilities could find the information they need;
– Equalisation of the quality of life of persons with disabilities through diverse forms of aid: financial, emotional, information, spiritual;
– Equalisation of availability of mobility by removal of architectural and transport barriers in public spaces, construction of new and refurbishment of old buildings with consideration of simplifications for persons with disabilities (drive-ways, elevators, handrails, etc.);
– Equalisation of social participation of persons with disabilities through actively engaging them in the life of the local community and the establishment in local communities of a positive image of persons with incomplete abilities through the organisation of meetings with disabled sportspeople, actors, singers.

Source: own work.

Table 4. Category: „Activation of persons with disabilities and the local community” and activities within it

Activation of persons with disabilities and the local community
– Activation of commune inhabitants to commence aid work, support for disabled locals: volunteer work, help in terms of care and rehabilitation, work for the benefit of associations, organisations, the Church;
– Activation of persons with disabilities to undertake projects (at a level they could achieve) related to own personal development: education, courses, training, gainful employment.

Source: own work.

Table 5. Category: „Execution of support, aid and diagnostic forms for persons with disabilities” and activities within it

– Execution of support, aid and diagnostic forms for persons with disabilities
– Execution of local government programmes for the social and professional activation of persons with disabilities;
– Execution of training to increase qualifications of employees of institutions or facilities dealing with persons with disabilities;
– Implementation of standards and services for persons with disabilities at the EU level, usage of good and efficient examples;
– Execution of permanent and regular diagnoses of the local community to monitor the situation of persons with disabilities in the communes.

Source: own work.

The analysis of provisions concerning the strategic documents of the communes in the counties of Żywiec (15 communes) and Cieszyn (12 communes) had shown that local government entities offer varied activities that encompass inclusion for the mentioned group of people. It must be stressed that the assignment of individual activities to the mentioned categories is conventional, as in terms of content and significance they frequently repeat one another in the documents. This, however, forms a fundamental model, indicating the path that local government entities have chosen in terms of issues of functioning of disabled inhabitants, utilising their strategic approaches.

The individual activities within the categories related to the inclusion of persons with disabilities are formulated in a very general manner that is hard to differentiate. This is doubtless the weakest property of the analysed documents – even despite great differences in terms of content of the provisions and their large number. However, this is no typical phenomenon, and this method is frequently used by local government entities.³¹ Provisions offering little precision gravely hinder or even prevent binding accounting of communes/ counties with respect to the solutions suggested in the strategies. Without precise knowledge and thorough analyses in a smaller area, it is very difficult to clearly state, what kind of inclusion work towards persons with disabilities is actually implemented, and what kind of work is just a simulation.

Fuzzy provisions around the suggested solutions, frequently devoid of clearly described indicators, do not make it easy for persons with disabilities and their caretakers to use them fully and without problems. The analysis of the strategic documents themselves can only suggest a certain outline of help that should be offered. In this regard (on the basis of the analysed counties), the situation requires further work, in particular more detailed descriptions – so that persons with disabilities and their next of kin are burdened by as little effort of organisation as possible. Their life situation is already sufficiently complicated.

A positive phenomenon related to the analysis of activities in the individual categories is the fact that the communes (at least in theory) utilise a holistic and interdisciplinary approach in order to simplify and increase social participation of persons with disabilities. This is very important from the point of view of inclusion, which, however, tends to be treated by local government entities persistently and as a replacement of integration – while in fact, this is a great simplification and a wrong interpretation of the actual state of affairs.³² How-

³¹ Conf. Z. Gajdzica, S. Mrózek, *Cele i zadania działań edukacyjnych w obszarze kształcenia uczniów z niepełnosprawnością...*, op. cit., pp. 284–285.

³² Conf. B. Grochmal-Bach, A. Czyż, A. Skoczek (ed.), *Segregacja. Integracja. Inkluzja*, Akademia Ignatianum, Wydawnictwo WAM, Kraków 2013.

ever, the categories related to the inclusion of persons with disabilities themselves, such as: "informing"; "organising"; "equalisation"; "implementation"; "activation", utilise numerous activities, the actual and regular implementation of which may contribute to a fuller participation by persons with disabilities in social life, or prevent their marginalisation. Noteworthy is the fact that the mentioned examples of activities refer to diverse and significant spheres of life: education, work, free time, the family, and more specialised ones, stemming directly from the disability, such as: revalidation, rehabilitation or medical care.

A sign of responsibility by local government entities is also addressing their offer not only directly to persons with disabilities, but also to the local community of the communes. Such an approach contributes to the reinforcement of social cohesion or countering false stereotypes. It does not excessively burden the disabled person as responsible for the situation in which they have found themselves, and which they have to cope with themselves. The mentioned aid uses not only the work of professional and trained associations and institutions, but ascribes more and more meaning to informal human relations that acquire a natural, and, primarily, more authentic form of aid.

In lieu of an conclusion

The examples presented in the study are the base model for activities characterised by inclusion with respect to persons with disabilities in the commune strategies within two counties: Żywiec and Cieszyn. In course of the qualitative analysis of the strategic documents, identified were fundamental categories related to inclusion. They in turn were assigned precisely described activities suggested by local government entities. The collected material is an introduction to further analyses of the topics that constitute the placement of the issues of disability within commune strategies. Assuming this task – one very important and bound by social responsibility, repre-

sentatives of local government entities need to remember many important conditions of establishment of good strategies.

Inefficient and ethically questionable is the simulation of activities without real implementation in the environment. The significance of strategies and of the content in them is then hypothetical and postulative. Solidified simulations in such socially delicate matters strip the entities of their social trust.³³

The establishment of strategies is a long-term procedure. Offering perspective activities for a defined group, one must know their needs in detail. Representatives of communes should regularly diagnose and monitor social groups threatened by exclusion or problems. In case of persons with disabilities, e. g. through actual contact with such people or their legal caretakers, as well as through cooperation with institutions offering a certain kind of support.

The solutions foreseen in the strategies for persons with disabilities must do away with general provisions and the avoidance of measurable indicators. This significantly hinders verification – and is also a weakness of the strategies analysed for the present study. Of importance is also periodicity and the ability to draw conclusions. Strategies remain in force for a specific period of time. It is significant for subsequent editions to comment on the efficiency of activities offered in the previous issue of the document, and to contain modifications – the addition of new or the cancellation of such activities which, for certain reasons, failed to yield results.

In case of disability, strategies should be developed with active participation of disabled persons and their caretakers as well as representatives of: aid institutions, the scientific community, the local community or people who are aware of the actual needs of persons with disabilities. Considered must also be contemporary tendencies in special education. The analysed strategies do not offer a significant delineation between integration and inclusion. In these documents, these concepts are generally treated as synonyms.

³³ Z. Gajdzica, *Social policy of the local government unit...*, op. cit., pp. 14–15.

To summarise – the analysed area requires bringing into order and a thorough verification of solutions offered by local government entities. A significant role is played by regular adaptation and analyses of the actual needs of benefactors. Analyses of the strategic documents in terms of inclusion is still burdened by much randomness and lack of clarity, the collected material, however, allows the conclusion that presently local government entities offer quite varied activities in many areas of daily life of persons with disabilities, which facilitate inclusion. *Development Strategies* and *Strategies for solving social problems* can hence constitute their real source, under the condition that the authors and agents assume a responsible, competent and caring attitude towards citizens with disabilities.

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- Development Strategy for the City of Ustroń until the year 2020*, <<http://www.zgloszenia.ustron.pl/media/page/332/attachment/Strategia%20Rozwoju%20Miasta%20Ustro%C5%84%20do%202020%20roku.pdf>> [access: 04.05.2019].
- Strategy for Solving Social Problems of the commune of Ustroń for the years 2016–2020*, <www.ustron.bip.info.pl/plik.php?id=33648> [access: 04.05.2019].
- Development Strategy for the City of Wisła until the year 2020*, <<http://docplayer.pl/10805945-Strategia-rozwoju-miasta-wisla-na-lata-2014-2022-1-s-t-r-o-n-a.html>> [access: 04.05.2019].
- Commune Strategy for Solving Social Problems in the City of Wisła for the years 2016–2024*, <<http://www.prawomiejscowe.pl/api/file/GetZipxAttachment/254/501233/preview>> [access: 04.05.2019].
- Development Strategy of the Commune of Zebrzydowice until the year 2020*, <<http://www.zebrzydowice.bip.info.pl/dokument.php?iddok=6794&idmp=77&r=r>> [access: 04.05.2019].
- Strategy for Solving Social Problems of the commune of Zebrzydowice for the years 2011–2017*, <www.zebrzydowice.bip.info.pl/dokument.php?iddok=4260&idmp=8&r=r> [access: 04.05.2019].



Diversity in education and the phenomenon of subtle marginalisation and infrahumanisation

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The article focuses on the issue of diversity in education. The aim of the study is to present the results of research on the perception of shared education of students with and without disabilities and to choose the most favourable form of education for students with disabilities. Awareness and legitimacy of these actions is widespread, but sometimes it is limited to declarations. The article posits the thesis that the condition for the effective pursuit of inclusive education is first of all a maturity for diversity and an internal consent to it, which manifests itself in attitudes that accept student with disabilities in a public school space. The article presents theoretical contexts regarding the issue of normalisation, subtle marginalisation and infrahumanisation.

KEY WORDS: student with disability, diversity, inclusive education, marginalisation, infrahumanisation

Introduction

Social, cultural and economic changes initiated in the 1990s have been reflected in changes in the perception of disability and people with disabilities. The principle of normalisation of life of people

with disabilities and integration aspirations have given rise to changes in the education system of people with disabilities. The implementation of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and the Salamanca Declaration was a step towards inclusion. After more than thirty years, inclusion policy has become a universally accepted mainstream and has encompassed all areas of social life, including education. Along with the changes in the social perception of people with disabilities, there have been changes in thinking about people with disabilities and their place in society. People with disabilities have been included in the mainstream of social life on an equal footing with other participants. The policy of equal opportunities resulting from the assumptions of inclusive education created the possibility of taking advantage education adapted to their needs and abilities, in a school located closest to their place of residence. Despite the fact that inclusive education is part of the Polish educational system, the conviction about common education in a single educational space – a public school – raises many reservations, which are based on the welfare of students with disabilities as seen from the perspective of people without disabilities. The challenge for the modern world has become the ability to function in a diverse society and to accept this diversity. Inclusive education plays an important role in promoting diversity and the fundamental values of a democratic society – tolerance, openness to diversity, respect for the dignity of each person. It prevents discrimination and promotes respect for human rights. Inclusion is a broad concept, covering all areas of social life. In terms of education, it is a process of change, a way of thinking, a culture that entails increasing the accessibility of teaching through diversity, the creation of individual curricula, respect for diversity and culture of all participants in the educational process. Readiness for inclusion cannot be imposed – it must be grown into.

Therefore, the aim of this paper is to present the results of research on the perception of shared education of students with and without disabilities, as well as on the choice of the most beneficial form of education for students with disabilities by students of

pedagogical faculties. Both the research goal and the position I adopt allow for the development of the thesis that the condition for effective inclusive education is, above all, maturity to diversity and internal consent to it, which is manifested in the attitudes accepting student with disabilities in the public school space. The perception of the place of students with disabilities in the common educational space is an expression of the normalisation activities carried out for several decades in special education. Awareness and legitimacy of these actions are common, but sometimes they are confined to declarations. Although we agree that every child, regardless of their limitations, has the right to education in a school located as close as possible to their place of residence, in practice we often look for reasons to deny them this right in the best interests of the child. In some cases, by declaring willingness to participate together in social life on an equal footing with people with disabilities, we subconsciously depreciate their ability and right to this participation. Therefore, in the further part of this article, I will present the issue of normalisation, which will provide a basis for further considerations on its implementation in educational practice.

Normalisation in the sphere of creation

The concept of normalisation was developed in the 1950s and 1960s in Scandinavian countries. The term “normalisation” was first used in 1959 in the preamble to the Danish Social Welfare Act on the initiative of Niels Erik Bank-Mikkelsen.¹ In a text published ten years later in the United States, Bengt Nirje detailed the principle of normalisation by distinguishing its eight components: normal rhythm of a day, normal rhythm of the week, normal rhythm of the year, normal life-cycle, recognition of the expectations and preferences of the individual (subjectivity), normal heterosexual contacts,

¹ N.E. Bank-Mikkelsen, *A metropolitan area in Denmark: Copenhagen*, [in:] *Changing patterns in residential Services. For the mentally retarded*, R. Kugel, W. Wolfensberger (eds.), President's Committee on Mental Retardation, Washington 1969.

normal economic standard, normal living conditions.² Normalisation is both the target state and the process of achieve it. These are activities aimed at enabling people with disabilities to achieve education, life experiences, social status and living conditions considered typical (normal), standard for a given social group. Normalisation is therefore the improving the lives of people with disabilities in various areas of their lives. In Poland, the concept of normalisation was introduced and disseminated by Amadeusz Krause, according to whom normalisation is all institutional and non-institutional actions aimed at creating normal living conditions for people with disabilities and providing them with such assistance that they can function normally throughout their lives, to the extent it is possible".³ Aleksandra Maciarz believes that the spectrum of normalisation activities should be included in such aspects as

- **humanisation** of social life strengthening the acceptance of people with disabilities by members of society, their subjective functioning in society and pro-social attitudes towards them;
- **support** of the society for persons with disabilities in meeting their psycho-biological needs, access to education, culture, work and all forms of human activity that are accessible to people without disabilities;
- **adaptation** in terms of organisation, technology and culture of the various institutions, facilities and services used by members of a given community to the individual needs of persons with disabilities;
- **inclusion** of persons with disabilities in various areas of life and situations of the community, while maintaining their autonomy, subjectivity and partnership with people without disabilities;
- **enabling** people with disabilities to lead their daily lives in a natural environment, at a normal rhythm (day, week, year)

² N.E. Bank-Mikkelsen, *Warunki życia dla ludzi z upośledzeniem umysłowym*, Bruksela 1991.

³ A. Krause, *Integracyjne złudzenia ponowoczesności*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2000, p. 24.

and in accordance with environmental cultural patterns (eating at specified times, working, resting, celebrating, etc.), taking into account their individual needs and abilities.⁴

It should be noted, however, that today's normalisation is not a rigidly defined idea, as it was decades ago. It is constantly being enriched by new theoretical constructs, modified and strengthened by research analyses. The results of empirical studies allow for people with disabilities to be more fully seen in different areas of their functioning.⁵

One of the manifestations of the normalisation of living conditions is ensuring equal access to education for all students, regardless of their state of health, disability or other conditions. Normalisation is not only an adaptation of the living environment, but also, and perhaps above all, a change in the way of thinking and perceiving people with disabilities, from inferior or not having right to equal and full rights.

According to Teresa Żółkowska, normalisation is an "unfinished theory of practice", which not only imposes, organises, and is a power, but which is open to changeability, perceiving the multiplicity of experiences. "It is not about staying outside of reality, creating an unreal world. People with disabilities, like everyone else, should have a chance to reflect on themselves, but they must do so in the real (normal) world".⁶ As Żółkowska further notes, "when creating a theory of the participation practices of people with disabilities, it is not necessary to look for and describe what is normal and what is not, only to recognise the multiplicity and diversity of

⁴ A. Maciarz, *Normalizacja szansą likwidacji społecznej upośledzenia osób niepełnosprawnych*, [in:] Z. Janiszewska-Nieścioruk (ed.), *Sfery życia osób z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2005.

⁵ J. Głodkowska, „Autorstwo życia a niepełnosprawność – ponawiane odczytywanie idei normalizacji”, [in:] *Człowiek – Niepełnosprawność – Społeczeństwo* 2014, no 1.

⁶ T. Żółkowska, „Normalizacja niedokończona teoria praktyki”, *Niepełnosprawność*, 2011, no. 5, p. 89. <<http://bazhum.muzhp.pl/media/files/Niepelnosprawnos/Niepelnosprawnos-r2011-t-n5/Niepelnosprawnos-r2011-t-n5-s85-93/Niepelnosprawnos-r2011-t-n5-s85-93.pdf>> [accessed on 15.02.2019].

these worlds".⁷ The recognition of diversity as a determinant of our times is a prerequisite for normalisation activities. The social world is a diverse world, presenting a spectrum of different cultures, material statuses, levels of education, places of residence and levels of ability. It is this diversity that makes our lives colourful and varied. This diversity includes people with disabilities as part of society. Normalisation is inseparable from the category of the time and space in which it takes place. Changing governments, amendments to the educational laws and changes in the social awareness of people with disabilities mean that it is still in the sphere of creation. One of the normalisation activities is the inclusion of students with disabilities in mainstream schools and the creation of a friendly educational space adapted to the needs of all participants of the educational process. A change in thinking about adapting the space to the needs of all participants of social life is a universal design understood as an approach to planning and creating products, equipment and public spaces, which ensures their accessibility for all users. One of the most important objectives of universal design is to promote equality and ensure the full participation of people with disabilities in society by removing existing barriers and preventing the emergence of new ones.⁸ Universal design puts the user first, increasing the accessibility of services, objects and facilities, which is a prerequisite for ensuring equal opportunities for people with disabilities. Although universal design is associated primarily with infrastructure projects, it is also used in so-called soft projects.⁹ The aim of this type of design is to prevent marginalisation and exclusion of people with disabilities in particular. I will discuss this issue in the next section, presenting its various forms.

⁷ Ibid., p. 90.

⁸ *Realizacja zasady równości szans i niedyskryminacji, w tym dostępności dla osób z niepełnosprawnościami. Poradnik dla realizatorów projektów i instytucji systemu wdrażania funduszy europejskich 2014–2020*, Ministerstwo Rozwoju, Warsaw 2015, <https://www.pois.gov.pl/media/23675/publikacja_wersja_kontrastowa_3.pdf> [accessed on 10.03.2019].

⁹ Ibid., p. 24.

“Other – Alien” and subtle marginalisation and infrachumanisation

The issue of marginalisation is present in the literature on sociology, psychology and pedagogy and is related to the problems of different groups with their participation in social life. K.W. Frieske states that “in societies we know from historical sources, as well as in modern societies, we see the presence of people who, for various reasons, participate in the collective life to a lesser degree than others”.¹⁰ For years, one such group has been people with disabilities. Disability was a stigma, a pejorative mark on a person, resulting in marginalisation and exclusion. Social transformations have changed the perception of people with disabilities. As Amadeusz Krause notes, “it can be said that traditional stigmatisation and social exclusion of people due to disability are disappearing, and their manifestations are not socially acceptable”.¹¹ According to Krause, this situation does not mean, however, that people with disabilities have equal status and therefore equal opportunities. He states, “we are dealing with a new phenomenon of subtle marginalisation, in which declarations of acceptance are accompanied by a social distance towards people with disabilities, consisting in the representation of opposing attitudes by one person, namely an open positive and hidden negative attitude. This may be a conscious phenomenon when we are aware of but conceal our opinions or unconscious biases”.¹²

Another concept related to marginalisation is the concept of infrachumanisation. Introduced into the field of psychology by Jacques-Philippe Leyens,¹³ it means a tendency to perceive innate human

¹⁰ K.W. Frieske, *Encyklopedia Socjologii*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe, Warsaw 1998.

¹¹ A. Krause, A. Żyta, A. Nosarzewska, *Normalizacja środowiska społecznego osób z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną*, Wydawnictwo Edukacyjne „Akapit”, Toruń 2010, p. 28.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 56.

¹³ J.P. Leyens, S. Demoulin, J. Vaes, R. Gaunt, M.P. Paladino, “Infra-humanization: The Wall of Group Differences”, *Social Issues and Policy Review* 2000, No. 1.

traits as much weaker in members of alien groups in comparison to one's own group (people without disabilities – people without disabilities; people with disabilities – people with disabilities) than in the group of "Others" (people without disabilities – people with disabilities), and their survival results from cultural frameworks and individual experiences. We attribute to a stronger experience of secondary emotions to "us" than to "them". Therefore, the effect of infrahumanisation will occur in every context of group comparisons, regardless of the content of stereotypes. According to the assumptions of the Stereotype Content Model,¹⁴ how we perceive others can lead to different emotions that we will feel about them and, as a result, to different behaviours. Foreign groups may be objects of aversion or envy, and as a result of open hostility or pity, which may lead to a desire to help, but also to exclusion.¹⁵ According to Stephanie Demoulin, infrahumanisation is a phenomenon that occurs automatically and unconsciously in everyday intergroup relations. The perception of "others" as less human is a kind of continuum of marginalisation and exclusion – from the most subtle forms present at the unconscious level to the overt, conscious dehumanisation called "delegitimisation" or "moral exclusion".¹⁶ In her considerations of the phenomenon of infrahumanisation in the

¹⁴ The Stereotype Content Model is a concept proposed by Susan Fiske and colleagues (2002), explaining the relationship between social perception, intergroup emotions and tendencies to specific behaviour towards "other" groups. It describes the content in a two-dimensional space of warmth and competence, which plays a key role in the process of formulating social judgements. This theory presupposes the existence of ambivalent forms of prejudice and the resulting different forms of discrimination. The authors of the theory emphasise that homogeneous positive or negative stereotypes are less frequent than ambivalent ones.

¹⁵ M. Wiśniewski, A. Haska, *Spoleczna mapa stereotypów*, Centrum Badań nad Uprzedzeniami, Warsaw 2012, <http://cbu.psychologia.pl/uploads/Raporty%20-%20Deconspirator/Winiewski&Haska_Deconspirator_mapa%20stereotypow.pdf> [accessed: 4.08. 2019].

¹⁶ S. Demoulin, R.T. Rodriguez, A.P. Rodriguez, J. Vaez, M.P. Paladino, R. Gaunt, B.P. Cortes, J.P. Leyens, "Emotional prejudice can lead to infrahumanization", *European Review of Social Psychology*, 2004, no. 15, pp. 269, 259–296.

context of people with disabilities, Magdalena Belza states that “political correctness requires a good attitude towards people with disabilities, so it is easy to hear positive assessments of this group of people, but actions reveal the true nature of this attitude, revealing feigned anti-discrimination attitudes.¹⁷ As the author further notes, the infrahumanisation of people with disabilities results in reactions of instinctive attribution of a certain stereotype, induced by the appearance of a prime, i.e. a signal specific to a given category. The sight of a wheelchair or a white cane triggers the reaction of automatically classifying these people as “them” or “us” depending on the identity of the person interacting with the other person or group. An abled-bodied person classifies a person with a disability as an “other”.¹⁸ Magdalena Belza concludes that “unlike the phenomenon of dehumanisation, which frequently appeared in special pedagogy in relation to people with disabilities, infrahumanisation does not require a conflict situation and often does not take on extreme forms. Neither does it have to mean delegitimisation, i.e. the taking away of fundamental rights from ‘others’”.¹⁹ Therefore, as J.P. Leyens says, this phenomenon occurs wherever there is a division into “us” and “them”, even if these groups lead a neutral coexistence.²⁰ In the case of disability, there is a specific type of imposition of two kinds of otherness: other, because they are another person, and other, because they have a disability. Such an increase in otherness becomes the source of perceiving a person with a disability as not only different, but also alien.²¹ This situation means that even as we declare our openness to “others”, we are not mentally

¹⁷ M. Belza, „Ableizm a zjawisko infrahumanizacji ‘obcych’”, *Teraźniejszość-Człowiek-Edukacja*, 2016, no. 2, p. 80.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 81.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 84.

²⁰ After: T. Baran, „Pomiar zjawiska infrahumanizacji ‘obcych’ poprzez atrybucję słów typowo ludzkich i typowo zwierzęcych”, *Psychologia Społeczna*, 2011, vol. 6, 3(18), p. 203.

²¹ J. Głodkowska, „Autorstwo życia a niepełnosprawność – ponawiane odczytywanie idei normalizacji”, [in:] *Człowiek – Niepełnosprawność – Społeczeństwo* 2014, no. 1, p. 76.

ready for it. How then do we limit the tendency to infrahumanisation? Monika Tarnowska, analysing the conditions of infrahumanisation, states that a similarity in terms of key beliefs makes the “others” seem less antagonistic, which leads to a limited conflict between the “us” and “them” groups.²² Intergroup cooperation increases positive attitude towards the “others”. The representation of two different groups is replaced by the representation of a common group pursuing a common objective.²³ A similar position regarding cooperation is presented by D.W. Johnson and R.T. Johnson. The authors believe that cooperative learning is a particularly important educational strategy from the perspective of inclusion and diversity.²⁴ These interactions are about creating the feeling that “we” and “they” belong to a larger social whole, that we have common values and that we are fundamentally similar to each other. Such a goal is inclusive education, which allows all its members (students), regardless of differences and possibilities, to function together and achieve goals. Such actions may contribute to the creation of a superior, inclusive category, which includes representatives of both one’s own group and the “other” group, which in turn should contribute to the social inclusion and weakening of infrahumanisation processes for the benefit of common functioning in a shared school space.

Readiness for diversity

In the era of globalisation, diversity is inscribed on the map of our times as a phenomenon that is becoming more and more common. It is considered to be a value of contemporary, (post)modern

²² M. Tarnowska, „Kiedy odmawiamy ‘obcym’ człowieczeństwa? Uwarunkowani zjawiska infrahumanizacji”, [in:] M. Kořta, M. Bilewicz (eds.), *Wobec obcych. Zagrozenia psychologiczne a stosunki międzygrupowe*, Wyd. Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 2011, p. 169.

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ See. D.W. Johnson, R.T. Johnson, “Cultural Diversity and Cooperative Learning”, [in:] *Cooperative Learning and Strategies for Inclusion*, J.W. Putman (ed.), Maple Press, New York 2010, pp. 76–83.

societies. The concept of diversity can be interpreted in many ways, depending on the context in which it is considered. With regard to society, we can say that diversity is all aspects in which people differ, both apparently – in terms of age, gender, race, fitness – and invisibly – in terms of education, knowledge, experience, skills and competences, personality, beliefs, value system, identity, culture.²⁵

In this paper, I describe diversity as the joint functioning of students with and without disabilities in a public school environment. This approach is consistent with the recognition and appreciation of the differences between students in favour of taking action and treating diversity as a value consistent with the demands of the “Learning – the treasure within” Delors report concerning the pillars of education, and in particular one of them – “learning to live together”. Diversity can give rise to fears of the unknown, fear of the “others” or anxiety about the threat to the achievement of one’s own goals and needs. Categories of Other/Alien are popular in sociology, multi-cultural and intercultural education.²⁶ Otherness may arouse different emotions, both positive and negative, constitute a criterion of divisions, alienation, generate difficulties related to participation in education, and even constitute a factor of exclusion from it and social life.²⁷ In special education, this category is used to describe the situation of people with disabilities.²⁸ Magdalena Bełza, describing the situation of students with disabilities in the folklore of the school, writes: “The place of a student with a dis-

²⁵ These categories correspond to the highlighted diversity features described by Mary Loden in the Diversity Wheel, see M. Loden, *Implementing Diversity*, Irwin Publishing, Chicago 1996.

²⁶ See M. Kofta, M. Bilewicz (eds.), *Wobec obcych*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warsaw 2011; P.P. Grzybowski, *Edukacja międzykulturowa – konteksty. Od tożsamości po język międzynarodowy*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2011.

²⁷ Z. Bauman, *Socjologia*, Wydawnictwo Zysk i S-ka, Poznań 1996, p. 49.

²⁸ See Z. Gajdzica, Z. *Uczniowie i studenci z obszaru pogranicza wobec sytuacji osób niepełnosprawnych w środowisku lokalnym – nastawienia i opinie. Raport z badań*, Wydawnictwo Arka, Cieszyn-Skoczów 2013; I. Chrzanowska, *Pedagogika specjalna. Od tradycji do współczesności*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2015, et al.

ability in the folklore of the school and the degree of intensity of their otherness, or the Other/Alien stigma, is determined by the placement of the student in a specific form of education. Depending on the type of school, the student is one of many, who does not stand out in any particular way (because most pupils may have similar problems), or will stand out from other pupils in terms of their diversity, something particular".²⁹ In analysing the situation of a student with a disability in various forms of education, Bełza states that in a mainstream school the fact of having a disability comes becomes the most important factor, determining not only the education itself, but above all what surrounds it, i.e. being a student and a classmate. Disability becomes the cause of being an Other/Alien in a group. It is more visible because it is the reason why a student is different.³⁰ Are we then ready for diversity?

The concept of readiness can be considered in different ways. It is most often considered in pedagogy in the context of school readiness.³¹ Krystyna Duraj-Nowakowa distinguishes "professional readiness" by stating that the analysis of the notion of "professional readiness" - by analogy to the meanings of the term "mental readiness" - allowed for distinguishing two basic ways of defining it. The first is to capture readiness in the personality aspect, the second is to capture readiness in the functional aspect.³² Beata Skotnicka believes that the concept of professional readiness may relate to maturity - teachers' readiness to work with a child with disabilities. In the author's opinion, it is worth looking at the problem in a wider perspective and considering it not only as a child's maturity for

²⁹ M. Bełza, „Inny/Obcy (uczeń niepełnosprawny) jako podmiot 'folkloru' szkolnego", [in:] *Inkluzja edukacyjna. Idee, teorie, koncepcje, modele edukacji włączającej a wybrane aspekty praktyki edukacyjnej*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, Katowice 2016, p. 105.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 108.

³¹ B. Wilgocka-Okoń, *Gotowość szkolna dzieci sześcioletnich*, Wydawnictwo Akademickie Żak, Warsaw 2003.

³² K. Duraj-Nowakowa, *Kształtowanie profesjonalnej gotowości pedagogów*, Wydawnictwo WAM, Kraków 2011.

learning, but also as teachers' maturity in mainstream institutions for working with a child with disabilities.³³

When analysing the concept of maturity (readiness), which is usually considered in relation to the student, in this paper I consider it to be the social readiness for diversity, understood as a common education of students – with and without disabilities – in inclusive education. The diversity resulting from the common functioning of all students should not be a problem, but a pedagogical challenge. The readiness for diversity is therefore expressed in the full acceptance of all participants in social processes, regardless of the categories of diversity mentioned above. The research carried out by the author, which is presented later in this article, is an example of the readiness for diversity perceived in this way.

Author's own research project

The main aim of the research was to find out and consider the opinions of students of pedagogical faculties concerning the selection of the most beneficial form of education for students with disabilities. The indirect objective was to check the openness (readiness) to inclusion activities that express the acceptance of common education of students with and without disabilities, preventing marginalisation and exclusion of this group of students. The research was diagnostic in nature. The subject of the research were the declarations of students concerning joint education of students with and without disabilities, as well as the selection of the most beneficial form of education for students with disabilities in the Polish educational system. These declarations comprise a collection of information constituted on the basis of respondents' own convictions and observations concerning inclusive reality, and in my opinion, they reflect attitudes towards inclusive activities. Therefore, it can

³³ B. Skotnicka, „Gotowość do realizowania edukacji włączającej przez nauczycieli w szkołach ogólnodostępnych”, *Nauczyciel i szkoła* 2015, no. 1, p. 74.

be assumed that the opinions of students of pedagogical faculties, as future educators, may be an indicator of the actual circumstances of inclusive education and what is inseparably connected with it – openness to diversity. This article, due to its limited framework, presents selected results concerning the perception of joint education of students with and without disabilities in the public school space.

The surveyed students were asked the question: In your opinion, is the joint education of students with and without disabilities beneficial for both groups? Next, the respondents were asked: What form of education do you think is best for a student with a disability? They were then asked to justify their choice.

In order to obtain answers to the research questions, the diagnostic survey method using the questionnaire technique was used. Closed and open questions were used in the questionnaire. The leading method was quantitative research supplemented by qualitative analysis of the justification of the choice of the most beneficial form of education for students with disabilities by participants, which constituted an exemplification of quantitative research.

213 students of pedagogical faculties took part in the research: 86 students of Early Childhood Education, 74 students of Education, 53 students of Speech and Language Pathology. All respondents were women aged 21-23. In the course of their studies, they studied Special Education, within which they became acquainted with the issues of disabilities, working with students with disabilities and forms of education of these students in the Polish educational system.

The best form of education for students with disabilities – analysis of research results

In the Polish educational system, a student with a disability is one who has a certificate stating their need for special education issued by a public psychological and educational counselling centre.

Despite the recommendations contained in the certificate on the need for special education concerning the choice of the form of education, the final decision is left to the parents or legal guardians of the child. Therefore, students with disabilities can benefit from any of the three forms of special education: special, integrated or mainstream school. Each of these facilities should be prepared for the reception and education of such a student. This preparation concerns not only infrastructure, teaching aids, curricula and specialised staff, but also our mentality and internal conviction that it is right to educate both groups of students in a shared classroom and school space.

Analysis of the answers concerning the benefits of joint education of students with and without disabilities showed that the vast majority – 82% of respondents – chose the answer *definitely yes*, stating that joint education of students with and without disabilities is beneficial for both groups, while 15% of respondents answered *probably yes*. Only 3% chose the answer *probably not*. None of the students surveyed gave a *definitely not* answer.

The data collected by Karolina Mudło-Głagolska and Marta Lewandowska, who analysed the opinions of teachers of mainstream schools on inclusive teaching of students with disabilities, showed similar results. The results obtained by the authors indicate that more than 80% of respondents believe that students with disabilities have the right to education in a mainstream school. Less than 9% of the total sample denied this right, identifying a special school as an appropriate place for the education of students with disabilities.³⁴

In a further section of the survey, students were asked to choose what they thought was the best form of education for a student with disabilities. The analysis of the research results is presented in the table below with the distinction of the fields of study of the respondents.

³⁴ K. Mudło-Głagolska, M. Lewandowska, „Edukacja inkluzyjna w Polsce”, *Przegląd Pedagogiczny* 2018 no. 2, p. 208.

Table 1. Student opinions on the best form of education for students with disabilities

Field of study	Form of education organisation							
	Special school		Integrated school		Mainstream school		Total:	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Early Childhood Education	21	24.5	52	60.5	13	15	86	100
Education	14	19	54	73	6	8	74	100
Speech and Language Pathology	11	21	32	60	10	19	53	100
Total:	46	22	138	65	29	13	213	100

$\chi^2 = 4,617$ (df = 4) p = 0,329 ni.

Source: Own compilation.

The analysis of the answers given shows that in the opinion of Early Education students, the best form of education for a student with disabilities is an integrated school. This form was indicated by over 60% of respondents. Every fourth respondent indicated a special school and only 15% chose a mainstream school as the best form of education for this student. Students of Education also indicated an integrated school as the best form of education for students with disabilities. This was the response of the majority of respondents – 73%. One fifth of the respondents indicated a special school, and not many – 8% – chose a mainstream school.

Among the Speech and Language Pathology students, 60% of those surveyed indicated an integrated school as the best form of education for students with disabilities. Answers concerning the choice of a special school (21%) and a mainstream school (19%) were at a similar level. In comparison with the indications of students of Education and Early School Education, the students of Speech and Language Pathology indicated a mainstream school more frequently than their predecessors. The reason for this may be that, as future speech therapists, they are more prepared to work with children with various types of developmental deficits. On the

basis of the χ^2 test, there were no statistical relationships between the choice of the best form of education for students with disabilities and the field of study of the respondents.

The presented data corresponds with the results collected and analysed elsewhere by Beata Skotnicka.³⁵ In investigating the attitudes of rural school teachers to inclusive education, the author states that over half of rural school teachers³⁶ believe that the best system of education for children with a declared need for special education is an integrated class. The second form of education indicated by the teachers was an integrated school. One fifth of the respondents claimed that a special school is a good solution, while a mainstream school was indicated by the fewest respondents as the most advantageous form of education for a student with a certified need for special education.³⁷

The analysis of the research results showed that over half of the people surveyed – 65% – declared integrated schools as the best form of education for students with disabilities. Students most often justified their choice with the need for cooperation and functioning of students with and without disabilities in one class, to the benefit of both groups:

“In an integrated school, a child is not isolated from their peers, can work with them and learn from them”, “An integrated school does not have such specific conditions and such a wide range of specialists as a special education school, but it is more accessible for people with disabilities than a mainstream school, and at the same time ensures integration with people without disabilities and adaptation to the social environment, which a special education school does not”, “Healthy children learn tolerance towards ‘otherness’ and sick children do not feel rejected by society,” “A child in an integrated school has special

³⁵ B. Skotnicka, „Przygotowanie ogólnodostępnej szkoły wiejskiej do pracy z dzieckiem z orzeczoną potrzebą kształcenia specjalnego (na przykładzie szkół powiatu bydgoskiego)”, unpublished part of doctoral dissertation

³⁶ The study group consisted of 145 teachers of rural schools in the Bydgoszcz district.

³⁷ B. Skotnicka, *Przygotowanie...*, op. cit.

care, but is not excluded from life alongside their peers without disabilities, as they would be in a special school”.

Katarzyna Ćwirynkało and Agnieszka Żyta take a different stance in researching teachers' beliefs about inclusive education for students with special educational needs. The analysis of the results of their research shows that teachers indicate that integrated education may have a negative impact on students with disabilities (their self-esteem, educational results).³⁸ Jarosław Bąbka,³⁹ Zenon Gajdzica,⁴⁰ Katarzyna Parys,⁴¹ and others also point to the unfavourable position of a child with a disability in the class.

Another argument was the presence of a supporting teacher and specialists prepared to work with a child with disabilities:

“[...] a child with disabilities can live and learn with children without disabilities and has constant aid from a supporting teacher”, “In an integrated school, students have the opportunity to work together and at the same time have access to professional help, which is not available in mainstream schools”.

Another argument is their own experience of integrated school education:

“I myself attended an integrated school and saw how well children work together and I know that for those of us without disabilities

³⁸ K. Ćwirynkało, A. Żyta, „Przekonania nauczycieli na temat edukacji włączającej uczniów ze specjalnymi potrzebami edukacyjnymi. Raport z badań”, *Szkoła Specjalna*, 2015, no. 4.

³⁹ J. Bąbka, „Psychologiczne aspekty efektywności edukacji dzieci w systemie integracyjnym”, [in:] Z. Kazanowski, D. Osik-Chudowolska (eds.), *Integracja osób niepełnosprawnych w edukacji i integracjach społecznych*, Wyd. UMCS Lublin 2003.

⁴⁰ Z. Gajdzica, „Opinie nauczycieli szkół ogólnodostępnych na temat edukacji włączającej uczniów z lekkim upośledzeniem umysłowym w kontekście toczące się reformy kształcenia specjalnego”, [in:] Z. Gajdzica (ed.), *Uczeń z niepełnosprawnością w szkole ogólnodostępnej*, Oficyna Wydawnicza Humanitas, Sosnowiec 2011.

⁴¹ K. Parys, „Gotowość młodzieży gimnazjalnej do integracji pozaszkolnej z niepełnosprawnymi rówieśnikami”, [in:] J. Szempruch (ed.), *Edukacja wobec wyzwań i zadań współczesności i przyszłości*, Wyd. UR, Rzeszów 2006.

working with those with disabilities is a good experience”, “I learned how to accept people with disabilities and treat them as equals”, “[...] it was there that I learned that there is no difference between me and a person with disabilities”.

Some respondents believe that an integrated school is better for a student with disabilities than a mainstream school, justifying their choice:

“In an integrated school, students have better access to specialist teaching aids than in a mainstream school, and classes are smaller”, “Students with disabilities often cannot cope with the conditions of a general school, which makes them feel worse and separate from the group”, “[...] the student does not feel the stress of not keeping up with the material and has contact with children without disabilities, like in a mainstream school”, “I think that an integrated school would be a better choice because a mainstream school does not fully meet the needs of a child with disabilities”.

The surveyed students also drew attention to the stigma of the special education school:

“Often the very name ‘special education school’ has a negative impact on young people. Children from special education schools are often stigmatised and considered worse than others”, “[...] in such a school, the students are not labelled and segregated. Everyone needs contact and no one wants to be excluded”.

One in five respondents (22%) indicated a special education school as their preference. Justifying their choice, they most often pointed to the high quality of special school education, good preparation of the school, infrastructure, curricula for the needs of students with disabilities and high-quality specialist staff fully prepared to work with students with various disabilities.

“Special education schools are best prepared for the needs of children with disabilities. Personnel are trained accordingly. A child can develop and learn in an individual way”, “I believe that there is a specialised teaching staff in a special education school, students are under the best

care because teachers are specially prepared to work with such children", "Teachers in a special school better understand students with disabilities and can satisfy their needs better than in a mainstream school", "I choose a special education school because such a school is prepared for the various problems of children with disabilities. The teaching staff, apart from the appropriate qualifications, is also more open, which facilitates contact with these students", "The special education school is the best in my opinion because it creates appropriate conditions for the development and self-development of the child, compensates for deficiencies and helps with comprehensive development", "In the special education school the student with a disability has full support from specialists".

Another factor deciding about the selection of a special school was the smaller number of students in classes. The respondents justified their choice in this way:

"Students learn in smaller classes than in mainstream schools, so the teacher can reach each student individually. Education at such a school is accessible to the student". "In my opinion, the best form is a special education school because the student has opportunities for better development. The schools use special teaching methods led by specialists, as well as adapted classrooms and smaller class sizes, which results in a better focus on each student".

A significant number of respondents, when selecting the special education school, pointed to the lack of acceptance of students with disabilities by their peers without disabilities in mainstream schools:

"[...] in a special education school, the child with a disability is among other sick people, and so they do not feel rejected", "The child feels better among peers who have similar problems", "The student feels at ease, it does not matter that they are different", "In such a school, there is no aggression against people with disabilities by healthy peers", "The special education school meets all the needs of children with disabilities. There they are not ridiculed, pointed at", "[...] I am afraid that in integrated schools, and especially in mainstream schools, healthy

children are not able to fully accept a peer with disabilities“, “In a special education school, the child will not have to fear rejection or lack of acceptance by other peers“, “In a mainstream school, students are suppressed by healthy people, which can cause a sense of inferiority“, “[...] in a special education school, there is no risk of ridicule, rejection or abuse of students with disabilities by healthy children“, “students with disabilities have more difficulties in learning, so they cannot keep up with others and in the mainstream school, they would feel worse, so I believe that the special education school is better for them because there, they can work at their own pace“, “in a special education school, a student with a disability is among their own and does not feel alienated, especially when, for example, they are the only one in a class in a mainstream school“.

The respondents’ concerns about the lack of acceptance of students with disabilities in mainstream schools have been confirmed by research conducted both in the past decades and at present time. They reveal that these students are exposed to rejection and isolation. Maria Chodkowska’s research shows that 69% of students with disabilities are rejected in mainstream classes by peers without disabilities.⁴² Anna Zamkowska’s research on the functioning of students with mild intellectual disabilities in mainstream schools shows that 30% of them are rejected and 20% are isolated by their classmates without disabilities, which confirms the low social status of this group of students in mainstream schools.⁴³ Adam Mikrut presents similar conclusions on the basis of his research, which shows intensified manifestations of various types of aggression and inter-peer violence against students with mild intellectual disabili-

⁴² M. Chodkowska, „Problemy pedagogicznego wsparcia uczniów z niepełnością intelektualną w zakresie społecznego funkcjonowania w klasie szkolnej“, [in:] Z. Palak, Z. Bartkiewicz (eds.), *Wsparcie społeczne w rehabilitacji i resocjalizacji*, Wyd. UMCS, Lublin 2004.

⁴³ A. Zamkowska, „Psychospołeczne i edukacyjne funkcjonowanie ucznia z upośledzeniem umysłowym w stopniu lekkim w szkole ogólnodostępnej“, [in:] Z. Gajdzica (ed.), *Wspólne i swoiste zagadnienia edukacji i rehabilitacji osób z upośledzeniem umysłowym*, Wyd. Humanitas, Sosnowiec 2008, pp. 61–79.

ties attending mainstream schools.⁴⁴ This is also confirmed by data from the report on the implementation of Article 24 of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in Poland, prepared within the project „Wdrażanie Konwencji o Prawach Osób Niepełnosprawnych – wspólna sprawa” [Implementation of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities – a common cause], according to which “All respondents confirmed a higher risk of discrimination against students with disabilities compared to their peers without disabilities. The most common justifications relate to social attitudes towards people with disabilities, stereotypical media coverage and dogmatism in education”.⁴⁵ According to Amadeusz Krause, “the essential advantages of a special education school – ‘being among one’s own’ – should take precedence over other arguments as long as inclusive education means the dubious pleasure of “being among others”.⁴⁶

The least frequently indicated form of education was the mainstream school. Only 13% of respondent chose it as the best for a student with disabilities. They justified their choice of this form of education as follows:

In a mainstream school, a child can count on the help of their peers in addition to the help of teachers”, “A child has the opportunity to grow up among healthy peers and will not feel like they’re an outsider, like they’re worse. The child will have the opportunity to pick up correct patterns of behaviour and social norms”, “In a mainstream school the

⁴⁴ A. Mikrut, „Uczniowie z upośledzeniem umysłowym jako ofiary międzyrównieżniczej przemocy i agresji w szkole ogólnodostępnej – wstępne rozeznanie problemu”, [in:] Z. Gajdzica, A. Klinik, *Wątki zaniedbane, zaniechane, nieobecne w procesie edukacji i wsparcia społecznego osób niepełnosprawnych*, Wyd. Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, Katowice 2004.

⁴⁵ „Report on the implementation of Article 24 of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in Poland, prepared as part of the ‘Implementation of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities – a common case’ project” <https://www.dzp.pl/files/shares/Publikacje/Raport_tematyczny_art.24.pdf> [accessed 8.08. 2019].

⁴⁶ A. Krause, *Współczesne paradygmaty pedagogiki specjalnej*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2011, p. 71.

child has contact with other people and peers. The earlier they come into contact with the environment and understand it, the better off they will be in the future”, “The presence of healthy children alongside children with disabilities positively affects their further development, especially in the social aspect”, “After attending a mainstream school, a child will not have a difficult start in independent adult life”, “[...] after attending a mainstream school, students with disabilities will find it easier in the future to adapt to life in society, and healthy students will find it easier to understand the essence of disability”, [...] the student will not feel like they stand out in society. They will be able to keep up with their peers to the best of their abilities”.

Some respondents justified their choice of a mainstream school with their own experiences:

“There were students with disabilities at my school, so it was easier for us to adapt and it was normal to be around people with disabilities. Everyone treated each other as equal”, “The mainstream school will prepare such a student for independent living, except in such a school you need to make other students aware of the person who will be with them in the class, what limitations they have, and how they can help that person”, “Every person with a disability has the right to study in a mainstream school and they cannot be blocked or prohibited from it. I went to such a school myself. Learning together teaches tolerance, mutual help and acceptance. After attending such a school, people with disabilities are better adapted to life in society”, “I think this is the best choice because the child does not feel ‘different’, they have friends among peers without disabilities. I myself attended such a school and had friends with disabilities”.

The European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education holds a similar position. A report the agency compiled presents the benefits of such inclusion for students with disabilities. “These benefits include: increased appreciation and acceptance of individual differences and diversity, respect for all people, preparation for adult life in an inclusive society and opportunities to master activities by practising and teaching others”.⁴⁷

⁴⁷ European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2014. Five Key Messages for Inclusive Education. Putting Theory into Practice. Odense, Denmark:

A small group of respondents argued their choice using support and understanding of the idea of inclusion and accepting diversity:

“Only a mainstream school enables full social development of a student with disabilities because it reflects the society in which the student lives every day”, “Such a solution is beneficial for all because a mainstream school, according to the idea of inclusion, eliminates exclusion and social barriers, and additionally allows learning mutual acceptance. It is important that the institution prepares for the child, and not the other way around”, “Thanks to attending a mainstream school, the child does not have a ‘patch’ of a special education school and has a greater chance of functioning as close as possible to healthy people”, “A student with a disability is not excluded from the environment, they have contact with people without disabilities, which means they can count on understanding and support from healthy people. This also teaches healthy people that despite differences, we all have the same rights”.

The analysis of the collected material has shown a consensus regarding the selection of the best system for students with disabilities. Respondents from all the studied fields of study indicated an integrated school as the best form of education, followed by a special education school. In the opinion of the surveyed groups, the least advantageous form of education for a student with disabilities is a mainstream school. As Katarzyna Ćwirynkało and Agnieszka Żyta point out, “despite the various positive aspects of this form of education being noted, it is not free from criticism. Similarly to other forms, it does not automatically lead to the elimination of educational obstacles”.⁴⁸ Dorota Kornas-Biela believes that the essence of these difficulties lies not only in the limited abilities of people with disabilities, but also in the attitudes of people without disabilities

European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, p. 14. <<http://www.european-agency.org/sites/default/files/Five%20Key%20Messages%20for%20Inclusive%20Education.pdf>> [accessed on 6.12.2019].

⁴⁸ K. Ćwirynkało, A. Żyta, „Przekonania nauczycieli na temat edukacji włączającej uczniów ze specjalnymi potrzebami edukacyjnymi. Raport z badań”, *Szkola Specjalna*, 2015, no 4, p. 246.

towards them.⁴⁹ Despite the fact that the vast majority of respondents decided that shared education of students with and without disabilities is beneficial for both groups,⁵⁰ the presented research results do not confirm these declarations and may serve as an example of subtle marginalisation and infrahumanisation, which allows the author to state that the thesis put forward in the introduction – that the condition for effective inclusive education is, first of all, maturity to diversity and internal consent to it, which is reflected in the attitudes accepting students with disabilities in a public school space.

Conclusions

The presented research results and their analysis do not justify generalisation of the problem, but they do signal the presence of subtle marginalisation and infrahumanisation, providing the basis for the statement that the above-mentioned phenomena are present both in actions in relation to people with disabilities and in thinking about them. When perceiving the welfare of people with disabilities, we do so from our own perspective. Often this perspective is not objective enough, because seen through the eyes of a person without disabilities, it misses the expectations of the people with disabilities themselves. We want to construct their world from the perspective of our own experiences, which generates conflicts and misunderstandings and promotes marginalisation. The analysis of students' statements concerning the justification for choosing the best form of education for students with disabilities reveals a picture of "us" – those without disabilities and "them" – people with

⁴⁹ D. Kornas-Biela, „Przekraczanie barier edukacyjnych w ujęciu pedagogiki niepełnosprawności Jeana Vaniera: inspiracje biograficzne”, [in:] W. Żłobicki, B. Maj (eds.), *Nierówności szans edukacyjnych. Przyczyny, skutki, koncepcje zmian*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2012.

⁵⁰ 82% of the respondents answered *definitely yes*, 15% *rather yes*, 3% *rather no*. None of the respondents indicated the answer *definitely not*.

disabilities, whom we are still not able to fully accept in different areas of our lives. The presented opinions of students of pedagogical faculties show that by declaring a positive attitude towards shared education of students with and without disabilities, we find problems by means of which, under the guise concern for the welfare of people with disabilities, we subject them to inhumanisation, attributing less favourable features to those who are "Other-Alien". Similar conclusions were drawn by J. Hughes, whose research on teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education showed that, despite the declared support for this idea, most teachers believe that mainstream schools are not the best place for children with disabilities.⁵¹ Beliefs and knowledge about disability will be conducive to certain behaviours. People tend to classify others according to categories, which favours intra-group assimilation and inter-group contrast. A person without a disability classifies a person with a disability as an "Other".⁵² Disability becomes a kind of label that creates categories and separates "us" from "them". The "Other" is the worse one, who needs to be helped, with whom we need to integrate, for whom we create special facilities so that they can function similarly to "us".

Teresa Żółkowska believes that despite changes in special education terminology (less marked), emerging concepts of integration, normalisation, independent living, changing living conditions, there are no changes at the level of relations, changes in the world of values. Despite progress, we have not achieved a satisfactory level of social participation of people with disabilities.⁵³ Our mentality and perception of people with disabilities as weaker, worse is still the greatest barrier. We continue to subject this group to subtle marginalisation and inhumanisation, attributing to it less advantageous features that prove the lack of independence and the possibility of

⁵¹ J. Hughes, "Inclusive education for individuals with Down syndrome", *Down syndrome News and Update*, 2006, pp. 1-3.

⁵² M. Bełza, *Ableizm a zjawisko...*, op. cit., p. 81.

⁵³ T. Żółkowska, *Normalizacja niedokończona teoria...*, op. cit., p. 88.

making their own choices. And so, are we ready for diversity, for living together in the same social life space, with the same rights? Together, not next to each other. Together, not as “us” and “them” – people with or without disabilities.

“We are all different, but we all live together on the same Earth, under one sky. It is worthwhile to conduct a dialogue between people of different faiths, nationalities, races and views, between the poor and the rich, between people with and without disabilities, old and young, people from the city and the countryside. Such a conversation will change us and others, such a conversation will change the world. Dialogue is about building reciprocity.

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The child-nature-time relationship-New challenges for special education in the 21st century – study report

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The objective of the article is to show an individual's relationship with nature in the context of the nature deficit disorder. In light of the limited volume of Polish studies concerning children and nature, the author had conducted a study concerning the relationship between children with special education needs and nature. The research shown in this article is part of a broader study conducted by the author of the article and concerning the nature deficit disorder.

KEY WORDS: nature, child, time, nature deficit disorder, sustainable development, special education

“Undergrowth, shrubbery, meadows, and rushes...
everything I say to you is a monologue,
and it is not you who's listening.
A conversation with you is necessary and impossible,
urgent in a hurried life
and postponed for never”.

*Wisława Szymborska*¹

¹ W. Szymborska, *The Silence of Plants*, transl. by Joanna Trzeciak <<https://www.poetrynook.com/poem/silence-plants>>.

Introduction

The concept of “nature” stems from the Latin word *nasce*, which means that which has grown, which has emerged of itself, without human intervention, what was left to develop on its own.² “In its broader meaning, *nature* encompasses the material world along with all its objects and phenomena [...] in another meaning, nature is open space, according to this concept, the construct of man does not form a part of nature and is distinct from it”.³ In recent years, a reconfiguration took place of the relationship that exists between man and nature, through the discourse on sustainable growth, which was defined as one that corresponds to the present needs of man without the need to limit the capacities of future generations to satisfy their needs. 193 member states of the United Nations Organisation have achieved an agreement on the objectives and tasks of sustainable development, which finds its reflection in the document: “Transforming our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development”. Development requires joint effort in the establishment of a future that is sustainable and resistant to catastrophes for all people in the world and for our planet. In order to achieve sustainable development, the congruence of three key components is required: economic growth, social inclusion, environmental protection.⁴

In the opinion of Ewa Szadzińska, the ecological aspect of sustainable development currently dominates formal environmental/ecological education in Poland. Within informal education in turn, it is primarily the social aspect of sustainable growth that attracts the most attention; it is referred to as global education [...] Contempo-

² E. Włodarczyk, *Kultura*, [in:] *Encyklopedia Pedagogiczna XXI wieku. vol. 2, G-L*. ed. by E. Adamczuk, Wydawnictwo Akademickie „Żak”, Warszawa 2003, p. 950.

³ R. Louv, *Ostanie dziecko lasu. Jak uchronić dzieci przed zespołem deficytu natury*, Mamania, Grupa wydawnicza Relacja, Warszawa 2008, p. 22.

⁴ <<http://www.unic.un.org.pl/strony-2011-2015/zrownowazony-rozwoj-i-cele-zrownowazonego-rozwoju/2860>> [30.05.2019].

raneously, people engaged in solving ecological, economic and social problems refer to the idea of sustainable growth.⁵

According to Richard Louv, contemporary people spend less and less time surrounded by nature. According to studies from the United States, children spend less and less time playing outside and playing freely [...] Jane Clark refers to contemporary children as “containerised kids” – as in their opinion, entire generations of children are not only grown at home, but also within an ever smaller space. Children spend more and more time “in car seats, in high chairs or even in special chairs for watching television [...] the chasm between childhood and nature is only a part of a greater dysfunction – the physical limitation of childhood in an urbanised world”.⁶

A dispute has been going on for a long time whether time and space are absolute entities with their own nature, or whether they are derivative entities. Time limits human activity more strictly than money, as it passes inevitably and subordinates everyone to its passing: neither people nor animals or any other organisms may escape the passage of time.⁷ The need of time – free, unordered time to dream – to experience nature in a deeper way.⁸

The deep bond with nature is established mainly on the basis of direct, multi-sensual experiences, from time spent in the courtyard or just the yard, to weekends spent in the park and on occasional trips to nowhere. The deep understanding of nature must take place multi-sensually [...] However, we primarily have to encourage people to spend time in the natural environment.⁹

⁵ E. Szadzińska, *Zrównoważony rozwój inspiracją dla zmian w edukacji wczesnoszkolnej*, „Lubelski Rocznik Pedagogiczny” 2017, vol. XXXVI, issue 1, p. 30.

⁶ R. Louv, *Ostanie dziecko lasu. Jak uchronić dzieci przed zespołem deficytu natury*, Mamania, Grupa wydawnicza Relacja, Warszawa 2008, pp. 52–54.

⁷ P. Macnaghten, J. Urry, *Alternatywne Przyrody. Nowe myślenie o przyrodzie i społeczeństwie*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe SCHOLAR, Warszawa 2005, pp. 184–191.

⁸ R. Louv, *Ostanie dziecko lasu. Jak uchronić dzieci przed zespołem deficytu natury*, Mamania, Grupa wydawnicza Relacja, Warszawa 2008, p. 148.

⁹ D. Scott Sampson, *Kalosze pełne kijanek. Jak dzięki rozwijaniu miłości do przyrody wychować kreatywne, odważne i odpowiedzialne dziecko*, Wydawnictwo Vivante, Białystok 2016, pp. 79–80.

Werner Michl, author of the model of learning by experiment, developed descriptions of relations between activity and cognition and the transfer of what was learned into everyday life. Within the context of getting to know the world of nature and spreading the idea of returning to nature, this model seems to be very interesting. Its roots reach back to the paedagogy of experiences, which based on the holistic approach, describes its goal as enabling the individual to learn directly on the basis of new experiences, while engaging the emotional, intellectual sphere, and through practical activity.¹⁰

Werner Michl notes that the process of acquisition of new experiences should take place under the guidance of a mentor or best – a companion, and be composed of the following parts:

- Event (activity, action, undertaking, taking place in the natural environment; the activity can be planned as well as spontaneous; the situation that the participants of the event are faced with should constitute an opportunity at discovery of new areas of one's capacities).
- Event experience (supposed to evoke engagement, cause emotions, self-reflection, personal experiences).
- Personal experience (mode of expression of one's own opinion, statement and sharing personal experiences with others).
- Cognition (knowledge gained in this way is subjected to objectivisation, ordered knowledge should be transferable to the everyday life of the person making the experience).
- Werner Michl stresses that a balance should be maintained between events, event experiences, personal experiences and cognition.¹¹

R. Louv was the first to formulate the concept of the Nature deficit disorder, which “describes the price that humanity pays for turning away from nature: reduced use of senses, attention deficit,

¹⁰ M. Meyer, *Pedagogika przeżywania*, [in:] Adamczuk E. (ed.), *Encyklopedia Pedagogiczna XXI wieku*, vol. 4, Wydawnictwo Akademickie „Żak”, Warszawa 2003, pp. 239–242.

¹¹ R. Ryszka, *Pedagogika przeżyć praktycznie. O nowej metodzie pracy grupowej*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2016, pp. 63–65.

more frequent physical and mental diseases [...] the deficit of nature can change human behaviour in cities, but also the way cities are planned out".¹² Contact with nature is a need of the 21st century individual in order for them to find a balance between modern technology and that which is natural and our cultural heritage. The establishment of pro-environment attitudes in children and adults also necessitates this special bond with nature that will make us feel responsible for the fate and condition of the world around us. Every contact of a child with animals, plants, with components of inanimate nature [...] is a meeting with its environment of life. Children grow into it, learn its laws and phenomena. [...] By its nature, the child is a keen observer, a diligent researcher, and their learning takes on diverse forms, both of spontaneous searches as well as systemic work under the guidance of a parent or teacher.¹³

Own research methodology

The main objective of the presented research was to check, what are the properties of the contact of children with special education needs with the world of nature in the context of free play in the open, in natural space, according to the concept of S.D. Sampson on the establishment of a deep bond with nature on the basis of direct, multi-sensual experiences that arise in the time spent in the yard, the park and in other green areas. Significantly important components of research are also the availability of green spaces, the distance between the place of residence and playgrounds, parental fears related to the child remaining outdoors as well as outside activities that families prefer in the weekends. Empirical material for the analysis was acquired during survey evaluations via a questionnaire. The study was conducted in the year 2019 in the second

¹² R. Louv, *Ostanie dziecko lasu. Jak uchronić dzieci przed zespołem deficytu natury*, Mamania, Grupa wydawnicza Relacja, Warszawa 2008, p. 54.

¹³ A. Budniak, *Edukacja społeczno-przyrodnicza dzieci w wieku przedszkolnym i młodszym wieku szkolnym*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2012, p. 162.

half of April, in the Silesian voivodeship of Poland, which is characterised by a high level of urbanisation and the fifth rank among all voivodeships in Poland by forest area (403.8 thousand hectares).¹⁴

The study was responded to by mothers at 100%, even though this was not the objective of the author, and the surveys were aimed at both parents.

The study saw the participation of 110 parents of children with special education needs, with the exclusion of children with motor system dysfunctions and deep intellectual disability (it was important for the purpose of the study for the children to be able to freely move about and, to the greatest possible extent, spend time independently playing freely in natural space). 53% of the children concerned by the study attended preschool, 18.8% attended primary school – forms I-III, 21% attended forms VI-IV of primary school and 6.2% attended forms VII-VIII of primary school.

The surveyed persons reside in the following types of localities: towns of up to 20,000 inhabitants – 39.4%, towns up to 100,000 inhabitants – 12.1%, cities above 100,000 inhabitants – 30.3%, rural areas – 18.2%.

An analysis was conducted of the distance between the place of residence of the surveyed parents and the nearest playground. The most numerous group of parents surveyed, 34%, indicated that the next playground is ten minutes away from home, 25% parents had their closest playground five minutes away from home, and 18.8% can see the playground from the window, 21% of the surveyed does not have a playground near their place of residence.

The distance between the place of residence of the surveyed persons to the forest breaks down as follows: five-minute walk – 34.4%, ten-minute walk – 21.9%, up to a 30-minute drive – 18.8%, a 15–20-minute walk – 15.6%, only 9.4% of those surveyed stated that the forest is far away from the locality they live in. The group was chosen

¹⁴ Data from a publication by Statistics Poland and the Department of Agriculture: Forestry 2015. Information and statistical study, also available under <stat.gov.pl> [19.08.2019].

purposefully, with the criterion being having a son or daughter with special education needs. The research presented in the article was conducted according to the quantitative research paradigm.

Study results

Diagram no. 1 shows test results, with the objective being to show the total time the children spend outside, paying freely after the time spent at school or at preschool, during learning weekdays. As the diagram shows, the most of those surveyed selected the response of one hour, 31.3% of those surveyed. The second most popular response given by the parents was the statement that the children spend two hours a week outside – 25%. 15.6% of children spend 30 minutes outside, with 15.5% of children going outside during school days for less than 30 minutes. The least children spend three hours and more outside – only 12.5%.

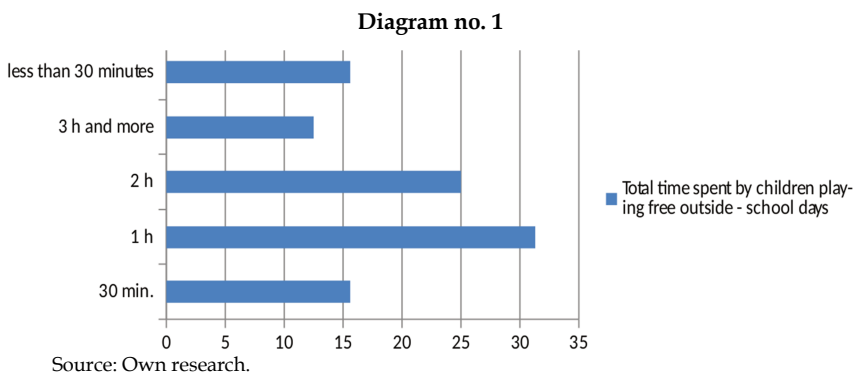
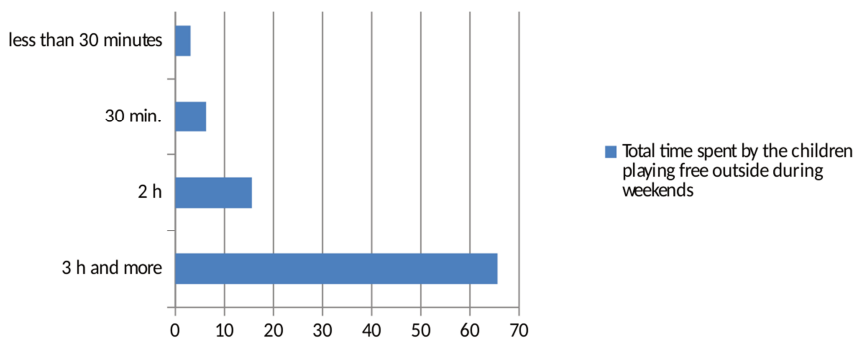


Diagram no. 2 shows the total time spend by the children outside in weekends, during free play in the open. The majority of persons among the surveyed parents responded by saying: three hours or more – at 65.6%, the second most popular answer was two hours, as

given by 15.6% of respondents, 9.4% of children spend one hour outside in the weekends, 6.3% of children spend 30 minutes playing outside and just 3.1% spend less than 30 minutes outside, playing freely.

Diagram no. 2



Source: Own research.

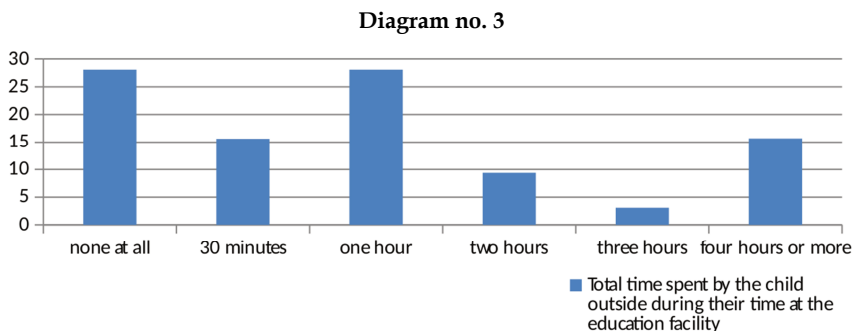
A significant topical area within the conducted research were fears declared by those surveyed related to their child remaining outside. Richard Louv believes that “fear is the strongest force that keeps parents from providing the children with the freedom they themselves enjoyed when they were little. Fear is an emotion that separates the child from all advantages from contact with nature that are necessary for correct development”.¹⁵ This question allowed the parents to select more than one answer. The two responses chosen most frequently are: Air purity/ smog – 56.3% – the study was conducted in Silesia, an area with particularly high air contamination levels¹⁶ – fears related to the safety of the child, being accosted by third parties, etc. – 56.3%. The next most popular responses are: child safety, fears related to dangerous ideas of children during play

¹⁵ R. Louv, *Ostanie dziecko lasu. Jak uchronić dzieci przed zespołem deficytu natury*, Mamania, Grupa wydawnicza Relacja, Warszawa 2008, p. 155.

¹⁶ <<https://airly.eu/pl>> [19.08.2019].

- 21.9%, with those surveyed also indicating lack of peers of the child, with whom they could play, in the closest vicinity; parents also exhibit fears related to diseases and those related to children not remaining outside frequently enough - 3.1%, as well as the dislike of the child getting dirty - 3.1%.

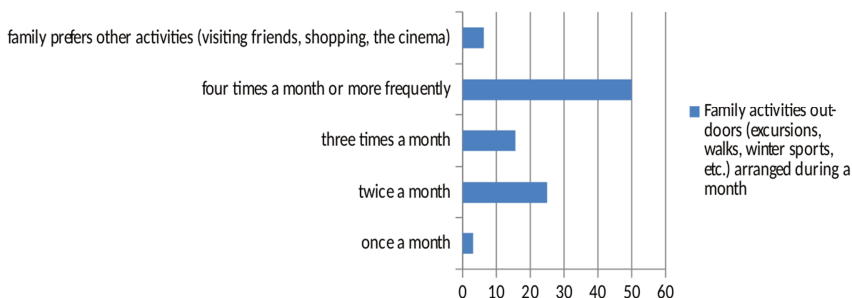
A further issue of importance for the conducted study was to check, how much time in total, in the opinion of parents, their children spend outside during activities organised at education facilities from Monday to Friday. The parents provided responses on the basis of their knowledge concerning the current schoolyear. The most frequent responses were: one hour (28.1%) and no time at all (28.1%), and then, in order: four hours and more (15.7%), 30 minutes (15.6%), two hours (9.4%), three hours (3.1%). The results are visualised in diagram no. 3.



Source: Own research.

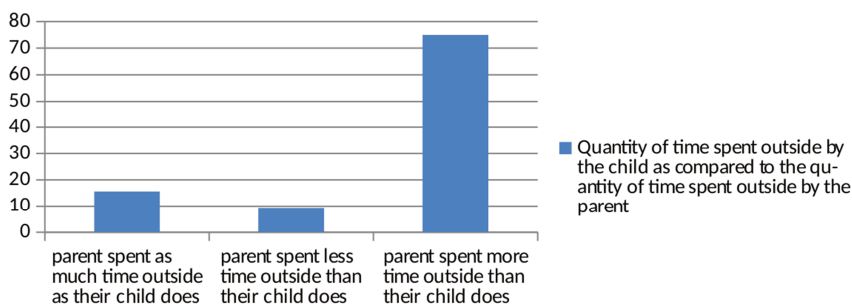
Then, a test was done how frequently in the month the respondents pick family activities outside (trips, walks, winter and summer sports, etc.). The results are presented in diagram no. 4. The most frequent responses were: four times a month and more, picked by 50% of those surveyed; then follow: twice a month - 25% of responses; three times a month (15.6% responses); 6.3% stated that they prefer other activities (visiting friends, the cinema, shopping), with just 3.1% of those surveyed organising trips once per month.

Diagram no. 4



Source: Own research.

Diagram no. 5



Source: Own research.

The study used reminiscences related to the childhood of the surveyed parents; they were asked about the relationship between the time spent by the parent during free play outside in their childhood and the time the child spends on independent, spontaneous play in the open. 75% of the surveyed parents stated that their child spends less time outside than they did when they were children; 15.6% of parents indicated that the child spends as much time outside as they did, and just 9.4% of the surveyed parents spent less time outside than their child does. The results are visualised in diagram no. 5, below.

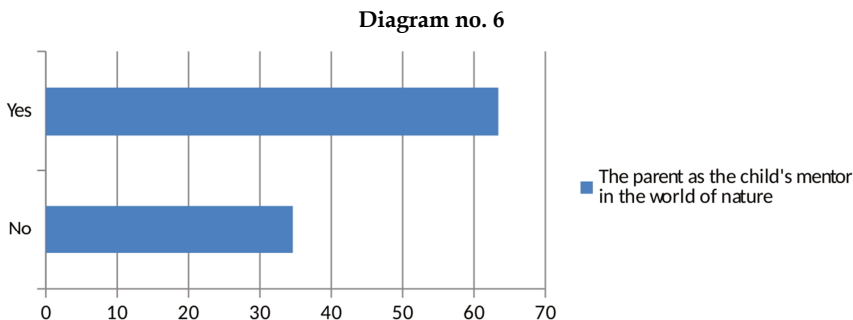
The parents were also asked to write a few sentences on their childhood in the context of spending time outside, in nature, playing with friends and acquaintances, doing sports outside, etc.

The most frequent answers are quoted below:

- *We remained outside practically non stop,*
- *I spent a lot of time outside*
- *Those were the days...*
- *I spent time outside with my cousins. We spent time very actively, always playing ball, riding bicycles, swimming in the nearby river.*
- *This was the main form of spending free time. With friends, one could spend hours on end outside practically without any toys or equipment at one's disposal. It was great!*
- *I spent a lot of time outside; we had a house with a garden, right now I live in a block of flats.*
- *During childhood I spent a lot of time playing outside close to our home, my cousin and my siblings accompanied me frequently. We organised our playing ourselves.*
- *I spent a lot more time outside playing with my peers. We used to jump rope for hours, we played hopscotch, played with bottle tops. We used to run around the forest and the neighbourhood. We played on the carpet rack and hide-and-peek. There was no boredom!*
- *A lot of time with parents – playing, on walks; sleighing, ice-skating, playing in the snow together...*

The surveyed parents were asked whether they feel to be guides in the world of nature for their child (e.g. they spend time together outside, discuss topics related to nature, organise excursions to the park, the forest, the river, watch flora and fauna, talk about the customs of animals, learn names and properties of plants, collect stones, shells, describe and explain observed natural phenomena, etc.), with respect to the concept of the *mentor of nature* as formulated by Scott D. Sampson. Mentors of nature, guides in the world of nature "listen actively and pose questions, encourage children to tell stories about their adventures with nature and listen in closely to them [...] they offer children their attention and reinforce the process of bonding

with nature".¹⁷ The decisive majority (63.7%) stated that they experience the world of nature together with the child, being their guide; 34.3% of those surveyed did not feel they were guides in the world of nature. The research results are visualised in diagram no. 6.



Source: Own research.

The surveyed parents were asked to write, how they spend time outside, surrounded by nature, with their family.¹⁸ The most frequent statements are indicated below:

- *Walks in the forest, outings to the playground, trips to parks and other cities, trips to the zoo, barbecue on our recreational lot, playing in the garden, trips to rivers, lakes.*
- *Walks in the park, the children playing on the playground, cycling, short trips on foot, sometimes trips to the forest and in the weekend – to the mountains. In winter, playing in the snow, sleighing if the weather allows this.*

¹⁷ D. Scott Sampson, *Kalosz pęte kijanek. Jak dzięki rozwijaniu miłości do przyrody wychować kreatywne, odważne i odpowiedzialne dziecko*, Wydawnictwo Vivante, Białystok 2016, p. 98.

¹⁸ D. Scott Sampson, *Kalosz pęte kijanek. Jak dzięki rozwijaniu miłości do przyrody wychować kreatywne, odważne i odpowiedzialne dziecko*, Wydawnictwo Vivante, Białystok 2016, p. 98.

- *Trips to the wild, work in the garden, skiing trips, cycling trips, rollerblading.*
- *I played often in the forest that directly adjoined grandma's house and in her home garden, together with cousins. Our house was part of a settlement, after school I always spent time outside with my friends; cycling, long walks across nearby fields.*
- *Work in the garden, skiing, downhill skiing, walks, walks in the forest, mushroom picking, mountain excursions.*
- *Walks in the forest, playing on the playground, planting in the garden, trips to the lake, playing badminton, cycling and rollerblading.*
- *Walks, the pool in the summer, frequent cycling.*

Summary and conclusions

As the conducted research shows, the total time declared by parents that children spend outside on school days is mostly one hour (31.3%) or two hours (25%), so one can assume that there are days, when children do not venture outside at all or spend 15–30 minutes in the open daily. This is a topical area requiring further research, and results obtained up to now may be considered troubling in the context of the nature exclusion syndrome.

In the weekends, the children mostly spend three hours or more outside, as 65.6% of the surveyed parents stated; this would indicate that free time in the weekends is much more frequently related to outside activities.

Parental fears related to the child spending time outside are most commonly related to air quality and smog (56.3%) and child safety, being accosted by unknown persons, etc. (56.3%); what's interesting, 21.9% of the surveyed persons indicate child safety, fears related to safety, related to „strange/ dangerous“ ideas that children get during play. „In our culture, we fear too much and are overly protective of children [...] whereas they are able to pick the level of risk suitable to their skills [...] in the process of development frustrations are also necessary, meaning, the experience of

pain and failure".¹⁹ This is a further interesting field for further study from the perspective of parental attitudes with respect to time spent by children in nature.

The frequency of organisation of family activities outside per month is most commonly four times or more (50% responses); just 6.3% of those surveyed preferred other activities (visiting acquaintances, the cinema, shopping), with just 3.1% of those surveyed organising trips once per month.

The results of the study on the relationship between the time spent by the parent in their childhood outside to the time the child presently spends outside playing, it was noted that even 75% of the analysed parents stated that their child spends less time outside than they did in their childhood; 15.6% of parents indicated that the child spends as much time outside as they did, and just 9.4% of those surveyed spent less time outside than their child does. These results show a disconcerting tendency towards a drastic reduction of the time the children spend outside.

The written statements made by parents on the time they spent outside during their childhood give rise to a certain notion of longing for this period of life, as well as the perception of changes in terms of generations, civilisation and culture, concerning the ever quicker pace of life and its general quality.²⁰

The conducted study allows the conclusion that there exists a significant risk related to the deficit of contact with nature among Polish children; further research should be designed to encompass a much broader scale, testing not only parents and children with special education needs, to be followed by a comparative analysis.

¹⁹ R. Kulik, *Przyrodę trzeba mieć przede wszystkim ułożoną w sobie*, [in:] *W dziką stronę. Rozmowy o edukacji w przyrodzie*, Wydawnictwo Ośrodek Działań Ekologicznych „Źródła”, Łódź 2016, p. 50.

²⁰ After the survey, the parents frequently shared with the author their thoughts on the study, primarily related to the time their child spends among nature, saying that they were not aware of how little time their child spends playing outside as compared to the time when they were children; another reflection applied to independence and parental attitudes aiming towards their fullest possible protection.

The phenomenon of contact of the child with nature should be analysed in a broader context, taking into account not only aspects related to free play outside, thanks to which a bond is established with the world of nature, but also getting to know the fauna and flora, getting to know and understand natural phenomena of animated and inanimate nature and issues of ecology. The concept of the mentor of nature must also be studied in more detail; their tasks and personal properties necessitate an analysis. A significant issue is checking the roles of teachers/ educators in terms of the natural and environmental awareness of children and their attitudes towards the world of nature.

Taking care of man's bond with nature counts among significant challenges of paedagogy and special paedagogy in the 21st century, because it does not occur only in the home, but also during classes at education facilities, where children should play, work and learn with as much contact with nature as possible – and where parents should learn good practices, patterns and inspirations to spend time with their children.

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The reflection paedagogy of Vasyl Sukhomlynsky and Janusz Korczak

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The subject of the analysis is the paedagogical thought of the leading representatives of the new education movement in Poland and in the Ukraine. The timeless character of their reflection paedagogy was exemplified by the orphans' home of Warsaw, Poland, and the School of Joy in Pavlysh, Ukraine, the organisational solutions, rules of (self-)education, the system of social and moral standards bound educators the same way as they did those under their care. The phenomenon of the radical, unique approaches to supporting children, which they created, is a challenge for coming generations. With this work, I also open up the debate and the need for further research concerning the origins and consequences of transgression of state borders by paedagogical thought that constantly changes its approach to humanist paidocentric paedagogy in a world, in which authoritarian, directive or instrumental paedagogy continues to have a strong presence. In this regard, I focus primarily on the similarity of thought between both these educators, indicating the differences in their approach to the child.

KEY WORDS: self-education, education, upbringing, reflection paedagogy, paedagogy of experience, new education, paidocentrism, child-focused education, experimental school, paedagogy of the heart

Introduction

The paedagogical approaches of Janusz Korczak and Vasyl Sukhomlynsky were, in the 20th century, a type of liberal, domestic reflection on education founded on the idea of conscience and self-responsibility, subjectivity as well as the right of the child to a worthy life and education that was very rarely seen in literature. It was only the new century which, as a result of globalisation, fruited in the publication of literature that we refer to as practical or reflection paedagogy, hence, knowledge that is inductively generated by school reformer educators, creators of alternative schools and psychologists (mainly clinical psychologists dealing with therapy) about the upbringing and education of children. Timeless, universal interpretation by further generations of the works of both paedagogues makes their thought constantly transgress all borders of countries, cultures, nations, religions, ideologies or socio-political systems. The boldness of their remarks, suggestions or warnings, the distanced discovery of own weaknesses and true successes by educators of the heart leads by its very nature to infinity and differentiation of the reception of their works. Providing others with their experiences, they give rise to emotional and moral sensitivity, to hidden instincts or paedagogical talent. At the same time, they sketch out a circle of possible questions, doubts or aporiae that are borne out of paedagogical interactions between adults and children. The radicalism of thought, consequence in action and love in feeling and embracing mutual relations with children fruit in unique memory of meetings, touching the existential core of our personality. This is a constant search for a guarantee of human (also children's) freedom and the meaning of human life that in the works of Sukhomlynsky and Korczak are characterised by the optimistic belief in the goodness of human nature, with humans able to freely create values.

The paedagogy of these two creators, however, wouldn't have survived so long in our countries, characterised by a quite conservative approach to the education of children, were it not on the one

hand for the ever so broad, interdisciplinary studies of their thought, were it not for the popularisation of their results, the publication of their works and achievements, and, on the other hand, were it not for the intense development, following World War II, of anti-authoritarian paedagogy with subsequent generations of educators being reached by the works of such paedagogues as: Alexander Sutherland Neill (1991, 1994), Marian Bybluk (1990, 2018), Stanisław Ruciński (1988), Hubertus von Schönebeck (1991, 1994a, 1994b, 1997, 2001, 2009), Alice Miller (1991, 1995, 1999, 2000), Thomas Gordon (1991, 1994, 1995), Janusz Tarnowski (1990, 1993), Jadwiga Bińczycka (1997, 2009), Barbara Smolińska-Theiss (2013), Maria Łopatkowa (1992), Bogusław Śliwerski (1992, 1998, 2007). Both streams of creation of knowledge on education, hence, a unique cultural capital of paedagogy, encourage subsequent generations of researchers to uncover mechanisms of overt and covert force that gains its efficiency through the fact of being left unrecognised.

The relationship between theory and practice is formulated through islands of educational affirmation as resistance against paedagogy of force, authoritarian, directive paedagogy, and not just thanks to reconstruction and reprints of works and writings of paedagogues of the heart. Polish humanities have much in common with the achievements of Ukrainian philosophers, including philosophers of education. It is thus necessary to design common studies so as to be able to cooperate more closely in the area of science and the popularisation of the most interesting yet proven educational and school experiments. If, for Ukrainian paedagogy, the source of the culture of joy is shaping young generations that are strong through the belief in timeless ideas, thanks to which one becomes (...) *happy*, "*finding "joy" of the heart and peace of the soul* (W.G. Kremen' 2007, p. 134)¹, then we can boldly include the works of Polish humanists and breakthrough educators into scientific discourse.

¹ Except for the works *To Children I give my Heart* and *How to Love a Child*, all quotes translated into English by the translator of the original article from Polish – translator's note.

The extraordinary similarity between the paedagogies of Vasyľ Sukhomlynsky and Janusz Korczak

The works of Korczak, similarly to those of Sukhomlynsky, constitute paedagogical *savoir vivre*. These are guidebooks, written with great artistic talent and without excess didactic pressure, on appropriate behaviour, for parents, teachers, educators or caretakers of children and youths. In their works, the two authors do not stop at the critique of education practice, but treat it as a reality that is worthy of understanding through one's own engagement in it. Wincenty Okoń describes the school thought and experiment of V. Sukhomlynsky as the paedagogy of experience (W. Okoń 1997, p. 202). It constitutes quite a cautious mode of thinking, liberated from excess moralising, about how educators should proceed with respect to the ones under their care so as not to violate their mutual right to freedom and a worthy life.

Both Sukhomlynsky and Korczak number among the few educators of New Education who were able to infuse scientific thought with practical thought so that one would not complicate the other. At the same time, they avoided treating upbringing as something that should be scientifically studied beforehand in order for it to be provided with a practical meaning without reference to assumptions, behaviour patterns and understanding of objectives. Their works contain neither pure scientific empirical paedagogy nor exclusively normative speculation, nor meta-theoretic deconstruction, and despite this, their views fill, sharpen, simplify or illuminate the core of paedagogical phenomena in each of these approaches to upbringing and to its theoretical or practical substantiations.

The core and the objectives of education

In the approach of V. Sukhomlynsky: *Education consists first of all of continuous contact between teacher and pupil. (...) To educate children through their teachers, to teach teachers the science and art of educa-*

tion – this is important, but it is one side of the multi-faceted process of administering a school. If the head teacher only instructs others in the art of teaching but has no direct contact with children, then he ceases to be an educator (Sukhomlynsky 2019, p. 33). Similarly, Korczak was opposed to paedagogism, meaning, a utopian attitude of educators towards children, shining through in the conviction of the omnipotent influence on them, of the universal power to effect education alongside the rights of individual and social development discovered by nature. He confirms it in one of his works: *It is not just an empty saying, if I put it so: It is happiness for humanity if we cannot force children to submit to educational influences and didactic attacks on their healthy minds and healthy human will* (Korczak 1984, p. 124).

Sukhomlynsky sought explanations of phenomena that bothered him in the development or behaviour of children in scientific studies in medicine and psychology, but he also – just like Korczak did – diagnosed their family and health situations himself by way of observations, discussions with their family members, inclusion in creative activity, etc. *The life of Janusz Korczak and his feat of amazing moral strength and purity is an inspiration for me – writes Sukhomlynsky – I learned from him that to give children a genuine education one must give them one's heart* (Sukhomlynsky 2019, p. 39). Every day, as a teacher and head teacher, he verified and analysed his knowledge, skills, achievements, successes and failures.

This served the development of new forms and methods of working with children, so as to, bringing a spiritual union with them into existence, become their friend. *Direct everyday dealing with children is the source of thoughts, educational discoveries, joys, sorrows, and disillusionments. Without them, creativity is impossible in our line of work (...) Studying is important, but it is not the only thing in the life of the child. The more closely I examined all of which have come to be called the educational-upbringing process, the more convinced I became that the many-sided spiritual Life of the children's collective in which teacher and pupil are united by a multitude of interests and hobbies is the real school* (Sukhomlynsky 2019, p. 35).

Hence, if we bind the moral authority of both paedagogues with their ability to seek out and communicate the truth on education,

we shall find in their reflection the strength and power of argument not to succumb to threats or crises of the process irrespective of the circumstances that may accompany it – even in the postmodern world. Both paedagogues were able to let go of the “costume of obviousness” of conservative education science, making the conversion of the centric view on education and the persons participating in it, providing the recipients of their work with “new glasses” through which one should perceive the world of paedagogical interaction. Writing about how to love a child and on their right to respect, Korczak created in truth the paedagogy of a “new man”. Sukhomlynsky similarly created a school of instilment in children primarily of love for man, respect for human dignity: *The child must feel what is in the heart of the other person. Thus the important educational task I set for myself can be formulated* (Sukhomlynsky 2019, p. 132). Pupils must hence be reinforced in their own self-esteem.

As is clear, the approach to education of both these educators would not have been possible without true conversion, change, without *metanoia*, meaning, without a mental revolution in the dominant vision of the social and education world (P. Bourdieu, L.J.D. Wacquant 2001, p. 252). The reflective insight in their paedagogical practice and thought creates one of the strongest centres of a teacher or educator being “meta”, or above them, but at the same time also reflexively responsible for themselves. It is through control of perversions, pathologies, education crises (in education and following education) that they created for us resources (tools) to multiply and further develop humanistic education. Sukhomlynsky is aware of the dysfunctions of the traditional, authoritarian school and the improper attitudes of teachers with respect to pupils. In his words, using the wonderful metaphor: *The teacher wants the child to answer the question, more quickly; it matters little how the child thinks-he must have an answer then and there so he can give a mark. It has never occurred to the teacher that it is impossible to speed up the flow of this slow but mighty river. Let this river flow in accordance with its nature; her waters will surely reach the destination, but don't hurry. Please don't get nervous; don't beat this mighty river with birch switches of bad marks-nothing will help* (Sukhomlynsky 2019, p. 76).

Both Korczak and Sukhomlynsky relieve us from misconceptions on education and educators. Their every step should be – as Sukhomlynsky writes – (...) *our journey to the sources of thought and speech, to the miraculous beauty of nature. I would see to it that every one of my pupils grow up into a reflective and searching person, so that every step to knowledge would ennoble the heart and temper the will* (Sukhomlynsky 2019, p. 62). The core of education becomes the task of guaranteeing to the young generation of worthy conditions for joyous living. It is somewhat of a preventive, but also a therapeutic, task, as it boils down to supporting the internal development of children and youths, the acquisition of self-awareness and strengthening of their independence and liberation from social, external care or welfare. Education situations should thus be characterised by oscillation between the individual shaping of personality and constructive forming of the world in a way that people would change in course of the social relations they create.

The views of Sukhomlynsky and Korczak most commonly presented in paedagogical discourse are those that expose the educational imperative of the individual approach to every child, its unique role in social life, including the particularly accented category of the natural rights of the child, which, in the ontological perspective, are identical to the rights of adults. Indeed, a child cannot be an addition to adult lives, much less the object of their manipulation, but a self-contained force and value that must be reckoned with. Both oppose generalisation, absolutisation of children in general, as in truth, the process of education always concerns dealing with a specific individual.

Sources of paedagogical anthropology of paedagogues of the heart

The paedagogical anthropology of both Sukhomlynsky as well as Korczak was borne out of the deeply humanistic conviction that the child, just like an adult, is an autonomous value and possesses the same right to be an author of their live, to self-determination

and self-creation, as every adult person does. The first one concludes: *Self-education plays an enormous role in one's life. A person educated in the full sense of the world can be termed one who is able to educate themselves* (Sukhomlynsky 1982, p. 23). We thus have the perspective of education as a process that concludes with the ability of the student to take over the capacity to direct themselves. Korczak also expresses this rule with an appeal to educators: *Be yourself – seek your own way. Get to know yourself before you are able to get to know children. Become aware of what you are able to do, before you commence to describe for children the scope of their rights and duties. Of everyone, you are a child that you foremost have to get to know, educate and bring up* (J. Korczak 1984, p. 217). He questions not as much as the ability of the student to self-educate, but even that of the educator who, setting such a goal for those under his care, could not achieve it themselves. Hence, anybody who is not able to educate themselves, guide their development, be their own master, cannot educate to self-education.

Following Pestalozzi, whose idea of self-education was very much valued by Korczak, he reinforces its challenge for the argument of bilateral self-honing, a sort of permanent work on themselves carried out by own people, so that in this way they could retain their status of autonomy and individuality. Being yourself, being true to oneself, is a necessary condition of all human existence, irrespective of many biological and social conditions. He expresses it much more strongly with his conclusion: *We desire of our children to be better than us. We dream of the perfect person of the future. We have to carefully catch ourselves in the act of lying, pin down the egotism disguised as a cliché. (...) Forgiven, we have given up in the fight with ourselves, burdening our children with it. The educator is quick to take on the privilege of an adult: see to the children, not to oneself, register not own faults, but the children's* (J. Korczak 1984, p. 80). In both these educators, this is a *sine qua non* condition of possible education of the child on the condition that the educator educates themselves. Sukhomlynsky turns to future parents directly: *You son, should continue to educate yourself, you should educate and prepare your children.* (Sukhomlynsky 1982, p. 97).

Sukhomlynsky, however, disagrees with Korczak when he writes: *We forget that every human being, born as a person, is not a person yet. It has to be shaped to be a person* (A. Sukhomlynsky 1982, p. 13). At the same time, the “Old Doctor” expressed, undaunted, the opinion that *it is one of the ugliest errors to believe that paedagogy is a science dealing with the child, and not – with man. (...) There are no children – there are people; but they do have a different scale of concepts, a different level of experience, other cravings, a different game of emotions* (J. Korczak 1984, p. 217). Both are teachers of life, of sharing humanly love, respect for the dignity of another and feeling their experiences and emotions, but in addition – each of them separately stresses either education in duty or education in respect for children’s rights (J. Korczak 1984).

The publications of Sukhomlynsky exhibit timeless dilemmas of natural and professional educators. He asks: How to develop in the child a love for learning? How to counter or oppose evil that grows in the behaviour and attitudes of a teenager? What to do when children cease to believe in good and humanity? How to bring them up? How to find harmony between parental love and caring on the one hand and the requirements of a child? How to proceed in order for children to be happy, if the school does not prepare them for this? Paedagogy of the heart fits in perfectly with this scope of expected change. *The children should become people with a clear reason, a noble heart, golden hands, and elevated feelings. (...) It is the job of the school and the parents to give every child happiness – multi-faceted happiness – happiness so the child can discover its abilities, learn to love labour, and to work creatively to be able to enjoy the beauty of the world around it, and to create beauty for others, to love other people, to be loveable, to be genuine human beings. Only the common efforts of parents and teachers can give children great happiness* (Sukhomlynsky 2019, p. 58).

When Sukhomlynsky writes about preparing young people for motherhood and fatherhood, he exposes the category of responsibility: *The human being develops best in fulfilment of duties. In one taking responsibility for another. Duty, duty and more duty – this is the atmosphere in which one should bring up an entity that was born as a person in*

order for it to be able to be referred to by the noble designation of a Person (A. Sukhomlynsky 1982, p. 17). For Korczak, however, to impose duties on a child is against the organisation of its spiritual life. *We burden them with the duties of tomorrow's man, without giving them any rights of today's person* (J. Korczak 1984, p. 150).

The way Sukhomlynsky perceives children, describes them and writes about them, is truly captivating, as it reflects the truth of parental pain but also the beauty of life with children, thanks to their presence, for them and for ourselves. Korczak writes similarly: *Bringing a child up is not a fun game, but a task that takes the effort of sleepless nights, the collection of hard experiences, and much thought* (J. Korczak 1984, p. 102). To bring a child up means at the same time to bring oneself up. The act of education and self-education is perceived by both paedagogues fully, meaning, in its bidirectional reaction, when both processes intertwine. The dialectic unity of inseparable phenomena is doubtless broader and deeper in its dimension and understanding than the unilateral relationship described earlier.

A broader aspect of this act entails the fact that the unsubstantiated division into the educator and student is removed from it. Sukhomlynsky comments: *At any moment, looking at your child, you see yourself. Bringing your child up, you also bring yourself up and elevate your human dignity. (...) The beautiful side of this activity is that one finds within it joy that can be compared to nothing* (W. Sukhomlynsky 1982, p. 18). The richness of issues that unsettle the educator, in Korczak's works as well, should facilitate the establishment of own reflection on what they should improve and amend around themselves, as well as within themselves. An educator who does not learn from his students loses contact with them, and quickly descends into routine.

Both paedagogues are proponents of paedagogy of the heart. Sukhomlynsky asks: *How to love?* And responds: *There exists a dangerous disease – indifference of the heart. Look into your soul, whether there is even a tiny seed of this malady there? If it jest – throw it away, do not let weed sprout. Indifference of the heart – is indifference of man* (Sukhomlynsky 1982, p. 24). Just like Korczak responding to the

question: How to love a child, and is love not a merit for which the educator would demand compensation? – he concludes that one needs to primarily let the child live its own life and be authentic towards them. *You want to be loved by children, but you have to force them into tight, stuffy forms of contemporary life, contemporary deceit, contemporary force – through diligent, dutiful, imposed work. They do not want this, defend themselves, they must bear a grudge against you. (...) You have to set an example* (J. Korczak 1984, p. 218).

Reading the views of Sukhomlynsky on bringing a child up in the family, and analysing the works of Korczak we can surprisingly conclude how much they had in common. The pedagogy of the heart of one, and the pedagogy of love and respect for the child of the other – finds within their statements almost identical rules of upbringing. Sukhomlynsky shares his conviction (...) *that the highest wisdom of parental love rests in how we fathers and mothers are able to show to children the true sources of the joy of life, in which the children see and feel the joy of being* (Sukhomlynsky 1982, p. 37). For him, the joy of a child cannot be derived from their egotistical drives to be fulfilled by parents or grandparents, as they will grow up to become a “stone-hearted child”.

Hence, the love for a child cannot be depriving in the spirit of sensitivity or hypertrophy of the heart. *If parents repeat to their children at every step the rule: “You are the hope of our lives” – the children will grow the conviction that they do us a great deed taking from us tangible and intangible goods* (ibidem, p. 40). Contemporary clinical psychology describes this type of overbearing parental attitudes towards children as toxic, and for Sukhomlynsky, they are a sign of languid despotism of primitive parents. The education errors of parents can still be repaired by the school, educating children in wise love, instilling in them sensitivity of the heart towards the surrounding world, through work, through the experience of satisfaction from one’s enterprise for the good of those closest and others. *Not playing work, but actual work, with its sweat, fatigue, toil, rest and joy in the achievement of the goal – is guard enough of human conscience* (...) (ibidem, p. 62).

Janusz Korczak approaches the conditioning of a child's joy similarly, admonishing parents in his short work "How to love a child" using the following words: *If you can assess the child's rejoicing and its intensity, you will readily notice that the supreme joy is that of a difficulty surmounted, a goal attained and a mystery uncovered, the exaltation of triumph and the happiness of independence, proficiency and power. (...) Why is he so happy to blow out a match, to carry the father's slippers or to bring grandma's footstool? Is it just mimicry? No, it is something much bigger and more precious. "I can do it myself" – he shouts a thousand times by gesture, eyes, smile, entreaty, anger and tears* (J. Korczak 1984, p. 131). Do we not see in this approach of both paedagogues to education with the heart and wise love reflections of also other educators of New Education, such as Ellen Key, Édouard Claparède or Maria Montessori? Is it not the first generation of reflecting, humanistic educators, three of whom were educated doctors who considered the sense and efficiency of the process of education from the point of view of the child, but in a dual relation with it – of their educators – parents, teachers, etc.?

After the conclusion of the 20th century, not fulfilling the expectations of Ellen Key as the Century of the Child, we instil the imperative of love and care for the psychological, physical and spiritual development of every person, and children in particular, not only in the environment of their family lives, but also their school and professional lives. It was Édouard Claparède who asked in his sketch of 1901, entitled "A School to Fit", for it to respect the free development of the child, its intellectual and moral personality, adapting it to anyone just like a tailor sewing bespoke clothing. *Why should we not have the same respect for the soil as we do for the torso, head or legs?* (È. Claparède 2005, p. 37). Sukhomlynsky also writes of the need for multi-faceted perception of everyone, because (...) *every side shines through in its entire beauty if we only look at it skilfully and precisely (...) The dreading complexity, the entire difficulty and joy of upbringing, if one asks me, entails finding this side of theirs in every person* (Sukhomlynsky 1982, p. 95). Expresses this statement in one of his studies: *The child is not a lottery ticket, set to win their painting at City Hall or a bust in the*

theatre's foyer. Everyone has their own spark that can set alight fires of joy and truth, perhaps in the tenth generation it will explode with a blaze of genius and burn its family away, giving the light of a new sun to humanity (Korczak 1984, p. 139).

Conclusion

Authors of scientific publications refer ever more frequently to the most dramatic challenges of the contemporary world, such as the dehumanisation of politics, education and interpersonal relations, the progressing destruction of the environment and never-ending wars. The vantage point for the discourse on contemporary education are most frequently chosen to be the current threats or perils. The education of man, even a religious person, is a big issue today. Some believe that everything depends on the educators, others – just the opposite – believe that educators cannot influence anything. Even if the end of the family, education or school teaching, as professed by political scientists and sociologists, did not transpire yet, but for most researchers of these socialisation environments it is without a doubt that they are becoming ever less efficient, pathogenic and they do not fit in with the quick, sometimes radical changes that are occurring around these.

The dilemma of leaving behind the crisis of education is subordinated to the search for responses to many questions: To what extent does this process have a future anyway? What constitutes the meaning of education in daily inter-generational relations? Can the world still be changed through the restoration of values in education? The case does not entail the dramatisation of the conditions of daily lives in the categories of creation of the ultimate (normative) chance at human survival, but analysing whether it is possible to thoughtfully describe conditions that would guide both individuals as well as social groups towards worthy lives in the three most important areas for education – our one (common) world, ecology and peace?

The phenomenon of the crisis is dual in character. One could describe the crisis in the negative sense, as a sort of breakdown, worsening of a specific state of affairs, its downfall, decay or threat, and in the positive sense, as a sort of breakthrough, extreme, turning point, announcing desirable changes, an exit from turmoil. Scientists agree that if in the near future there is no radical and common change in human conscience in the area of values, attitudes and activities, then our world will suffer ecological destruction, leading to global hazards for life. The more global the issues are, the less can an individual do, however, the less one changes their lifestyle in this regard, the quicker the destruction of the Earth progresses. We are living in a society in which people are allowed to understand, control or shape on their own their environments of life to an ever lesser extent. At the same time, however, man wants to expand the scope of their experiences and conscience more and more.

It is worth analysing, what in particular does the process of globalisation bring if it also touches upon children and youths, if it itself is in a crisis? To what extent can paedagogy of the heart allow us to become enriched by reflection on the possibilities of finding our place in the world becoming so small for everyone, even if it is not within arm's reach for everyone? Some are divided by globalisation, others united in something. To what extent does this process start up additional factors of marginalisation with respect to children, and to what extent does it facilitate their development? To what extent does globalisation concern the situation of children in the world? Can one see both its negative and positive factors?

Hence, the key message of both paedagogues of reforms, paedagogues of the heart, is – irrespective of the ideas and value of different school cultures and education thoughts permeating our societies – to turn attention to the period of early childhood, in which the foundations of humanity of every person are shaped, and in course of early education – the meaning of learning “with the open heart” throughout the entire life, but also the experience of joy from work. Luckily, knowledge on education and upbringing of various nations and their philosophical or psychopaedagogical models is not the sub-

ject of commercial transactions or economic pressure, hence, the profit of global corporation owners or leaders of the richest countries of the world. It does, however, affect cultural and education confrontations as well as the contradictions with deeply cultural, religious and world-view national factors that emerge in the race for the *new*.

Education actively participates in the destruction of symbols, traditions and of own culture due to the education policy of nation states, if it forgoes one's own cultural code, questions the national spirituality, departing from one's own history, language and tradition. *The globalised individual, racing for success, does not waste time, which is money, on disquiet over their inner life. Such a person is dominant not only in the contemporary civilisation, but is also the origin of the virtual-globalised man, leading to unification and entropy of personality, spirits, languages, independence, national identity* (Kremień 2007, p. 181). It is also worth noting that Christian globalisation, fusing numerous and diverse cultural and religious communities, even though it strives to balance the spiritual dimension in society with the civic one, succumbs – as W. Kremień writes – as a result of pragmatism of social conscience – to gradual perversion and de-Christianisation of over two thousand years of European civilisation. In the Ukraine one still has the consciousness of the need to care for high culture that was the dominant factor in national pedagogy. If one thus speaks about the need for reforms in this country, then most likely in the spirit of homocentrism, hence, the philosophy of the heart that opposes pedagogy of oppression. In Poland, this thought returns as governance is taken over by right-wing political parties, which include proponents of both pedagogy of the heart, spiritual pedagogy, as well as oppressive and authoritarian pedagogy.

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Special education in Poland (until 1989) – historical perspective

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The article is dedicated to presenting the information regarding the origins, organisation and the activity of special schools and institutions in Europe, with the particular focus on Polish territories (from the beginning of the 19th century to the final years of the Polish People's Republic). The text nature may be included within the framework of inquiries regarding the history of education. Referring to the wide historical context (social, political, economical, legal, outlook and other determinants), the aim of the author of the text was to introduce the accomplishments of particular individuals, and various institutions active for the children with disabilities, in the discussed period.

KEY WORDS: The history of special education, disability

Special schooling, including the launching of the first public educational institutions, had been born in Europe during the Enlightenment period, at the turn of the 18th and the 19th centuries. In source literature, it is generally assumed, that special education for deaf persons, began in 1770, with the creation of schools by rev. Michel L'Epee in Paris, and German Samuel Heinicke in Leipzig, in 1778.

The beginnings of education for blind persons are related to Valentine Haüy, who began pedagogical work with blind children in 1784.

The education of children with intellectual disabilities, began in Europe, in the first decades of the 19th century, with one of its pioneers being Jean Gaspard Itard, who went down in history as the private teacher of the "wild boy" found in the Aveyron woods. The *Report*, written by Itard in 1801–1806, is a relic of his few years of work with the teenage boy, named Victor. Itard's educational achievements provided inspiration for other French scholars, i.a. Jean-Étienne Dominique Esquirol and Édouard Séguin – the founder of the first public special school in Paris, in 1837¹.

One should note, that the education of deaf persons, had begun earlier than it is generally assumed, starting already in the 16th or the 17th century. The Spanish, the Dutch, and the English, often independently, successfully taught speech and fingerspelling to deaf-mute persons. Among them were, i.a. Geronimo Cardano, Pedro Ponce de León, Juan Pablo Bonet, Manuel Ramirez de Carrión, and in the following centuries (17th–18th) by Konrad Amman, Jan Baptist van Helmont, John Wallis, et. al.² Working in recession, many of them, scientists, physicians, and ordinary people of passion, wouldn't want to, or did not take enough effort, to record their own pedagogical achievements for future generations.

The fact that the first public schools and special institutions (with boarding) for the deaf, the blind, and for persons with intellectual disabilities, had emerged at the end of the Enlightenment period, was a result of many factors. One of them, was the myth from the ancient times, related to the views of Plato and Aristotle, and universally rooted in people's minds, about the ineducability of this category of persons. In the thousand-year medieval period,

¹ B. Szczepankowski, *Niesłyszący – Głusi – Głuchoniemi*, Warszawa 1999.

² K. Kirejczyk, *Ewolucja systemów dzieci głuchych*, Warszawa 1967; E. Nurowski, *Surdopedagogika polska. Zarys historyczny*, Warszawa 1983; A. Manczarski, *Historia nauczania głuchoniemych*, „Nauczyciel Głuchoniemych i Ociemniałych”, no 2–3, 1934.

a small progress was accomplished, as a result of the views of St. Augustine, and St. Thomas Aquinas. The Church displayed itself as an institution taking care of the matters of education, and social care. Persons in need of aid, were given direct help by private benefactors and the so-called hospitals that served as a refuge, also referred to as asylums or hospices. The activities for the needy, were based on the idea of mercy and would bear all the symptoms of charity activity. Since the modern period – in result of the divisions in a, previously, rather hermetic Christian world – secular and self-government factors had begun to involve themselves in the care activities, particularly, where the congregation adopted the teachings of Martin Luther, John Calvin, Huldrych Zwingli, and other figures of the religious Reformation. In the 17th century, the tasks of the social care were taken over by the increasingly bold state institutions, that would coordinate, and support the charity activities from the top-down perspective (France, Austria). In Catholic states, including i.a. Poland, the Church would still remain the administrator of hospital care, until the end of the First Polish Republic. The attempts, made by king Stanisław August Poniatowski, to assume state control over the care activities, were unsuccessful. Stanisław Leszczyński's and Stanisław August Poniatowski's personal concern regarding the education of deaf-mute persons, found no followers.

The Rev. Jakub Falkowski Deaf-Mute Institute (Instytut Głuchoniemych księdza Jakuba Falkowskiego), began its activity at the end of 1817 in Warsaw, and it was the first special school in Poland. The education of blind children (since 1842) was almost 50 years late in comparison to the Paris Institute (1784). Similar with the organisation of the education of children with intellectual disabilities, which had begun only at the turn of the 19th century in Poznań. In terms of resocialisation, the Polish thought and practice would follow the European trend, as can be seen from the contents of the *Kodeks* project of Andrzej Zamoyski from the 1880s, as well as the pedagogical and organisational activity of Fryderyk Skarbek and Stanisław Jachowicz in the Kingdom of Poland, in the first half of

the 19th century. One should highlight that persons with disabilities were mostly treated humanely. It is evident from the records of the medieval Magdeburg Rights, the Casimir III the Great codices, and the statutes of John I Albert and Sigismund I the Old, from the 15th and the 16th centuries³.

Instead of the theories of the Enlightenment (empiricism and rationalism), it was the civilisational transformations started in the period, and related to the development of natural sciences, particularly medicine, that were breakthrough for special education. For decades, it was the physicians' circles – including psychiatrists, geneticists, as well as, biologist – where the pedagogical theory and practice would form in regard to the spectrum of disability. The 19th century, particularly in the highly developed countries of Europe (England, France, Germany) featured the quantitative and qualitative development of special schools and institutions. At the beginning of the 20th century, Germany held the primacy in special education, which is evident from the well developed network of schools, varied forms of aid, upbringing, and education of children with disabilities, as well as, by legislative and methodological solutions. The French, and later, German scholars made attempts to define the object of special pedagogy. In 1861, a work was published by Jan-Daniel Georgens and Heinrich Marianus Deinhardt, which spoke of “curative pedagogy”. The issues related to the special education, were given a name, that would place disability between medicine, pedagogy, and psychology. The scholars would use the term “special pedagogue”⁴. Three decades later, Theodor Heller somewhat specified the “curative pedagogy” term. His works, in a form of academic handbooks, were translated into many

³ J. Bardach, B. Leśnodorski, M. Pietrzak, *Historia ustroju i prawa polskiego*, Warszawa 1994; J. Makarewicz, *Kodeks karny z komentarzem*, Lwów 1935; Grotowski, *Rozwój zakładów dobroczynnych w Warszawie*, Warszawa 1910; F. Skarbek, *Pisma pomniejszych*, vol. 2. *Pisma społeczne*, Warszawa 1827.

⁴ J.D. Georgens, H.M. Deinhardt, *Pedagogika lecznicza (ortopedagogika) ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem idiotyzmu i zakładów dla idiotów*, 1861.

languages including Polish⁵. Heller was dedicated to the issues of psychological disorders and the mental deficiency of children and youth. In his opinion, the tasks of curative pedagogy were not limited to the upbringing of children “that were mentally deficient, but its object would rather encompass all intellectual disorders of the child age, where, by normalising the conditions beneficial for intellectual development, one may expect the regulation of the fractured psychological functions”⁶.

For a number of decades, disability would include four categories of children (in the terminological aspect): blind, deaf-blind, morally neglected, and mentally disabled. Following the terminology of Itard, Esquirol and Seguin, the intellectually disabled persons were classified as: morons (mild intellectual disability), imbeciles (moderate intellectual disability), idiots (profound intellectual disability), cretins (severe intellectual disability). The classification turned out to be overly persistent, as it was used until the 1960s (sic!). One should add, that until the end of the 19th century, the range of interest of pedagogue, included children with severe intellectual disability. During the second half of the 19th century, selective studies were initiated, dedicated to children on the brink of mental disability. It was directly related to the progress within experimental psychology, and the results of the practical activity of newly established physiological laboratories, where school age children would be diagnosed. Studies had become a link of the New Education movement, which, since the end of the 19th century, and in the first decades of the 20th century, had played an essential role within the scope of pedagogical innovation, also in reference to individuals with disabilities. An exemplification of the aforementioned, is the assortment of achievements of the Austrian (William Stern), German (Emil Kraepelin, Wilhelm Wundt, Johann Werze,

⁵ T. Heller, *Studium zur Blindenpsychologie*, 1895 oraz *Grundriss der Heilpädagogik*, 1904 (Polish translation: *Podstawowy zarys pedagogiki leczniczej*, Warszawa 1905).

⁶ O. Speck, *Niepełnosprawni w społeczeństwie. Podstawy ortopedagogiki*, Gdańsk 2005.

Bruno Mennel, Arno Fuks, Karl Kern, Anton Joseph Sickinger) and Belgian scholars (Ovide Kraepelin and Jan de Moor). Exceptional achievements in the special education methodology, were the work of the Belgian scholars: Jan de Moor, and Ovide Decroly – the creator of the centres of interest method.

At the beginning of the 20th century the matter of education of the children with disability, at least in well developed countries, was slowly starting to be obvious. In 1903, in Germany, almost 600 special classes functioned in 138 cities, for c. 12 thousand children. Ten years later, already 32 771 children and youth would study in 1544 classes. Moreover, at the brink of World War I, a few hundred special schools functioned, for more than 40 thousand students⁷. The concern about children with disabilities, in Germany, was met with large social support. It resulted not only in the largest number of special institutions in Europe, but, to equally advanced legislation. In 1873, in Saxony, compulsory education of children with intellectual disabilities was introduced.

In the legal sense, it is worth noting the British 1886 *Idiots Act* the 1913 *Mental Deficiency Act*, and the Prussian 1911 school act *For the education of underdeveloped and deaf children*⁸.

During the beginnings of the 20th century the issue of disability had become an object of discussions among scholars, organised at the International Education Congresses, and the New Education League. During the 1920s and the 1930s, the sciences indirectly related to special (curative) pedagogy would develop: genetics, psychopathology, children' psychiatry, developmental and educational psychology. At the brink of the 20th century, it was known that, among the children with disabilities, a substantial number of school age children would barely display intellectual disability, or would be mildly disabled, as well as, would be hearing and vision im-

⁷ M. Balcerek, *Rozwój wychowania i kształcenia dzieci upośledzonych. Zarys historyczny*, Warszawa 1981, p. 117.

⁸ Ibidem, pp. 57–60; Cf: W. Gasik, *Rozwój praktyki i teorii pedagogiki specjalnej w XIX i początkach XX w.*, [in:] S. Mauersberg (ed.), *Dzieje szkolnictwa i pedagogiki specjalnej*, Warszawa 1990, p. 92 et. al.

paired. It was clear, that the organisation of the school network would require far-fetched actions and enormous funds, which, in the face of the social needs caused by the war effort during World War I, and later World War II, was not an easy task⁹.

Maria Grzegorzewska in her script, prepared for the needs of special schools' teachers, while referring to the transformations that would be accomplished in general pedagogy, and special education at the turn of the 19th and the 20th centuries, wrote: "Already in the second half of the 19th century, in general pedagogy, despite the marvellous theories of various pedagogues and philosophers, we see schools - barracks and students - numbers. Gradually, they receive messages about the results of special pedagogy. In time, teachers and theoreticians-pedagogues are turning their attention to it, and this way, data in the form of theoretical inquiries and practical prescriptions, find its way to elementary schools. The educational role of the teacher is starting to grow there, slowly but substantially. The attention of the teacher is starting to move from the object to the subject of teaching - he is getting closer to the child, and he starts to see it and its development within the environment, care about the child's future fate. Therefore, there is an increased interest with the work method and its organisation, cooperation with home, and finally, with normalising certain psycho-physical irregularities of the child /speech disorders, the conditions of the eye, ear, an ill-state of the health of the child, of its physical development, etc./ as well as, removing or compensating certain negative conditions /physical and psychological/ of education in the household environment that impede the development of the child /e.g. additional nutrition, health care, better lighting, the ban on physical punish-

⁹ See: T. Bilikiewicz, J. Gallus, *Psychiatria polska na tle dziejowym*, Warszawa 1962; O. Lipkowski, *Wychowanie dzieci społecznie niedostosowanych*, Warszawa 1966 /regarding the Western European accomplishments in regard to the development of care and special education in the 19th century/; M. Kalinowski, M. Pełka, *Zarys dziejów resocjalizacji nieletnich*, Warszawa 2003; J. Wyczesany, *Pedagogika upośledzonych umysłowo*, Kraków 2007; Z. Sękowska, *Wprowadzenie do pedagogiki specjalnej*, Warszawa 1998; S. Mauersberg (ed.), *Dzieje szkolnictwa i pedagogiki specjalnej*, Warszawa 1990; H. Borzyszkowska, *Oligofrenopedagogika*, Kraków 1998.

ment, ill-treatment, explaining the needs of the particular child, etc./ . This is already entering the area of broadly perceived preventive action. Removing shortcomings, and the negative influences of the surroundings, enhancing the psycho-physical endurance of the student, in other words, it is the removal, the normalisation, the compensation of the negative educational conditions that are within the child and within the conditions of his household environment, that may cause certain irregularities, shortcomings and developmental impediments"¹⁰.

The origins and the development of special education in Poland

Special education in Poland began institutionally, as was already mentioned, when the Government Committee for Religion and Public Enlightenment assigned rev. Jakub Falkowski, with the mission of establishing the Deaf-Mute Institute. First, the institute was to be located in Szczuczyn, but after the enterprise's fiasco in 1816, schooling of deaf-mute students in the Kingdom, actually began in October 1817. The first decade in the functioning of the institute, featured an assortment of difficulties related to the lack of both the teachers, and of the space in which the education would take place. It is worth adding, that rev. Anzelm Zygmunt, the creator of the first fingerspelling alphabet, the graduate of the Deaf-Mute institute in Vienna, created the first institution in the Romanov empire, in Pavlovsk near Petersburg, in 1806. During the first years, the Warsaw Deaf-Mute Institute consisted of 30–40 students, including girls. From the half of the twenties, c. 60 students would be educated there, including 15 girls¹¹. In the didactic work of the institute,

¹⁰ M. Grzegorzewska, *Skrypt wykładów w Państwowym Instytucie Pedagogiki Specjalnej*, Warszawa 1960, p. 6.

¹¹ A. Winiarz, *Szkolnictwo Księstwa Warszawskiego i Królestwa Polskiego (1807–1831)*, Lublin 2002, pp. 145–151; O. Lipkowski, *Początki szkolnictwa specjalnego*, [in:] Ł. Kudyba (ed.), *Historia wychowania*, vol. 2, PWN, 1968, pp. 206–212.

a crucial task was the professional preparation, with even 23 types of specialisation in c. 1830. The matter of education, including the autonomisation and socialisation of the students, was the organisational basis of the institution, and was successfully continued in the following decades under the supervision of Wawrzyniec Wysocki, Józefat Szczygielski, and Jan Papłoński. In 1842, in the Deaf-Mute Institute, the first in Poland branch of the education of blind children, was launched¹². The Deaf-Mute Institute, skilfully managed by Falkowski, and then his successors, resisted the russification attempts of the tsar's administration in the kingdom, long and efficiently. The situation changed only at the end of the 1880, when the control over the institute was taken by Russian supervisors: Michał Kornilewicz Ziemic, Afanasij Dmitrewicz Błagowieszczański, Stiepan Grigorewicz Jakowienko, Erwin Magnuszewicz Jurgens, and Wsiewołod Wasiliewicz Własow¹³. The war events from the World War I period, particularly the evacuation of the Russians from the Kingdom of Poland in 1915, turned out to be sinister for the Institute, whose equipment and capital, along with the staff, were evacuated to Russia.

In the Prussian partition, the first Institution for the Deaf-Mute, began its operations in a teachers' seminar in 1832 in Poznań. The institution was formed after the Berlin institute, and what is important, it conducted pioneering attempts to educate teachers of deaf children. In 1871, the Institution for the Deaf was founded in Bydgoszcz. In 1911, in Germany, legislative prescription for the education of deaf children was introduced, which was in motion also in the Polish territories of the Prussian partition¹⁴.

In the Polish territories of the Austrian partition, the first institution for deaf-blind children was founded in Lviv, in 1830. The Institution was largely inspired by the Warsaw institute. In 1870, the

¹² L. Karpińska, *Zarys dziejów warszawskiego Instytutu Głuchoniemych i Ociemniałych w latach 1817–1917*, [in:] O. Lipkowski (ed.), *O wychowaniu dzieci głuchych. W 150-lecie Instytutu Głuchoniemych i Ociemniałych w Warszawie*, Warszawa 1967.

¹³ E. Nurowski, op. cit.

¹⁴ Tamże, pp. 110–111.

second institution for the deaf children, known as the Jewish School for the Deaf-Mute, was launched in Lviv¹⁵.

One should highlight, that regardless of the border cordons of the partition countries, the institutions for the education of the deaf in Poland, wrote down a beautiful record in its activities. The teachers were authors of numerous valuable scientific publications and methodological aid, under Jan Papłoński in Warsaw, and in Lviv: Tomasz Chocholouzek, Antoni Mejbaum, Bogumiła Wilkosz, Mieczysław Krajewski, rev. Wilhelm Wagner et al.¹⁶.

The organisation of special education for blind children, practically began in the half of the 19th century. In working with the blind children, efforts were made to optimise their life self-sufficiency. The function was accomplished by vocational training, organisation of orchestras, and musical associations. In 1864, from Jan Papłoński's initiative, the Blind Musicians Society was launched, including c. 50 members¹⁷. The society successfully conducted and expanded its activity, also involving the families of the blind persons, for subsequent decades. Starting with 1842, in the Warsaw branch of the blind, from more than a dozen to a few dozen blind students would be educated. During the school years 1886/87 and 1907/08, respectively 43 and 44 students were accepted, the highest rates throughout the years. In 1851, the only institution for the Blind had begun its activity in Lviv. Until the 1890s. 128 boys and 44 girls were educated in the institution. The institution created the possibility to educate a much higher number of students, however, there were few attendants. The graduates could hope for financial aid after finishing their education, particularly in a situation, when it was related to starting their own professional activity¹⁸. The education curriculum was the work of the teachers (lesson scenarios, hand-

¹⁵ M. Pękowska, *Lwowskie zakłady dla głuchych i niewidomych dzieci w latach 1830-1914*, Kielce 2003.

¹⁶ Tamże, p. 119.

¹⁷ E. Grodecka, *Historia niewidomych polskich w zarysie*, Warszawa 1996.

¹⁸ Ibidem, p. 16.

books and educational aid), who referred to the curricula of the 6-grade popular schools. During the lessons, schooling was considered from subject matter such as: religion, convex print reading (using the Wilhelm Klein method), writing, Polish and German language, arithmetics, history of Poland and the Austro-Hungarian empire, natural sciences, singing, violin, pipe organs, and piano playing. Moreover, an assortment of craftsmanship specialities was introduced, both for the boys and the girls (shoemaking, basketry, needlework, crochet, weaving, et al.). Meticulous physical education was given high status¹⁹.

During the 1830, under the Prussian partition, the record of blind persons was conducted, which showed, that the "Poznan province" was inhabited by almost 700 blind persons (including 55 children of school age), on 1 million inhabitants. In 1853, an institution for the blind was organised in Wolsztyn. In 1872 it was transferred to Bydgoszcz (Provincial Institution for the Blind). The establishment included children and youth from almost the entire Prussian partition. Schooling was conducted using Braille. The students would be educated in the following professions: organist, instrument tuner, brush-maker, printer, massagery²⁰. In 1889, in Bydgoszcz, the Society for the Care of the Blind had begun its operation, possessing own library, and Braille printing works.

In Polish territories, the education of children with intellectual disabilities, was taken care of at the end of the 19th century, as in 1897, in Poznan a special school at Wielkie Grabary 25 street began its activity. Until 1909, 100 students, including 43 girls, were educated in five units of the school. In Silesia, inspired by the solutions adopted in Germany, numerous special classes functioned in: Bytom, Piekary Śląskie, Lubliniec, Szopienice, Świętochłowice, and

¹⁹ M. Pękowska, op. cit., pp. 108-110; J. Kuczyńska-Kwapisz, *Dzieje kształcenia niewidomych na ziemiach polskich i perspektywy rozwoju współczesnej tyflopädagogiki*, „Roczniki Pedagogiki Specjalnej”, vol. 8, 1997, pp. 43-57; E. Bendych, *Powstanie i rozwój tyflopädagogiki w Polsce*, [in:] U. Eckert, K. Poznański (eds.), *Pädagogika specjalna w Polsce*, Wyd. WSPS, Warszawa 1992, pp. 127-133.

²⁰ E. Grodecka, op. cit., pp. 27-28.

Leśnica Opolska. During the beginning of the 20th century, special schools were organised in Chorzów (1904) and in Katowice (1906)²¹.

Until World War I, in the Austrian partition, 3 special schools for children with severe intellectual disability, were founded: in Równe (1904), Lviv (1911), and in Cracow (1912). From the initiative of prof. Jan Piltz, the first institution in the Polish territories, for children with deviations from norm, was established in 1912, in Cracow. The Cracow Neurological-Psychiatric Society would conduct the diagnostic studies. The first special class for children with mild intellectual disability (morons) was organised in 1918.²² The scope of the care provided for children with intellectual disabilities in Galicia, was one of the least developed in the entire Habsburg monarchy. The State Psychiatric Institution in Kulparków, established in 1875, was dedicated to the treatment and care of persons with psychological disorders. In 1889, the Nursing Home for Persons with Psychological and Nervous Disorders was established in Lviv, and it was the only institution of such kind in Polonia Minor, until the outbreak of World War I²³.

Starting with 1814, in the Kingdom of Poland, the primary role in the care for the needy was played by the Warsaw Charity Society (Warszawskie Towarzystwo Dobroczyńności) that provided varied forms of aid, also for people with disabilities, threatened by social exclusion²⁴. During the beginnings of the 1880s, Warsaw Children's Friends Society, inspired by the French societies of such kind, had begun its functioning. The founders of the Society referred to the tsar's 1881 *Manifesto*, where notions were made, i.a. regarding the action for care for the family in regard to the fight against demoralisation.

²¹ W. Gasik, op. cit.; A. Giryński, *Rozwój szkolnictwa specjalnego dla osób upośledzonych umysłowo w Polsce*, „Roczniki Pedagogiki Specjalnej”, vol. 8, 1997, pp. 9–15.

²² Ibidem, pp. 101–102.

²³ M. Balcerek, *Rozwój wychowania i kształcenia...*, p. 61.

²⁴ H. Markiewicz, *Działalność opiekuńczo-wychowawcza warszawskiego Towarzystwa Dobroczyńności, 1814–1914*, Warszawa 2002, Pelczar, *Zarys dziejów miłosierdzia w Kościele katolickim*, Warszawa 1916, p. 170.

sation, poverty, various pathologies, austerity, etc.²⁵ The first units for children with disabilities were created by Michalina Stefanowska – a scientist, physician, and a social activist. The results of her years of work, were the first units in the Kingdom of Poland, for “mildly able” children, that went operational in 1917. As a result of the initiative of the Children Studies Society (Towarzystwo Badań nad Dziećmi), Stefanowska, would also perform selective studies, and the qualification of children for special schools. Moreover, she assumed auspices over the organisation of six-week courses regarding the education of teachers from Warsaw special schools – within the scope of intellectual disabilities²⁶. One may surely highlight, that, with her activity, Stefanowska carved a path for Maria Grzegorzewska, who, since 1919, consequently proposed the institutional education of the teachers of special schools, which finally came to pass in the half of 1922, along with the institution of the State Institute for Special Pedagogy (Państwowy Instytut Pedagogiki Specjalnej – later abbreviated as PIPS). Leading pedagogues participated in her courses organised for the special schools’ teachers, particularly: Czesław Babicki, Janusz Korczak, Józefa Joteyko, and Maria Grzegorzewska. Additionally, one should remind, that Stefanowska, along with the school inspectorate of Warsaw, performed selective studies of children suspected of mental disabilities. She was supported by dr Władysław Sterling, a well known hygienist and a Warsaw physician²⁷.

²⁵ *Niedole dziecięce*. A joint monograph published by the Enthusiasts of the Child Age, (Miłośnicy Dziecięcego Wieku), Warszawa 1882, pp. 1–17.

²⁶ E. Kubeczko, *Michalina Stefanowska*, „Szkoła Specjalna”, no 2, 1968, pp. 130–131; Radziszewska, *Jeszcze jedna rocznica w historii szkolnictwa specjalnego dla dzieci upośledzonych umysłowo w Warszawie (1917–1922)*, „Szkoła Specjalna”, no 2, 1968, p. 137 / in 1918, by M. Stefanowska’s initiative, the second (in 1918), and third (1919) editions of the course for special schools’ teachers were launched. In the school year 1919/1920 the education of teachers was conducted within the framework of the “Yearly seminar course for the teachers of mildly able children, and with personality flaws”/.

²⁷ Radziszewska, op. cit., pp. 146–147.

The Second Polish Republic

Initially, the development of special education in the Second Polish Republic was a domain of the people of good will (physicians, pedagogues, social activists) and local city governments. Due to the involvement of such people, the subject matter of special education was debated, what is important, at the forum of the first national educational convention in April 1919, in Warsaw. There, the postulate was submitted to cover the children with disability with legislative compulsory education²⁸.

In 1920, the Faculty of Special Schools of the Ministry of Religion and Public Enlightenment, supervised by Jan Hellman, had gone operational. The faculty existed, but for a couple of years (until the 1924), and later was incorporated into the structures of universal education. The decision was, to a degree, an exemplification of the educational policy realised in regard to children with disabilities, which had secondary meaning. The thesis was confirmed by Maria Grzegorzewska's statements, who i.a. wrote at the "*Special School*" ("*Szkoła Specjalna*") forum²⁹. To a degree, it seems understandable, that in the education department, the subject matter of special education, was withdrawn to secondary importance, in the face of the enormity of the challenges standing before the young state. In 1919, children with disabilities had been formally subjected to universal, compulsory education, however, the execution of the decision was practically impossible, considering the low development of schools and special institutions. It is estimated, that at the brink of the 1918,

²⁸ O szkołę polską. Pierwszy Ogólnopolski Wielki Zjazd Nauczycielski 14, 15, 16 i 17 kwietnia w Warszawie, Lwów – Warszawa 1919; S. Mauersberg, *Opieka nad dzieckiem i szkolnictwo specjalne*, [in:] *Historia wychowania wiek XX*, (ed.) J. Miąso, vol. 1, PWN, Warszawa 1980, pp. 105–111; S. Michalski, *Praca naukowo-badawcza nauczycieli w Drugiej Rzeczypospolitej*, Wyd. UAM, Poznań 1994, pp. 84–107.

²⁹ M. Grzegorzewska, *Szkolnictwo specjalne*, [in:] S. Łempicki, W. Gottlieb, B. Suchodolski, J. Włodarski (eds.), *Encyklopedia wychowania*, vol. 3, ed. 1, Warszawa 1937–1939; M. Grzegorzewska, *Państwowy Instytut Pedagogiki Specjalnej w Warszawie*, „*Szkoła Specjalna*”, no 1, 1924.

c. 30 special institutions were functional. Until the outbreak of World War II, c. 120 special elementary schools had been founded, for c. 12 thousand children: with intellectual disabilities, blind, deaf-mute, and morally neglected. The Polish special education system of the interwar period, failed to organise preschools, vocational schools and middle schools. Actions were initiated for the education of children with chronic conditions, and disabilities, within the framework of nursing homes and preventoria, however, this form of education was mostly developed in the postwar period³⁰.

The special education base in the interwar period was not balanced, with the prevalent number of schools in the central and western Poland³¹. Most schools were located in buildings that required renovation, not to mention that they were not well equipped. The situation, further strengthened by numerous social barriers, and stereotypes related to the lack of knowledge on the rehabilitation of children with disabilities, resulting in the views of the majority of the society, resulted in the fact, that c. 85–90% of children did not attend compulsory education. Preventing the aforementioned required meticulous, multidimensional, and long-lasting activities. The circles of the special schools' teachers promoted Korczak's ideal of the subjectification of the child, along with the statement that "There is no cripple, it is a Man", postulated on conferences, congresses, gatherings, and within pedagogical work³².

³⁰ M. Zaorska, *Rehabilitacja i edukacja osób z niepełnosprawnością sprzężoną w kontekście historycznym i stan aktualny*, [in:] J. Błęszyński, D. Baczała, J. Binnebesel (eds.), *Osoba z niepełnosprawnością – opieka – terapia – wsparcie*, Łódź 2008, pp. 79–104.

³¹ H. Ryll, *Stan szkolnictwa specjalnego w ostatnim piętnastolecu*, „Szkoła Specjalna”, no 1–2, 1938/39, p. 147 et al. /c. 50% schools functioned in the central Voivodeships, c. 30% in the western Voivodeships, 8% in the eastern Voivodeships, and c. 6% in the southern Voivodeships. Generally speaking (with retaining the original writing) the mentally disabled children accomplished the compulsory education in 12%, deaf children in 15%, blind children in 20%, and morally neglected children in 10% /.

³² The rights of children with disabilities were guaranteed in the 1921 March Constitution /Law Gazette, no 44, pos. 267/ and in the March 1932 School Act of Janusz Jędrzejewicz /Law Gazette of the Polish Republic, 1932, no 38, pos. 389/.

During the interwar period the Special Education Section was established (1924), founded by Maria Grzegorzewska at the Universal Schools Teachers' Association (Związek Nauczycielstwa Polskiego Szkół Powszechnych). The same year, the "Special School" journal, had become the instrument of the Section – edited as a scientific quarterly. Through subsequent years, "Special School" was the only professional journal for special pedagogues in Poland, and, importantly, due to its high substantive matter, it accomplished its mission with success.

The teachers of special schools were educated in the only institution of the time, which was the State Institute for Special Pedagogy (Państwowy Instytut Pedagogiki Specjalnej – 1922). Many of them participated in the nationwide congresses of teachers of special schools and institutions, organised under the auspices of the Institute, in 1925 and 1934. The advanced preparation efforts for the third congress, that was meant to take place in September 1939 in Vilnius, were stopped by the tragic events of World War II³³.

World War II

War and occupation of Polish territories in the 1939–1945 period – in regard to children with disabilities – was no less dramatic, than to the entire nation threatened with biological annihilation by the Nazi occupants. In the General Government area, the fate of special schools depended on financial means. The German administration had not issued a formal decision about shutting down this type of schools. Few special schools survived the war: in Kraków, Lublin, Siedlce, Piotrków Trybunalski, Łaski, and in Warsaw until the Warsaw Uprising. According to calculations by Janina Kaźmierska, until

³³ See: The reports from the I and II congress of special school teachers, published in (in extenso) the 1925 and 1934/35 volumes of "Special School"; Cf. W. Jamrożek, *Kongresy i zjazdy pedagogiczne w rozwoju polskiej myśli i praktyki edukacyjnej (do 1939 roku)*, Poznań 2015; M. Balcerek, *Rozwój szkolnictwa specjalnego i opieki nad dzieckiem w Polsce okresu międzywojennego*, „Rozprawy z Dziejów Oświaty”, vol. 12, 1969, pp. 143–225.

1944, 13 special schools for 1748 students survived. It is worth mentioning that a few dozen special school teachers (from Warsaw alone) took part in underground education³⁴.

The policy of the German occupants in Polish territories, aimed at the extermination of weak, sick, crippled, mentally ill, and disabled individuals. The extermination included the patients of the psychiatric hospitals in: Choroszcza, in the St. John of God Hospital in Warsaw, in Kochanówka near Łódź, and in Kocborowo. In the Lubliniec psychiatric hospital, the children with mental disabilities were killed by administering increased doses of Luminal³⁵.

The postwar fate of special education in Poland were, to a significant degree, marked not with the activities of the local or social factors, but the supreme authorities of state administration. The losses in education of all types were severe, as they amounted to 60% of the pre-war state. Initially, considering the change of borders, primarily, attempts were made to stop the wave of illiteracy, and to ensure that the children attend the compulsory education. Almost until the end of the 1940s, solutions were employed, that were developed in the pre-war period (acts, resolutions, school manuals, forms, etc.). Staff shortages – in the face of the death of c. 10 thousand pedagogues – were to be filled with teachers who were educated in a rush, often allowed to work after only a few preparation courses. Additionally, regarding special education, many merited pedagogues and PIPS graduates died. Those included, I.a. Michał Wawrzynowski (the special education school inspector, the creator of the curriculum of educating persons with intellectual disabilities), Halina Jankowska (a lecturer of psychopathology), Zygmunt Kurletto (dedicated to physical education), Jakub Segal (a lecturer of psychology), Władysław Sterling (a lecturer of psychopathology). It is assumed, that in general, it was 64 individuals³⁶.

³⁴ W. Gasik, *Szkolnictwo specjalne w latach wojny i okupacji (1939–1945)*, [in:] S. Mauerberg (ed.), *Dzieje szkolnictwa i pedagogiki specjalnej*, Warszawa 1990, pp. 240–247.

³⁵ Madajczyk, *Polityka okupanta wobec narodu polskiego*, Warszawa 1961; A. Götz, *Obciążeni. Eutanazja w nazistowskich Niemczech*, Wyd. Czarne, Wołowiec 2015.

³⁶ M. Grzegorzewska, *Losy wojenne i odbudowa Państwowego Instytutu Pedagogiki Specjalnej*, „Szkoła Specjalna”, no 1, 1946/47, pp. 6–12.

The postwar period

Since the end of the 1940s, the educational system in Poland, was subject to complete reorganisation. From now on, the directions of school reforms would be determined by the party circles realising the ideas of educational standing in opposition against the Western European achievements. One should notice, that the quantitative development of particular types of schools, including special education, came at the expense of the quality of education. The educational policy, particularly the one from the first half of the 1950s; was of doctrinal nature. In order to limit the role of the PIPS – treated by the overzealous ideologues, as a peculiar organisational relic based on Western European models – it was reduced to the role of a study dedicated to the education of teachers (1950 statute). The “Special School” quarterly was shut down. The next step was the administrative decision regarding the introduction of subject teaching in special schools. During the first half of the 1950s, the first school handbooks were printed and introduced. The handbooks were prepared even by people, that, previously, had in no way been related to the methodology of special education³⁷.

During the first half of the 1950s, under the influence of Poznan (June) events, and the Polish October, the political scene was shuffled, resulting in a revision of educational policy. The special school teachers gladly accepted the retraction of the resolution regarding the subject education, the return of the “Special School”, the restoration of the ZNP Special Education Section, the restoration of the PIPS’ scientific-scholarly status. The 23 March “*On compulsory education*” („*O obowiązku szkolnym*”), was an important decision, as its

³⁷ J. Kulbaka, *Szkolnictwo specjalne w polityce w polityce społeczno-oświatowej państwa w latach 1944–1948*, „Przegląd Historyczno-Oświatowy”, nr 3–4, 2005; Idem, *Szkolnictwo specjalne w pracach ministerstwa oświaty w okresie przygotowań i realizacji planu sześcioletniego (1950–1955)*, „Przegląd Historyczno-Oświatowy”, nr 1–2, 2007; Idem, *Szkolnictwo specjalne w Polsce w pracach Ministerstwa Oświaty w latach 1956–1961*, „Przegląd Historyczno-Oświatowy”, nr 1–2, 2009.

introduction created the actual chances of expanding schools, and special institutions, and, therefore, chances for increasing the universal nature of teaching in this aspect of education³⁸. The fate of the children with disabilities, have become the object of the sessions of the Sejm Committee of Education (Sejmowa Komisja Oświaty i Nauki) in 1957 and 1958³⁹. During the half of the 1950s, only 30% of special care children, received education, and there would be one special school in a thousand secondary schools⁴⁰. In five years (1956–1961) c. 100 new special schools were launched, including the first special institutions for children with disabilities in Police and Płakowice. The estimates show, that at the turn of the 1950s and the 1960s, c. 50 thousand children and youth with disabilities were attending 500 schools⁴¹. It was a good thing, that the expansion of special schools was included in the 1958 “monument schools” (“szkoły pomniki”) national plan, for the millenary jubilee of Poland, which was crucial for the educational building investments in the entire decade of the 1960s⁴².

In 1958, the first Department of Special Pedagogy was established, at the University of Warsaw. The event was momentous, as for the first time in Poland, the education of the special school teachers, received the academic status. In the decades of the 1960s and the 1970s, the issues of disability, was included in the curricula of other universities, and higher pedagogical schools. Special pedagogy had received the status equal to other subdisciplines of pedagogy, at universities in: Poznań, Toruń, Gdańsk, Katowice, Kraków, Łódź, and Lublin, Wrocław, as well as, higher pedagogical schools

³⁸ 23 March 1956 decree (Law gazette, 1956, no 9, pos. 52).

³⁹ The Archive of New Records, The PPR Parliament II Term, 1957–1961.

⁴⁰ M. Rachoński, *Aktualne problemy kształcenia zawodowego młodzieży upośledzonej umysłowo*, [in:] *Wychowanie dzieci upośledzonych umysłowo*. Sekcja Szkolnictwa Specjalnego, Warszawa 1960, pp. 62–81.

⁴¹ GUS, *Polska w liczbach*, 1962, p. 67; J. Kulbaka, *Szkolnictwo specjalne w Polsce...*, pp. 82–100.

⁴² K. Wałaszewski, *Tysiąc szkół na Tysiąclecie: Szkoły Tysiąclecia – architektura, propaganda, polityka*, Łódź 2018.

in: Bydgoszcz, Częstochowa, Kraków, Rzeszów, and in Warsaw, as a result of establishing the Maria Grzegorzewska University⁴³.

From 1961, to the end of the Polish People's Republic, or, more precisely, to 1991, the directions of special education were determined by the 15 July 1961 School Act titled "*On the development of the upbringing and education system*" ("*O rozwoju systemu oświaty i wychowania*")⁴⁴. Article 20 of the act, states that "The education and the upbringing of children and juveniles, suffering from chronic diseases, mentally retarded, and with physical and intellectual disabilities, are conducted in special preschools, schools, and units in elementary schools, or schooling and educational institutions. Special schools and institutions provide the youth with educational, care, schooling to an available degree, and preparation for an appropriate profession"⁴⁵.

The works of the Ministry of Education and of the Council of Ministers for children with disabilities, were supported by the Sejm. The object of the works of the Sejm Committee of Education (III term), was particularly, the children with intellectual disabilities, children and youth with social maladjustment, as well as, children with chronic conditions, and physical disabilities. The works were continued in subsequent years (IV term Sejm)⁴⁶.

In the 1960s, under the 1961 school act – the educational administration introduced statutes of special elementary schools, educational institutions, and schooling-educational centres. New core curricula, educational aid, and educational curricula, have appeared. The actions were accompanied by the quantitative expansion of special schools and institutions, that had become a visible element of the school system⁴⁷.

⁴³ Law gazette, 1976, no 15, pos. 93 /The 2 April 1976 edict by the Council of Ministers regarding the creation of Maria Grzegorzewska University/.

⁴⁴ *Ustawa o rozwoju systemu oświaty i wychowania w Polsce Ludowej*, Warszawa 1961.

⁴⁵ *Ibidem*.

⁴⁶ Sejm Library: The Index for Stenographic Reports from the PRL Sejm for III term (1961–1965) and for IV term (1965–1969).

⁴⁷ Regarding the activities for special education in the 1960s, we find valuable information in the Archive of the Ministry of National Education in Warsaw. See:

During the 25 years after the end of World War II, the system of special education in the People's Poland, was based on special schools (segregation model) and included the education of children (according to the terminology of the time): mentally retarded, blind, visually impaired, deaf-mute, hearing impaired, with chronic conditions, as well as, crippled, and children with multiple disabilities. Additionally, apart from the special public/elementary schools, known from the Second Polish Republic, in post-war Poland, special preschools and vocational schools functioned. It is worth mentioning that the 1961 school act, allowed for organising special classes in mainstream schools, which helped accomplish the universal character of education⁴⁸. In the 1960s the special education expanded by 71 new, established from the ground-up, school buildings, not to mention objects adjusted for educational purposes, and in the entire 1961–1971 decade, c. 1 thousand special classes were established⁴⁹.

The 1970s decade consisted of the further development of special schools and institutions in Poland, with particular focus on vocational preparation, and the employment of special schools' graduates in cooperatives for the disabled, and employment establishments. The most information about the education department's plans regarding special schooling, is provided by the *"Directives on the development of special education, and the aid for children with deviations and developmental disorders"* (*"Wytyczne w sprawie rozwoju kształcenia specjalnego i pomocy dzieciom z odchyleniami i zaburzeniem*

The Ministry of Education, File Catalogue A., sign.: 538/4 (regarding the school inspections in each school board, reports, and budget issues/; 476 (2) /information regarding the network and organisation of special education/; 133/2 /budget plans for 1969 and 1970/.

⁴⁸ W. Doroszewski, *Sprawy terminologiczne*, „Szkoła Specjalna”, no 1, 1969, pp. 1–4. Regarding the organisation of special classes, a directive was issued by the Ministry of Education (See: Official Gazette of the Ministry of Education, 1961, no 12, pos. 159).

⁴⁹ J. Nowakowski, *Drogi przebudowy szkolnictwa specjalnego*, „Szkoła Specjalna”, no 3, 1965.

rozwojowym”), issued by the Ministry of Education in 1973⁵⁰. A premise was assumed, that each county should have at least one special school for children with intellectual disabilities. Additionally, plans were made, that the blind and deaf children would be registered by name. The education department planned to establish closer cooperation with social organisations (i.a. ZHP, TPD, PZG, PZN), with cooperatives for the disabled, in order to optimise and increase the level of education and employment of persons with disabilities, as well as, to provide them with appropriate health care in schools and in educational institutions. Much emphasis was placed on the activity of educational-vocational counselling.

From the very beginnings, the accomplishment of this ambitious plan of a qualitative enhancement of the pedagogical work, and of special schools, had met with numerous obstacles, particularly since the second half of the 1970, marked with the economic crisis of the country. The realisation of the *Directives* was eventually put to a halt, as the entire school reform, announced in the resolution, approved by the Sejm unanimously on 13 November 1973, in result of the economic crisis, and the political events (the martial law). The ambitious plans of the Ministry of Education, assuming, that at the turn of the 1970s and the 1980s, 70–80% of children would receive special education, were not accomplished⁵¹.

Similar to the 1950s and the 1960s, the situation of special education, had once again become an object of Sejm debates, and, to an even larger degree, an object of discussion among opinion-forming

⁵⁰ *Założenia programowo-organizacyjne w dziesięcioletnich szkołach specjalnych*, Warszawa 1977.

⁵¹ Sejm Library, The Committee of Education Press Newsletter, no 40, 1970, 94, 1972, 97, 1972 (PRL Sejm, VI term); sign. 323/VII (PRL Sejm, VII term); See also: The Archive of the Ministry of National Education in Warsaw Archive, Catalogue A., sign.: 177 /the synopsis for special education for 1972/, 180 /the works of the Department for the Organisation of Studies and Synopses of the Ministry of Education/, 258 /the works of the Office for the Reform of the National Education System/, 270 /the activities Education Council/, 280 /the organisation plans for special education for 1972–1973/, 376 (the report on the organisation and the functioning of special education for 1965–1975/.

factors (radio, press, television) In 1982, after a few days of Sejm proceedings – preceded by the sessions of Sejm committees in cooperation with education, health and social care, employment and justice departments, a “16 September 1982 Resolution of the Sejm of the Polish People’s Republic for the crippled and the persons with disabilities” („Uchwała Sejmu Polskiej Rzeczypospolitej Ludowej z 16 września 1982 r. w sprawie inwalidów i osób niepełnosprawnych”) was issued⁵². The resolution, apart from the 1961 school act, determined the direction of activities for persons with disabilities, until the fall of the Polish People’s Republic. The 1982 resolution, despite being issued in particularly difficult times, had essential significance in the aspect of revealing the spectrum of malpractices, needs, and remedial actions, in the system of diagnosis, counselling, education, material aid, and employment of persons with disabilities, as well as, of the everyday and lifespan conditions of life of these persons⁵³. The works of the Sejm committees, and subcommittees had proven, that the material situation of disabled individuals and adults was particularly disturbing⁵⁴.

Despite many shortcomings and forbearances resulting from the difficult material situation of the country, almost during the entire postwar period, the system of special education in Poland, at the end of the 1980s, included c. 75% children and youth with disabili-

⁵² See: „Szkoła Specjalna”, no 1, 1983 (the complete text of the resolution); Cf. Sejm Library, The Index for Stenographic Reports from the PRL Sejm for VIII term (1980–1985).

⁵³ Biblioteka Sejmowa, Biuletyn Prasowy Komisji Oświaty i Nauki. Skorowidz do sprawozdań stenograficznych z posiedzeń Sejmu PRL: VIII Kadencja (1980–1985), IX Kadencja (1985–1989).

⁵⁴ Index..., PRL Sejm (VIII term), pp. 74–76 / it is clearly shown by the statement of representative Jan Szczepański: “In the past period, one could, and can probably still see not only the increase of the indifference, but even hostility of the social cruelty towards persons with disabilities. The facts are known, the press wrote about it many times, and many moral calls were made towards the society. The situation indicates an urgent need of a particular activity of the state and social institutions (...). The issues of the crippled and persons with disabilities are numerous”/.

ties, that would attend special institutions. One must state, that it was caused by numerous factors (state educational policy, social material level, economic crisis, social barriers, et al.). One should also note, that particularly, since the 1960s and the 1970s, counselling, diagnostics, selection, and qualification of children for special institutions, had been improved. One should remind that the examination of children for special schools during the Second Polish Republic, was performed in the State Institute for Special Pedagogy, within the framework of counselling (orthophonic) and workshops (psycho-pedagogical, preventive). Similar, in the first years following World War II, until the school administration had been obligated to a pre-selection of children that were presumed as intellectually disabled, conducted in primary (elementary) schools. At the turn of the 1950s and the 1960s, the field school staff (inspectors), apart from their task of recording children at school age, was additionally obligated to cooperate with pedagogical councils, parents' committees, and doctors, in order to prepare an index of children with disabilities, who yet remained outside of school. In the 1950s, the matters of selection and qualification of children for special education institutions, were subject to correction. The 1951/52 school year instruction contained guidelines that show, that the pre-selection, mostly related to identifying children with intellectual disabilities, was conducted in schools, by pedagogical councils, later in by the departments of education within the national council presidiums (county and city). The final decision was made at the level of Voivodeships' departments of education within national councils, after consulting the special school inspectors, and social organisations⁵⁵. At the brink of the 1960s, regulations were introduced, regarding the selection of deaf, and hearing impaired children. On their basis, selection committees were established in: Kraków, Ponzań, Warsaw,

⁵⁵ The instruction regarding the organisation of the 1951/1952 school year for special education (Official Gazette of the Ministry of Education, no 7, item 78, 1951); Cf: the 1952/1953 school year instruction (Official Gazette of the Ministry of Education, no 6, item 48, 1952).

Wejherów, and Wrocław⁵⁶. During the first half of the 1970s, the Educational-Vocational Counselling Statute (Statut Poradni Wychowawczo-Zawodowej), was prepared, as an addendum to the resolution of the Minister of Education, from this very year. Educational-vocational counselling units functioned until 1993, when they were transformed into psychological-pedagogical units⁵⁷.

In the 1970s and the 1980s, within the scientific and educational circles, there was an increasing notion regarding the need of remodelling the existing forms of special education in the spirit of integration. It is proven by, i.a. the texts published in “Special School”, during the postwar period. Additionally, one must note, that Poland was a signatory of numerous international agreements (UN), regarding the protection of the rights of persons with disabilities⁵⁸.

The scale of disabilities, which had become an important element of social life, was proven, i.a. by the 1982 census. The gathered data showed, that c. 3,5 million persons with disabilities (children, youth, adults) lived in Poland. However, the statistics had an upward trend, as shown by the subsequent 2002, and 2012 censuses.

Summary

Special education in Poland was initiated by people of good will and social organisations during the partition period, for four categories of children: deaf-mute, blind, with intellectual disabilities, and morally neglected. The development of the methodology of special education was a resultant of the individual accomplishments of the teachers from particular schools and special institutions, as

⁵⁶ Official Gazette of the Ministry of Education, no 4, item 49, 1960 (a directive regarding the operation of the county selection committees for children with hearing and speech impairment).

⁵⁷ Official Gazette of the Ministry of National Education, no 67, pos. 322, 1993.

⁵⁸ A. Hulek, *Pedagogika rewalidacyjna*, Warszawa 1980; Tenże, *Stan obecny i kierunki przebudowy kształcenia specjalnego w Polsce*, PWN, 1989; E. Nurowski, *pedagogika specjalna w szkolnictwie powszechnym*, WSiP, Warszawa 1991.

well as, of the reception of the European thought within the frameworks of the "curative pedagogy". At the brink of regaining independence by Poland, numerous institutions were known for long lasting history and didactic achievements. In the quantitative aspect, special education was still in an organisational phase, and could meet the existing needs to but a small degree.

In the interwar period, the education of the teaching staff, counselling, and studies in special pedagogy were organised (PIPS). The union activity of special schools teachers was initiated (The Special Education Section), along with publishing effort within each sub-discipline of special pedagogy, i.a. in the Library of the Special Education Section, and "Special School".

During the end of the 1930s, the special education base was modest, as it provided education to only 10-15% of children at school age. Despite the attempts taken during the interwar period, the establishment of special preschools and vocational schools failed. It seems, that the greatest surplus of special education consisted of people such as Janusz Korczak and Maria Grzegorzewska, that, out of the kindness of their hearts, acted for the sake of "abnormal" children, according to the existing terminology.

The evaluation of the accomplishments of special education in the People's Republic is not unambiguous, and causes numerous difficulties, from the historical perspective. The organisation and functioning of special education of the time, were accompanied by continuous tensions in politics, and by the financial difficulties of the state, which directly resulted in the material and organisational base of this type of education. There is no doubt, that the educational model functioning at the time, based solely on special schools, often departed from the Western European experiences and models, however, it was presented as a model, among the socialist countries.

Following 1989, special education was subject to gradual modification, in the spirit of integration, adopted in the western world. The geopolitical changes of the 1990s, caused the current educational model (mixed model) to form, based, i.a. on the activity of pre-

schools, school-educational centres, and integrated classes, as well as, particularly in the last couple of years, on inclusion.

It is worth mentioning, that the “*Report on the state and the directions of the development of national education in the Polish People’s Republic*” („*Raport o stanie i kierunkach rozwoju edukacji narodowej w warunkach Polskiej Rzeczypospolitej Ludowej*”), prepared already in 1989, by the Expert Committee for National Education, contained numerous valuable information regarding special education, which – while it might be too optimistic – was evaluated as “going in the right direction”. The greatest ailment of the PRL educational system was associated with the unsatisfactory pace of building special schools. At the turn of the 1980s, the education of additional pedagogical staff, and the need for systemic actions for comprehensive counselling, and disability diagnostics, were considered to be essential⁵⁹.

In the contemporary model of special education in Poland, there is a search for the optimised solutions that would allow for a subjectification of persons with disabilities, in regard to social aid, education, employment and ensuring to meet all their existential needs – a thing that was long awaited, and was once impossible to achieve. The accomplishment of such tasks is multi-aspect and, despite the indisputable achievements, often faces numerous obstacles, i.a. of administrative and legislative nature, and is a result of various types of barriers of social nature⁶⁰.

⁵⁹ *Edukacja Narodowym Priorytetem. Raport o stanie i kierunkach rozwoju edukacji narodowej w Polskiej Rzeczypospolitej Ludowej*, Warszawa – Kraków 1989; Cz. Kupisiewicz (ed.), *Drogi i bezdroża polskiej oświaty w latach 1945–2005*, Warszawa 2005.

⁶⁰ See: J. Pańczyk (ed.), *Tożsamość polskiej pedagogiki specjalnej u progu XXI w. Materiały z konferencji zorganizowanej z okazji Jubileuszu 75-lecia WSPS w dniach 7–8.05.1997 r.*, Wyd. WSPS, Warszawa 1998; B. Marcinkowska, *Kształcenie uczniów z niepełnosprawnością w Polsce – przeszłość, teraźniejszość, przyszłość*, „*Psychologia Wychowawcza*”, no 7, 2005; W. Dykcik, A. Twardowski (eds.), *Poznańska pedagogika specjalna*, Wyd. UAM. Poznań 2006; S. Lorek, *Integracja dzieci niepełnosprawnych ze zdrowymi rówieśnikami – wartościowe partnerstwo*, „*Nauczyciel i Szkoła*”, no 3–4, 2009, pp. 35–41; G. Szumski, *Integracyjne kształcenie niepełnosprawnych*, PWN, Warszawa 2009; A. Krause, *Człowiek niepełnosprawny wobec przeobrażeń społecznych*, Oficyna

After 1989, the ideas of integrated education gained the approval of the teachers and the society. An exemplification of this, was the 1993 “Government programme of actions for persons with disabilities, and their integration with the society” („Rządowy program działań na rzecz osób niepełnosprawnych i ich integracji ze społeczeństwem”), and numerous social campaigns, referring to the spirit of these changes.

The rights of persons with disabilities were legally ensured in the Polish constitution of 1997, and in the “Act on the vocational and social rehabilitation, and the employment of persons with disabilities” („O rehabilitacji zawodowej i społecznej oraz zatrudnieniu osób niepełnosprawnych” – 1997)⁶¹, as well as, in a number of detailed directives issued by the Ministry of National Education⁶².

The reality of special education after 1989/1990, have gone through thorough transformations, and were directly related to the forming of a new civil society. For almost three decades, the enormous role in this matter has been played – apart from institutional activity – by third-sector organisations, based on the activity of the people of good will, who are concerned with the fate of the persons with disabilities. Historically looking, in this aspect, the quote from Maria Grzegorzewska, that “Everything everywhere means man”

Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2004; Eadem, *Współczesne paradygmaty pedagogiki specjalnej*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2011; I. Chrzanowska, *Pedagogika specjalna: od tradycji do współczesności*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2018; J. Głodkowska, K. Sipowicz, I. Patejuk-Mazurek, *Tradycja i współczesność pedagogiki specjalnej w tworzeniu społeczeństwa dla wszystkich. W 95-lecie Akademii Pedagogiki Specjalnej im. Marii Grzegorzewskiej*, Warszawa, Wyd. APS, 2018.

⁶¹ RP Law Gazette, 1997, no 123, pos. 776 /27 August 1997 Act on the vocational and social rehabilitation and the employment of persons with disabilities/; Law Gazette, 1997, no 78, pos. 483 /The Constitution of Poland – 2 April 1997/.

⁶² For example: the directives and resolutions regarding: the organisation and the principles of the operations of psychological-pedagogical counselling, from 1993, regarding the principle of organising care for students with disabilities, their education in mainstream and integrated public preschools, schools, and institutions, as well as, the organisation of special education, 4 October 1993; regarding the types, organisations, and the principles of operations of public care-educational, and resocialisation institutions, 21 February 1994.

is, and will always be up to date. It seems, that despite the changing reality, it is the human factor, and not just appropriate legal and administrative factors, have always been, and is now, the main resource that decides on the quality of the special education system quality in Poland⁶³.

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⁶³ M. Grzegorzewska, *Listy do młodego nauczyciela*, cykl. I–III, Wyd. WSPS, Warszawa 2002.

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Towards a radical life. Social and political threads of Helen Keller's activities

ABSTRACT: Sabina Pawlik, *Towards a radical life. Social and political threads of Helen Keller's activities*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, no. 27, Poznań 2019. Pp. 151–161. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. e-ISSN 2658-283X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2019.27.07>

Biographies of people with disabilities emphasising on their humanity and the value of this very special human experience may lead to questioning common assumptions about disability and people suffering from it. One of the best known historical figures among the people with disabilities was Hellen Keller, a deaf-blind American writer, educator and social activist. The article contains an attempt to challenge the myth of Keller as a “miracle child” by presenting her rich life and the most prominent aspects of her social and political activity.

KEY WORDS: disability, biographies, disability history, socialism, feminism

We must make you realise that the world you love, the world that excites and entertains you, would not exist if there were no defective genes...and it will cease to exist if you continue to seek to remove disabled people from the future of humanity.

Nabil Shaban¹

¹ The polemic titled *Body Fascism and Genetic Cleansing*) against the “genetic cleansing, written by Nabil Shaban in 2000 for the BBC programme titled *Heaven and Earth Show*, <http://www.geocities.ws/jinghiz/genetic_cleansing.html> [29.05.2019].

Biographies in disability history

The opening quote comes from a polemic titled *"Body Fascism and Genetic Cleansing"*, written by Nabil Shaban in 2000 for the BBC programme titled *Heaven and Earth Show*. The author, in his polemics that "We, so-called disabled and defective people have brought you Beethoven, Toulouse le Trec, Byron, Walter Scott, Stevie Wonder, Virginia Woolf, Woody Guthrie, Stephen Hawking, Julius Caesar, Attila the Hun, Ivarr the Boneless, Nelson...Roosevelt, JFK, Stephen Hawking"². By revealing the known historical narratives, the author opposes the conventional ways of presenting and interpreting the phenomenon of disability, placing his contribution in the change of the social approach towards human diversity³.

The biographies of persons with disabilities, emphasising on their humanity, and the value of this particular human experience, may lead to questioning the universally accepted premises regarding disability, and persons with disabilities. They are an important aspect of the identity of the members of this community, however, they were (are) marginalised and forgotten to a large degree. Through the years, few wished to identify with them, and persons with disabilities were socially invisible. Bringing back the memory of these persons is a form of regaining own history, also by the entire society⁴, which shows the gradual social destigmatisation of the phenomenon.

One of the best known persons with disabilities in history is the deaf-blind American writer, pedagogue, and social activist Hellen Keller. Despite the fact, that she is without a doubt known world-

² N. Shaban, *Body Fascism and Genetic Cleansing* (a television polemical script by Nabil Shaban), <http://www.geocities.ws/jinghiz/genetic_cleansing.htmlcyt> [29.05.2019], quote after: K. Ojrzyńska, *Nabila Shabana dialog z kulturą sprawną*, „Tekstualia” 2017 no 4(51), p. 166.

³ K. Ojrzyńska, *Nabila Shabana*, op. cit., p. 166.

⁴ K. Ojrzyńska, *O leczeniu społecznej amnezji: Akcja T4 w kulturze współczesnej*, [in:] *Niepełnosprawność w teatrze i performansie*, (ed.) E. Godlewska-Byliniak, Fundacja Teatr 21, Warszawa 2018, p. 286.

wide, one of the authors of her biography, Kim E. Nielsen notes⁵, that the her story often begins and ends when Anne Sullivan, placing the hand of her student under a current of water, spells the letters of the word *water* into her other hand, causing the child, which was previously beyond the sphere of language, could miraculously understand its essence. It was a “miracle” which would forever define the image of Helen Keller⁶. “My teacher placed my hand under the spout. As the cool stream gushed over one hand she spelled into the other the word water (...) Suddenly I felt a misty consciousness as of something forgotten (...) and somehow the mystery of language was revealed to me (...) I left the well-house eager to learn”⁷ – writes the author, back then of 23 years of age.

Helen Keller, appearing at the mass meetings of striking workers, seems to be an entirely different version. The iconography, that shapes our cultural memories, mostly omits the involvement of Keller in the political life, particularly her interest in radical socialism and the critique of capitalism, while the author herself is mostly remembered as a little, deaf-blind girl, a “miracle child”, which managed to overcome adversities. Few know that behind this image, a “flesh and blood” woman stands, a writer, a radical activist, a suffragist, and a socialist⁸.

Her political views were unwelcome even during her life. The author mentions the fact in her letter to senator Robert La Follete, where she reproaches him, that since she went beyond the sole involvement for blind persons, and publicly announced her political views, seeing capitalism as the cause of all harm and social inequalities, he stopped treating her with seriousness and respect⁹.

⁵ K.E. Nielsen, *Helen Keller and the Politics of Civic Fitness*, [in:] *The New Disability History: American Perspectives*, (eds.) P.K. Longmore, L. Umansky, New York University Press, New York – London 2001, p. 268.

⁶ L. Crow, *Helen Keller: Rethinking the Problematic Icon*, “Disability & Society” 2000, no 6(15), DOI: 10.1080/713662010, p. 1.

⁷ H. Keller, *Historia mojego życia*, Czytelnik, Warszawa 1978, p. 28.

⁸ L. Crow, op. cit., p. 1.

⁹ H. Keller, *I Am For You*, [in:] *Helen Keller. Selected writing*, (ed.) K.E. Nielsen, New York University Press, New York – London 2005, p. 71.

The brief biography of Keller read anew

Helen Keller was born in 1880 in Tuscumbia, Alabama, as the first child of captain Arthur Keller and his second wife Kate. At 19 months of age, after suffering a condition, Hellen Keller lost sight and hearing. The family had difficulties in communicating with the little Helen, and the child would become increasingly “wild and destructive”¹⁰. At the age of 7 Helen was visited by Anne Sullivan, who had become her teacher, mentor and a friend; the women will become inseparable up until Sullivan’s death in 1937. At 18, Helen passes entry exams to *Radcliffe*, the most prestigious college for women of the time. She graduates it with honours in 1904¹¹.

In 1903 Keller publishes an autobiography titled “*The Story of My Life*”, where she describes her early years. The events described by the author will weigh down on the way she will be perceived not only by her contemporaries, but also by the subsequent generations of “*The Story*” readers.

Back in her student years, Keller was introduced to the ideology of socialism by the lecturer and journalist John Macy (who will later marry Anne Sullivan). In this ideology, she finds the reflection of her own fight for equality, and the socialism would become her life path, and the source of her activism¹². In 1909 she joins the Socialist Party of America, and in 1920, she writes an essay titled “*How I Became A Socialist*”¹³. In her later activities, Keller fights for voting rights and the equality of women, she also fights for the rights of the working class, and is an advocate of birth control. She severely criticises the war, seeing it as an enterprise designed solely for the profit of the wealthiest parts of the society. Therefore, she calls the work-

¹⁰ L. Crow, op. cit., p. 4.

¹¹ K.E. Nielsen, *The Radical Lives of Helen Keller*, New York University Press, New York - London 2009, pp. XI-XII.

¹² L. Crow, op. cit., p. 30.

¹³ H. Keller, *How I Became A Socialist*, <<https://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=2447>>.

ers to rebel against it¹⁴. Until the end of her days, she would be faithful to her views, fighting for economic justice, and social equality. She would write essays, conduct social activity, meet with veterans and travel around the world (i.a. in 1948 she visited the Japanese Nagasaki and Hiroshima, she also travelled to India, Africa, Australia, Syria, Lebanon, and Israel)¹⁵. In the 1960s, after suffering from a stroke, she would gradually withdraw from public life. Helen Keller died on 1 June 1968, 32 years after her teacher and friend Anne Sullivan.

The selected themes of Keller's social and political activity

Keller's attitude towards disability

Helen Keller's attitude towards the phenomenon disability was indivisibly tied to her social and political views. Long before the definition of the social model of disability, Keller would promote her views, stating, that disability is mostly a result of the cultural, legal, and social determinants, and is closely tied to the social class¹⁶, and saw the industrialisation and poverty as its primary causes. In her article titled "*Modern Woman*" from 1912, she wrote that: "the blind man, however poignantly his individual suffering appeals to our hearts, is not a single, separate person whose problem can be solved by itself, but a symptom of social maladjustment"¹⁷.

The author vividly spoke out against the social isolation with persons with disabilities. During her trip to Israel (1952), when the hosts showed Keller a village for persons with disabilities, she violently protested against segregation practices, attempting to persuade the organisers to shut it down¹⁸.

¹⁴ K.E. Nielsen, *Helen Keller and the Politics...*, op. cit., p. 268.

¹⁵ K.E. Nielsen, *The Radical...*, op. cit., pp. XI–XII.

¹⁶ L. Crow, op. cit., p. 12.

¹⁷ H. Keller, *The Modern Woman*, <<https://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=2449>> [29.05.2019].

¹⁸ L. Crow, op. cit., p. 12.

Keller expressed her objections regarding treating organisations that work for blind persons, as charity institutions. She demanded not only high financing for the blind, regarding their education (however, obviously, she considered education to be essential), but also, the creation of sufficient conditions, so that these persons could be self-dependent and socially useful: "Blind graduates of (...) schools have said to me in the bitterness of disappointed hopes and ambitions, it would have been better to leave us in ignorance than to enlighten and cultivate our minds only to plunge us into a double darkness. What boots it that we have spent our youth in kindergartens, museums, libraries, and music-rooms if we pass from those pleasant halls to sit with idle hands (...) The time has come when strong and efficient measures should be taken in America to give the blind an opportunity to become self-supporting (...) it is a disgrace that any man should be forced to sit in idleness"¹⁹.

Feminism

After many years following Keller's death, the contemporary works dedicated to her, try to tackle the stereotypical, sentimental image of a brave, deaf-blind girl, who, through hard work, managed to overcome her limitation. The works attempt to rediscover the real message of the author and its significance to the broader understanding of the participation of women with disabilities in history and politics²⁰.

The grounds for Keller's feminism, was the belief in the necessity of striving for justice and social equality²¹. In her public activity, she highlighted that women's rights are a bigger part of an issue, that is universal social justice²². She also believed, that the giving

¹⁹ H. Keller, *What The Blind Can Do*, <<https://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=2502&page=2>> [29.05.2019].

²⁰ R. Garland-Thomson, *Feminist Disability Studies*, "Signs" 2005 no 30(2), p. 1560, DOI: 10.1086/423352.

²¹ L. Crow, op. cit., p. 12.

²² K.E. Nielsen, Introduction to Keller's letter *The Enfranchisement of Woman*, [in:] *Helen Keller: Selected...*, op. cit., p. 51.

women voting rights will contribute to the victory of socialism, that is why she eagerly supported the suffragist movement in the United States and in Great Britain. In her letter to the British activists for women's voting rights, she wrote: "The enfranchisement of women is a part of the vast movement to enfranchise all mankind (...) Have your men with their millions of votes freed themselves from this injustice?"²³.

In a letter to Eleanor Roosevelt, with which she felt a specific bond, due to their common frustrations resulting from the limitations imposed on women, and their mutual vision of a better world, she wrote: "You inspire other women with confidence and in life. You show them how through rightly directed intelligence and will-power can evolve higher capabilities and raise the average of human accomplishment (...) Sincerely I admire you for the courage with which you have declared yourself on the side of underprivileged and industrially oppressed women"²⁴.

In her views, Keller would promote the necessity of birth control, she was also an advocate of eugenics. In 1915, she publicly supported the controversial movement of Margaret Sangerr²⁵ presenting the socio-economical and eugenic premises for legal birth control and abortion²⁶. She also stated, that the conscious marriage is contrary to the interest of capitalists who need cheap labour force, to realise their financial aims.

Paradoxically, Helen Keller herself, would always dun for the role of a woman, trying to repeal the stereotypical ways of perceiving her as a person, due to her disability - both as the role of her conquering her own fate, as well as, her as a poor pitiful cripple. Unfortunately she failed to overcome the image of a person with disability as an asexual, eternal child. In 1916, during Anne Sulli-

²³ H. Keller, *Letter To An English Woman-Suffragist*, <<https://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=2499>> [29.05.2019].

²⁴ H. Keller, *You Inspire Other Woman*, [in:] *Helen Keller: Selected...*, op. cit., p. 221.

²⁵ Margaret Sanger - an American feminist, and an activist for conscious motherhood, the founder of the *American Birth Control League*.

²⁶ *Battling the Powers of Darkness-Helen Keller, Margaret Sanger and Birth Control*, <<https://www.nyu.edu/projects/sanger/articles/keller.php>> [29.05.2019].

van's conditions, the duties of Keller's secretary were taken over by Peter Fagan. Affection arises between them. When their relation, and marriage plans saw the light of day, Keller's family strongly opposed their relationship. Under their influence, Keller accepts the fact that marriage and motherhood, can never happen to a deaf-blind woman²⁷. Peter Fagan is gone from her life forever. "How alone and unprepared I often feel, especially when I wake at night"²⁸ - Keller wrote in a letter to Sullivan on 30 January 1917, right after Fagan left.

Keller against the war

Keller wrote: "I believe women would use the ballot to prevent war and destroy the ideas that make war possible"²⁹. Since the beginnings of her activity she was an opponent of war, considering it to be a profit-driven effort. She publicly criticised the United States' accession to both World War I and World War II.

10 May 1933, when in twenty largest cities of the Third Reich, including Berlin, Munich, Dresden and Frankfurt, forbidden books are being burnt at stakes, the Keller's essay titled "*How I Became a Socialist*" is also burning. Keller is furious, and writes a letter, that, in its initial version was addressed to Hitler himself: "History has taught you nothing if you think you can kill ideas. Tyrants have tried to do that often before and the ideas have risen up in their might and destroyed them. You can burn my books and the books of the best minds in Europe, but the ideas in them have seeped through a million channels, and will continue to quicken other minds"³⁰.

²⁷ K.E. Nielsen, Introduction to Helen Keller's letter *How Alone and Unprepared I Often Feel*, [in:] *Helen Keller: Selected...*, op. cit., p. 96.

²⁸ H. Keller, *The Enfranchisement of Woman*, [in:] *ibidem*, p. 96.

²⁹ H. Keller, *Why Men Need Woman Suffrage*, <<https://www.disabilitymuseum.org/dhm/lib/detail.html?id=2670&page=2>> [29.05.2019].

³⁰ H. Keller, *Letter from Helen Keller to Adolf Hitler/ German students expressing anger over Hitler's policies*, <<https://www.afb.org/HelenKellerArchive?a=d&d=A-HK02-B210-F03-001.1.1>> [29.05.2019].

In this very letter, she decisively defends the Jews: "Do not imagine your barbarities to the Jews are unknown here. God sleepeth not, and He will visit His Judgement upon you"³¹. Keller assumed, that her duty is to direct the attention of the Americans to the dramatic situation of the Jews that inhabit the Nazi-occupied countries. In 1938, she persuaded the publisher of *The New York Times*, John H. Finley, to publish a letter regarding the tragic fate of this nation, and of the persons with disabilities in the Nazi Germany. In a letter regarding the shutting down the Israelite Institute for the Blind in Vienna, she writes as follows: "The other day i received a letter which, like concentrated fire, burnt deeper into my consciousness (...) it brought the sense of a nameless shadow worse than blindness..."³².

After the end of World War II, Helen Keller travels to Japan, after 11 years she once again visits Hiroshima and Nagasaki. She experiences a sight that is difficult to describe with words. Nielsen notes - "The human misery was more than she knew how to communicate"³³. Keller notes "As a result of that inferno two hundred thousand persons are now dead, and the suffering caused by atomic burns and other wounds is incalculable". In Hiroshima, she touches a burnt face of a Japanese officer: "He let me touch his face, and the rest is silence"³⁴ - she writes.

Conclusion

Helen Kellers story does not begin, and does not end at the moment, where a little girl miraculously comprehends the mystery

³¹ Ibidem, [29.05.2019].

³² H. Keller, *The Nazi Authorities Have Closed The Institute*, [in:] *Helen Keller: Selected...*, op. cit., p. 199.

³³ K.E. Nielsen, *The Radical...*, op. cit., p. 92.

³⁴ Keller's quotes come from the monograph: K.E. Nielsen, *The Radical...*, op. cit., p. 92.

of language, in a well-house in Tuscumbia. Despite the fact, that the most known film dedicated to Keller titled "*The Miracle Worker*", depicts her as a child, she lived for almost 88 years (born on 27 June 1880, died on 1 June 1968), having a more varied and complicated life than anyone in the history of the United States. She was a socialist, a member of the *American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU)*³⁵, a radical critic of the war, and a feminist. Recalling Keller's life as but a sad and bland story, abolishes her accomplishments – her activity, her opinions, and her political views³⁶. Kim E. Nielsen recalls a view, that persons such as Keller can be an inspiration to others, only when we avoid controversy and create unidimensional characters, to present their story. The author notes, that the view is completely false. One must acknowledge that memorising the historical characters by sanctifying them is falsifying history. Helen Keller was a complicated person, leading a very complicated life³⁷. Katarzyna Ojrzyńska notes that "(...) Instead of a mirror, persons with disabilities were given a few trite portraits"³⁸. Reclaiming this or other stories of persons with disabilities is like the society looking into the mirror of history, that up until now, could only be created by its able-bodied and privileged part. It allows to regain the areas lost "for the excluded community of persons with disabilities, still perceived as deviation, rather than diversity"³⁹.

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³⁵ *American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU)* – an American non-profit organisation, for the protection of the civil rights guaranteed by the constitution. Founded in 1920.

³⁶ K.E. Nielsen, *The Radical...*, op. cit., p. 141.

³⁷ *Ibidem*, p. 142.

³⁸ K. Ojrzyńska, *Nabila Shabana...*, op. cit., p. 174.

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Special School as One of the Implementers of Education for Sustainable Development of Persons with Moderate and Severe Intellectual Disability, as well as Multiple Disability

ABSTRACT: Iwona Wendreńska, *Special school as one of the implementers of education for sustainable development of persons with moderate and severe intellectual disability, as well as multiple disability.* Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, no. 27, Poznań 2019. Pp. 163–180. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. e-ISSN 2658-283X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2019.27.08>

The basis for choosing the subject of this article was the conviction that due to the recent expansion of the meaning of the term “sustainable development”, the essence of education for sustainable development, its objectives and tasks implemented in different types of schools, including special schools, are also subject to change. The article will present the results of research covering, on the one hand, the analysis of strategic and programme documents and, on the other hand, the results of surveys conducted among 164 teachers employed in special education institutions in the Silesian and Lublin Voivodships.

KEY WORDS: education for sustainable development, special school, core curriculum

Introduction

The basic tasks of a modern special school include equipping students with key competences, understood as a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for personal development and self-fulfilment, building civil society, social integration and employment. One of these competences, which is an important condition for achieving the others, is the ability to learn. As Józef Bałachowicz rightly pointed out¹, taking into account the new categories appearing in international reports on learning as one of the key competences of modern man, the following paradigms (education pillars) can be identified: 1) *to learn to know*; 2) *to learn to act*; 3) *to learn to live together*; 4) *to learn to be*; 5) *to learn to be innovative*; 6) *to learn to live in a sustainable way*².

If one of the paradigms is to prepare individuals and groups to live in a sustainable way, then the question arises: *What does it mean to live in a sustainable way?* On the face of it, the answer to this question seems simple. It is contained in the statement: *respecting, implementing the idea of sustainable development at the individual and social level*. It should be remembered, however, that sustainable development is defined in different ways³, as referred to later in this article.

From the idea of sustainable development to education for sustainable development

The term sustainable development was introduced in the 19th century by Hans Carl von Carlowitz to describe forest management

¹ J. Bałachowicz, *Idea zrównoważonego rozwoju w edukacji dziecka*, "Prima Educatione" 2017, Vol. 1, p. 29.

² Previously, this pillar of education was defined as: *Learning to transform oneself and society*.

³ Z. Bukowski, *Zrównoważony rozwój w systemie prawa*, Towarzystwo Naukowe Organizacji i Kierownictwa, Toruń 2009, p. 26.

in which only as many trees can be felled, as many can grow in their place⁴. In the 1970s, it appeared in international documents⁵. And from that time it became one of the priorities of the present and future generations⁶. Sustainable development was then defined as “such a course of inevitable economic development that would not significantly and irreversibly harm the environment of human life, would not lead to the degradation of the biosphere, not violate the laws of nature, economics and culture”⁷. Originally, sustainable development was interpreted primarily in terms of environmental sustainability. This approach can also be found in contemporary studies⁸. Over time, however, it was noticed that it is impossible to effectively protect the environment without respecting the rights of local communities, democratic principles and participation in building civil society, efforts to eliminate poverty and hunger and develop entrepreneurship. This concept, therefore, assumes a balance

⁴ Cf. L. Pawłowski, *Rola monitoringu środowiska w realizacji zrównoważonego rozwoju*, „Rocznik Ochrona Środowiska” 2011, Vol. 13, p. 334.

⁵ The term sustainable development was first used in the Declaration of the Stockholm Conference in 1972. Its definition was proposed at the second session of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) Governing Council in 1975. The report of the World Commission on Environment and Development entitled *Our Common Future* from 1987 (*Nasza wspólna przyszłość. Raport Światowej Komisji do Spraw Środowiska i Rozwoju*, PWN, Warszawa 1991), also known as the Brundtland Commission Report, contributed to its popularization (for more details see: A. Papuziński, *Edukacja ekologiczna jako instrument polityki ekologicznej*, [in:] *Polityka ekologiczna III Rzeczypospolitej*, ed. A. Papuziński, Wydawnictwo Uczelniane AB, Bydgoszcz 2000, p. 115).

⁶ Cf. e. g. the Treaty on the European Union signed in Maastricht in 1992 and its amending Treaty of Amsterdam signed in 1997, <www.europarl.europa.eu/factsheets/pl/sheet/3/traktat-z-maastricht-i-traktat-z-amsterdamu> [30 IV 2019].

⁷ Quote after: Z. Kozak, *O pojęciach rozwoju zrównoważonego i ekorozwoju*, [in:] *Ochrona środowiska w filozofii i teologii*, ed. J.M. Dołęga, J.W. Czartoszewski, Wydawnictwo ATK, Warszawa 1999, p. 257.

⁸ *The National Strategy for Ecological Education*, Ministry of the Environment, Warszawa 2001, p. 5; B. Banaszak, *The Constitution of the Republic of Poland*, C.H. Beck, Warszawa 2012, p. 74; A. Walosik, *Przez edukację do zrównoważonego rozwoju*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP, Kraków 2013, p. 5 et seq.

between economic, social, political and ecological aspects, which is a condition for maintaining a high quality of life not only for contemporary people, but also for future generations⁹. The holistic approach to sustainable development was evident, inter alia, at the UN Millennium Summit (2000)¹⁰, the World Summit on Sustainable Development (RIO+10) in Johannesburg (2002), the World Summit on Sustainable Development RIO+20 in Rio de Janeiro (2012)¹¹ and the 70th Session of the United Nations General Assembly in New York (2015)¹². An important feature of the concept of sustainable development is that it does not describe a particular state of affairs, but is rather of a postulative nature¹³, sets the course for change. The understanding of sustainable development adopted in this article is presented in the following diagram.

A necessary condition for the implementation of this model is to undertake intentional, systemic, multidimensional actions within the framework of education for sustainable development (ESD). Its

⁹ Cf. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, *Teaching and Learning for Sustainable Future*, <<http://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/>> [30.04.2019], E.M. Jastrzębska et al., *Jak uczyć o społecznej odpowiedzialności i zrównoważonym rozwoju. Przewodnik dla nauczycieli*, Forum Odpowiedzialnego Rozwoju, Warszawa 2011, p. 11, E. Lewandowska, *Zrównoważony rozwój i edukacja dla zrównoważonego rozwoju. Konceptualizacja idei*, [in:] *Edukacja dla zrównoważonego rozwoju w perspektywie społeczeństwa wiedzy*, ed. A. Korwin-Szymanowska, E. Lewandowska, A. Witkowska-Tomaszewska, Wydawnictwo Akademii Pedagogiki Specjalnej, Warszawa 2016, p. 42; P. Rydzewski, *Social Dimensions of Sustainable Development in International Public Opinion*, „Problemy Ekorozwoju – Problems of Sustainable Development” 2019, Vol. 14, No. 1, p. 53 et seq.

¹⁰ Polish UNESCO Committee, UNESCO and the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development, <<http://www.unesco.pl/edukacja/dekada-edukacji-nt-zrownawazonego-rozwoju/unesco-a-zrownawazony-rozwoj>> [30.04.2019].

¹¹ E. Olejarczyk, *Zasada zrównoważonego rozwoju w systemie prawa polskiego – wybrane zagadnienia*, „Przegląd Prawa Ochrony Środowiska” 2016, No. 2, p. 124.

¹² Polish UNESCO Committee, *Agenda for Sustainable Development 2030*, <<http://www.unesco.pl/662>> [30.04.2019].

¹³ Cf. B. Ogrodnik, *Filozoficzne podstawy edukacji na rzecz zrównoważonego rozwoju*, [in:] *Filozofia, psychologia i ekologia w edukacji dla zrównoważonego rozwoju*, ed. B. Ogrodnik, R. Kulik, P. Skubała, Śląski Ogród Botaniczny, Mikołów 2010, pp. 13–14.

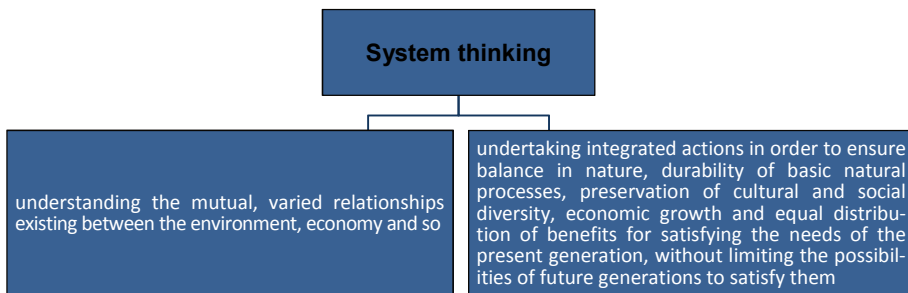


Fig. 1. Sustainable development model¹⁴

assumptions were presented, inter alia, in the report of the International Commission for Education for the 21st century entitled “*Education. There is a hidden treasure in it*”¹⁵. In Polish literature we can also find attempts to define what ESD is and what constitutes its essence. According to Joanna Kostecka, it should: enable prediction and solving of problems threatening life on Earth, serve the dissemination of values and principles conditioning sustainable development (gender equality, reduction of poverty areas, environmental protection, including the protection of the planet’s natural resources, peaceful functioning of societies based on tolerance and justice), show the complexity and mutual interpenetration of three spheres: environment, society (including culture) and economy¹⁶.

¹⁴ Own study based on: J. Bałachowicz, *Idea zrównoważonego...*, op. cit., p. 24; A. Skowroński, *Zrównoważony rozwój perspektywą dalszego postępu cywilizacyjnego*, „Problemy Ekorozwoju – Problems of Sustainable Development” 2006, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp. 50–51; W. Sztumski, *Idea zrównoważonego rozwoju a możliwości jej urzeczywistnienia*, „Problemy Ekorozwoju – Problems of Sustainable Development” 2006, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp. 73–74; M.K. Terlecka, *Idea zrównoważonego rozwoju – o genezie, definicji, celach i zasadach słów kilka*, [in:] *Zrównoważony rozwój. Idea czy konieczność?* Vol. 1, ed. A. Kleśta, M.K. Terlecka, Wydawnictwo ARMAGRAF, Krosno 2014, p. 9 et seq.

¹⁵ *Education – there is a treasure hidden in it. Report for UNESCO by the International Commission for Education chaired by Jacques Delors*, Association of Polish Educators of the UNESCO Publishing House, Warszawa 1998.

¹⁶ Cf. J. Kostecka, *Dekada edukacji dla zrównoważonego rozwoju – wizja, cel, strategia*, „Problemy Ekorozwoju – Problems of Sustainable Development” 2009, vol. 4, No. 2, p. 102.

It should not therefore be limited to the implementation of sustainable development content, but should also cover issues such as respect for human dignity, the rights of representatives of different communities, democratic principles and responsible participation in the development of a civil society that functions harmoniously at all levels, in particular cultural, economic, natural and social, and which meets its own needs, taking into account the needs of future generations¹⁷. Education for sustainable development requires an interdisciplinary approach to the education reform, offering all people, in all educational contexts and at all stages of life, the opportunity to learn a lifestyle that ensures their sustainable development. It goes far beyond formal education systems, but should have an impact on them, reflected in textbooks, curricula and teaching methods.

It is not easy to achieve these goals. In the past, it has generally taken the form of narrow, bottom-up, action-oriented activities¹⁸. The UN therefore established the years 2005-2014 as the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development, later also known as the Decade of Change. The primary tasks during this period were: promoting sustainable behaviour, inspiring critical and creative thinking to find solutions to problems that prevent sustainable development. The coordination of activities was entrusted to UNESCO. This UN agenda provided for the task of integrating the issues of sustainable development into the national educational systems and educational policies of the countries and raising awareness of the importance of the assumptions of sustainable development among various civil society entities, i.e. the media, social and non-governmental organizations, and the private sector. Our country also began to implement the principles of ESD. This process

¹⁷ For more details see e. g. K. Śledzińska, *Kategoria odpowiedzialnego uczestnictwa jako aspekt edukacji na rzecz zrównoważonego rozwoju*, [in:] *Spółeczna odpowiedzialność jako podstawa osiągnięcia zrównoważonego rozwoju*, ed. O. Kotowska-Wójcik, M. Luty-Michalak, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UKSW, Warszawa 2016, p. 86 et seq.

¹⁸ J. Bałachowicz, *Idea zrównoważonego...*, op. cit., p. 29.

is being implemented by various entities, but as the Expert Report¹⁹ from 2012 has shown there was a lack of a single formalised network of cooperation, which was undoubtedly a major impediment. The study also pointed to the need to update the strategic document in force at that time, to clarify the understanding of sustainable development, to enable teachers to improve their professional skills, to create cooperation networks and to exchange experiences. On the other hand, the research undertaken by Ewa Gajuś-Lankamer and Anna Maria Wójcik, and later by Alicja Walosik and Anna Batorczak, shows that there exist formal and financial bases for implementing Education for Sustainable Development in Poland on a continuous basis. In the opinion of the authors, the content of the core curriculum makes it possible to conduct ESD at various educational stages, but most of the issues in this area are discussed within natural science classes. Moreover, the implementation of these contents is not of a systemic character, it is not always a priority, it is rarely checked within the framework of examination texts and constitutes only one of many areas of school work evaluation²⁰.

The studies mentioned above consisted of a general evaluation of the implementation of education for sustainable development and lacked detailed information on special education institutions. And yet, modern special schools, which are moving away from complete segregation towards partial segregation²¹, have become

¹⁹ *Expert opinion on education for sustainable development in Poland. Final report.* Developed by a team of ITTI consultants, commissioned by the Ministry of the Environment Poznań 2012, p. 3 et seq., <<https://www.gov.pl/web/srodowisko/badania-dotyczace-edukacji-dla-zrownowazonego-rozwoju>> [30.04.2019].

²⁰ E. Gajuś-Lankamer, A.M. Wójcik, *Analiza ciągłości edukacji dla zrównoważonego rozwoju w aspekcie środowiskowym na różnych poziomach kształcenia ogólnego w Polsce, „Problemy Ekologii”* 2009, Vol. 13, No. 5, pp. 249–250; A. Batorczak, *Edukacja dla Zrównoważonego Rozwoju w Polsce i w Wielkiej Brytanii.* doctoral dissertation, Warsaw University, Warszawa 2013, pp. 113–184, <<https://depotuw.ceon.pl/bitstream/handle/item/457/Praca%20doktorska.pdf?sequence=1>> [30.04.2019]; A. Walosik, *Przez edukację do zrównoważonego...*, op. cit., pp. 133–143.

²¹ In the past, teachers of a special school were specialists in working with pupils with a given type of disability, today such schools are usually attended by peo-

educational institutions for students with different special educational needs, and thus an environment in which they can encounter diversity, learn the principles of democracy, and develop tolerance for others. Teachers employed in special schools, thanks to changes in the core curriculum, EU projects and the resulting opportunities for cooperation and exchange of experiences with the staff of partner schools, gain new experiences useful in the process of instilling values and building competences of students, without which sustainable development would not be possible. With this in mind, the author of this article has undertaken pilot studies on the implementation of the principles of ESD in special education institutions.

Assumptions and organization of own research

Within the framework of the undertaken research procedure, answers to the following research questions were sought:

- What is the interpretation of the implementation of education for sustainable development in special education?
- What are the opinions of the surveyed teachers on the implementation of education for sustainable development in special schools?
- How do respondents assess the effects of the implemented measures?

The research included two stages. The first one consisted in the analysis of provisions in legislative and strategic documents, as well as in organizational and program documents of the examined institutions concerning the implementation of the sustainable development model, including ESD. In the second stage, a survey was conducted among special educators. Participation in the survey was offered to 200 teachers employed in special schools in the Silesian

ple with sensory disabilities, intellectual disabilities (moderate and severe), people with autism spectrum disorders, as well as people with multiple disabilities. Often, in special schools there are also revalidation and upbringing units for people with profound intellectual disabilities.

and Lublin Voivodships. However, 36 people refused to participate in the study. Motives: "lack of time" – 11 persons, "I don't teach ecology in my classes" – a narrow understanding of sustainable development education (note by I.W.) – 8 persons, "due to the disability of my students I do not implement the content in this field" – 4 persons, "unfortunately I will not complete this questionnaire, because I do not agree with the idea of sustainable development – for me it is another type of camouflaged totalitarianism, and I don't have time to develop this thought, let alone in the survey" – 1 teacher. We can hope that despite this negative attitude towards the idea of sustainable development, the teacher implements the contents of the core curriculum corresponding to education for sustainable development and shapes the system of values necessary for sustainable development in his pupils. The remaining 12 persons did not justify their refusal to participate in the research. In the end, the questionnaires filled in by 164 teachers working with students with moderate and severe intellectual disabilities and multiple disabilities were analysed. Due to the deliberate selection of the research sample and its size, the results of the survey should be treated as approximate and the generalisations made should apply only to the group of teachers participating in the survey.

Interpretation of the implementation of education for sustainable development in special education

Indications concerning education for sustainable development can be found in international reports, binding legal acts, strategic documents, organizational and program documents of the examined special schools. For example, the Report of the International Education Commission, chaired by Jacques Delors (1996), points to the importance of education not only for economic growth, the creation of a better world, sustainable human development based on the ability to control and adapt to change²². Recommendations for edu-

²² *Edukacja – jest w niej...*, op. cit., pp. 67–70.

education for sustainable development can also be found in: the Millennium Development Goals formulated at the UN Millennium Summit in 2000²³, the Strategy for Education for Sustainable Development of the European Economic Commission²⁴, *UNESCO Global Action Programme on Education for Sustainable Development*²⁵. In Poland, the basis for the implementation of the model of sustainable development and thus education for sustainable development is the *Constitution of the Republic of Poland*. Article 5 of the Constitution reads as follows:

“The Republic The Republic of Poland shall safeguard the independence and integrity of its territory and ensure the freedoms and rights of persons and citizens, the security of the citizens, safeguard the national heritage and shall ensure the protection of the natural environment pursuant to the principles of sustainable development²⁶. Whereas Article 1 point 15 of the *Act of 14 December 2016, Educational Law* assumes that the tasks of the education system include, inter alia, “The dissemination of knowledge about the principles of sustainable development among children and youth and shaping attitudes conducive to its implementation on a local, national and global scale”²⁷.

The objectives of ESD are also reflected in the core curriculum. Given the place of employment of special educators participating in the survey, only the core curriculum for the education of students with moderate and severe intellectual disabilities was analysed in this study. The results are shown in table no. 1.

²³ *Milenijne Cele Rozwoju*, <<http://www.unic.un.org.pl/cele.php>> [30.04.2019].

²⁴ *Strategy for Education for Sustainable Development of the European Economic Commission*, <www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/env/esd/strategytext/strategyinPolish.pdf> [30.04.2019].

²⁵ *Global Action Programme on Education for Sustainable Development*, <<https://en.unesco.org/gap>> [30.04.2019].

²⁶ *Constitution of the Republic of Poland*, Article 5, Journal of Laws of 1997, No. 78, item 483.

²⁷ *Act of 14 December 2016 Educational law*, Article 1, point 15, Journal of Laws of 2017 item 59.

Table 1. ESD objectives and the core curriculum for general education for students with moderate or severe intellectual disabilities

No.	Types of documents	References to ESD
1.	The core curriculum of general education for students with moderate or severe intellectual disabilities (primary school, schools providing preparation for work - SPDP) ²⁸ and the core curriculum of general education for students with moderate or significant intellectual disabilities in primary and lower secondary schools (lower secondary school) ²⁹	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – learning objectives – general requirements (especially objectives 1,4,5); – school tasks (1, 4b, 4l, 4m, 4n, 4s, 4t, 4u, 4x, 4y, 4z, 4aa); – purpose of classes in the scope of personal and social functioning: “comprehensive pupil development and preparation for social roles in order to enable them to function in the best possible way in the future and to integrate into the environment as much as possible”; – Physical education objectives (mainly objectives 4–10); – teaching content enabling students to: get to know themselves better, their own needs, know and understand the relationship with the surrounding world, processes taking place in this world, take pro-health and pro-ecological actions, build proper consumer behaviours, rational use of natural resources, culture, technology and information technology, taking care of their own and others’ safety, respecting the rights and dignity of others.
	Lower secondary school	– Learning objectives, school tasks (3-17), educational content (including 1, 2, 10, 12, 13, 14).
	SPDP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – learning objectives – general requirements (especially objectives 2-10, 18, 19, 21); – school tasks (1-4, 8, 9, 23-25, 27-31, 35); – the objectives and content of the educational activities; the priority of working with pupils is “to enhance their personal, social and communication competences, to experience and understand adult life situations (...) of maximum integration with other members of the local community”, to enable them to get to know themselves, respect human dignity, diversity, care for cultural heritage, natural resources, etc.

²⁸ Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 14 February 2017 on the core curriculum of pre-school education and the core curriculum of general education for primary schools, including for students with moderate or severe intellectual disabilities, general education for first-degree vocational schools, general education for special schools preparing for work and general education for post-secondary schools, Journal of Laws of 2017, item 356.

²⁹ Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 27 August 2012 on the core curriculum of pre-school education and education in particular types of schools, Journal of Laws of 2012, item 977.

As can be seen from the above table, the core curriculum sets the directions for the implementation of ESD in special education institutions. The indications contained therein are general and every teacher can implement them in accordance with the needs and capabilities of his or her pupils. The question arises whether they are reflected in the internal documents of the examined institutions concerning the organisation of work, undertaken preventive and educational actions, etc. In order to answer this question, the documentation of 10 special education institutions in the Lublin and Silesian Voivodships was analysed. As a result, it can be stated that the content related to ESD is included in the following documents of the schools surveyed: the statute, the concept of school work, the educational and preventive programme, descriptions of EU projects, innovations and special interest groups. The first of these documents focuses mainly on the social aspects of the Framework, while the content of documents concerning educational projects, innovations or special interest groups refers to specific objectives of ESD and has a narrower scope (e.g. ecology, health care, etc.).

Implementation of education for sustainable development in special schools in the opinion of the surveyed teachers

All respondents confirmed the implementation of ESD in the schools in which they work. According to their declarations, this results from: the core curriculum (141 indications), implementation of educational and preventive programmes (56 indications), management's expectations (32 indications), objectives of implemented innovations and teachers' own programmes (29 indications) and EU projects (15 indications)³⁰. According to the teachers surveyed, apart from the activities related to the implementation of the core curriculum, the issues related to ESD are addressed during:

- extra-curricular activities – special interest groups, activities organized within educational projects and pedagogical innovations, activities of associations (e.g. healthy eating, physical

³⁰ Respondents could provide more than one answer to each of the questions concerning the implementation of ESD in their place of employment.

- activity in water, nature conservation, learning about other cultures, etc.) – 113 indications);
- intra-school, local and national charity and other actions “developing empathy, respect for the dignity of others, their differences and sensitivity to the needs arising from them”, organized on the occasion of e. g. “19 days against violence and harm to children and youth”, “The International Day of Tolerance”, “The International Day of Aid to the Needy”, etc. (108 indications);
 - competitions and thematic excursions “thanks to which children discover the beauty of the region and the country, actions taken to protect the environment and preserve cultural heritage” (36 indications);
 - theatrical classes, during which students prepare performances showing civilization, social and cultural problems, “learn to look at the world and these problems through the eyes of other people” (3 indications);
 - activities of the school self-government (2 indications),
 - activities of the School Volunteer Club (1 indication).

According to the respondents, teachers employed in special schools cooperate not only within the school, but also establish contacts with local, national and foreign entities in order to implement ESD. However, these activities usually concern specific thematic areas (e.g. cultural diversity, heritage conservation, ecology, health prevention, etc.).

The effects of implementing education for sustainable development in the opinions of special educators

When describing the results of their activities, teachers focused mainly on the changes visible in the knowledge, behaviours and attitudes of students. Some limited themselves to general statements: increase of sensitivity in the field of nature protection (2 indications); active participation in charity actions (1 indication);

“awareness that the world belongs to me – co-responsibility, respect for property, nature (1 indication).

Others referred to specific changes perceived in the everyday functioning of pupils:

- increasing responsibility, taking care of one’s environment (the classroom, school, the area around the school) – organizing, segregating waste at school (40 indications) and at home (27 indications), saving water and energy consumption (52 indications);
- organisation and active participation in the collection of secondary materials (37 recommendations);
- improvement of social functioning (35 indications), including: compliance with the rules prevailing in the team – mutual respect, empathy (19 indications), improvement of mutual relations (11 indications), thinking about others, willingness to help the weaker (4 indications), tolerance for differences in tastes, expectations, views (1 indication);
- increase in health care, e. g. change in eating habits, consumption of water and juices instead of carbonated beverages, physical activity, taking care of oneself and others’ safety (20 indications);
- active participation in charity events (e.g. raising funds, bottle tops, pet food, etc.), encouraging parents to participate (11 guidelines);
- willingness to participate in various activities, ceremonies, events, greater motivation and perseverance during the implementation of joint activities for the benefit of the natural environment, local environment (11 guidelines);
- perceiving various problems in the environment and the willingness to solve them (2 indications);
- saving materials, e. g. paper (1 indication);
- willingness to acquire new knowledge in this field (1 indication);
- “they squash the bottles before they throw them into the waste bin, collect waste paper, collect bottle tops. Children know

where the old batteries collection point is in the school. With every month they are more knowledgeable about sustainable development – as can be seen from what they say in early school education classes (indication).

Only two people did not answer that question. The analysis of the responses of special educators concerning the manifestations of internalisation of sustainable development by their students showed that the respondents referred mainly to environmental (natural) aspects of sustainable development and less frequently to social and economic aspects. They also omitted cultural aspect.

Summary and conclusions

According to the declarations of the surveyed teachers, special schools implement the assumptions of ESD (implementation of the core curriculum and extracurricular activities related to EU projects, innovations or teachers' own programs). Special educators cooperate in this field within the school and take part in external initiatives. They encourage students not only to participate in classes and actions, but also to submit their own proposals for actions. They support students in transferring good habits to their families. Thus, they shape their initiative and ability to cooperate in planning and implementing team projects aimed at improving the quality of their own lives, their contemporaries and future societies.

It is worth remembering, however, that respondents build pupils' competences in the field of sustainable development in a narrow way. They usually focus on one environmental aspect of the model. They are less likely to relate to social and economic issues. It does not follow from their statements that they try to analyse the links between the natural environment and socio-cultural and economic issues with their pupils. Such analyses relate only to the relationship between the environment and economy (on a macro and micro scale) – pollution, waste and the possibility of introducing changes. Therefore, it seems justified to enable special educators to

exchange experiences, disseminate information about good practices, undertake cooperation within the framework of implemented projects, innovations of inter-school range. It is important to support their activities through parallel education of a lifelong nature.

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Inclusive Special School Teachers' Self-Assessment of their Diagnostic and Therapeutic Knowledge and Skills

ABSTRACT: Anna Borzęcka, *Inclusive Special School Teachers' Self-Assessment of their Diagnostic and Therapeutic Knowledge and Skills*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, no. 27, Poznań 2019. Pp. 181–195. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. e-ISSN 2658-283X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2019.27.09>

Diagnostic and therapeutic competences are necessary for the effectiveness of didactic and educational interventions undertaken by a professional specialist school teacher. In order for the teacher to be able to cope with the tasks assigned by special pedagogy, he must have theoretical and practical preparation in the field of diagnosis and therapy. The future of a special school pupil will depend on his knowledge and skills. The article presents research on declarative sources of teaching knowledge and skills in the field of diagnosis and therapy as well as their self-assessment, taking into account nominal variables (age and job seniority).

KEY WORDS: diagnostic competences, therapeutic competences, knowledge self-assessment, self-assessment of skills

Introduction

A special school teacher implements activities determined through special education, for which “the subject are the care, therapy, education and upbringing of persons with divergences from the norm, in most cases less able or disabled individuals, irrespec-

tive of the type, level and complexity of symptoms as well as the causes and effects of the anomalies, disturbances, difficulties or limitations that emerge"¹. The professional role of a special school teacher is to organise didactic and educational as well as rehabilitation activity that is aimed at the comprehensive development of a disabled person in line with their individual psychological and physical capacities, the transfer of knowledge, the establishment of faith in their own capacity to act and self-esteem, the instilment of the passion for work². The effects of education and of the upbringing of pupils with special education needs largely depend on the competences of the teacher.

The concept of competences is used in at least two meanings: "first of all, competences are identified with qualifications, and second of all the concept of competences describes a set of rights or privileges"³. According to W. Strykowski, competences are "knowledge, skills and convictions needed for efficient didactic, educational and care work at a school"⁴. R. Pachociński believes that a teacher in a contemporary school stops being the main source of information about the world for pupils, and rather becomes a diagnostician, a specialist in the area of learning aids, a consultant⁵.

Many competences in subject literature include diagnostic and therapeutic competences that are necessary for the effectiveness of didactic and educational activity⁶.

¹ W. Dykcik, *Wprowadzenie w przedmiot pedagogiki specjalnej jako nauki*, [in:] *Pedagogika specjalna*, ed. W. Dykcik, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UAM, Poznań 2005, p. 13.

² A. Korzon, *Motywy wyboru zawodu pedagoga specjalnego*, [in:] *Kompetencje pedagoga w kontekście teorii i praktyki edukacji specjalnej*, ed. P. Majewicz and A. Mikrut, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Gliwice – Kraków 2008, p. 34.

³ W. Strykowski, *Nauczyciel i jego kompetencje*, [in:] *Kompetencje nauczyciela szkoły współczesnej*, ed. W. Strykowski, J. Strykowska, J. Pielachowski, Wydawnictwo „eMPi2”, Poznań 2007, p. 69.

⁴ *Ibidem*, p. 80.

⁵ See A. Gajdzica, *Kompetencje nauczyciela we współczesnej szkole*, [in:] *Uczeń niepełnosprawny i jego nauczyciel w przestrzeni szkoły*, ed. Z. Gajdzica, J. Rottermund, A. Klinik, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2008, p. 18.

⁶ D. Wosik-Kawala, T. Zubrzycka-Maciąg, *Kompetencje diagnostyczne i terapeutyczne nauczyciela*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2018, p. 7.

Diagnostic competences, related to getting to know the pupils and their environment, „provide the ability of determining of an individual's specific needs and capacities, serving mainly the determination of disability and of very general indications of rehabilitation⁷. The diagnostic competence of a teacher is a condition of optimum and efficient discovery of capacities, skills, difficulties and needs of those under their care and of pupils, both in the individual as well as in the group perspective, taking into account their weak and strong suits, their health, perception and cognitive abilities, as well as the conditions of the environment they are growing up in⁸.

Therapeutic competences encompass skilful observation, listening and speaking as well as reactions of the teacher in order to get to know a pupil – their expectations and problems, with particular focus on countering difficulties in adaptation (to the school environment) and in development⁹.

The future of a special school pupil, his psychological and physical development, his successes, his individuality, joy or personal happiness will depend on the teacher's knowledge and skills.

Methodological assumptions and study results

The study was conducted in the Silesian Voivodeship in six special schools selected at random. It encompassed 118 teachers working with children with special education needs, where the largest part (31.4%) are persons aged 30–39 and 40–49 years. 22.0% of those

⁷ Zob. A. Borzęcka, *Kompetencje nauczyciela – pedagogaspecjalnego w pracy z uczniem ze specjalnymi potrzebami edukacyjnymi*, [in:] *Nauczyciel-Dziecko. Spotkania w przestrzeni edukacyjnej*, ed., A. Borzęcka, A. Twaróg-Kanus, Wydawnictwo LIBRON – Filip Lohner, Kraków 2018, p. 90.

⁸ See M. Klimek, *Kompetencje diagnostyczne nauczyciela w kontekście pomocy psychologiczno-pedagogicznej w szkole*, *Lubelski Rocznik Pedagogiczny*, vol. XXXV, issue 1 – 2016, p. 168.

⁹ T. Pilch, ed., *Encyklopedia pedagogiczna XXI wieku*, vol. IV, Wydawnictwo „Żak”, Warszawa 2004, p. 944.

surveyed are fifty years old or more. The remaining respondents (15.3%) are persons aged 20-29 years. The respondents participating in the study are teachers with a varied volume of work experience, whereby the largest group (37.3%) has over 20 years of experience. 34.7% of those surveyed have between eleven and 20 years of work experience. The smallest group are teachers who have been working ten years or less (28.0%). 98.3% special school teachers have additional qualifications, with only 1.7% not holding professional qualifications.

The objective of the study was an analysis of sources of knowledge and skills concerning diagnosis and therapy as declared by the analysed special school teachers and their self-assessment as well as an analysis of the relationship between the declared assessment with their age and work experience.

The following research problems were described:

1. What are the sources of diagnostic and therapeutic knowledge and skills of the analysed special school teachers?
2. How do the analysed special school teachers assess their diagnostic and therapeutic knowledge and skills?
3. Does the age of the analysed special school teachers condition their self-assessment of diagnostic and therapeutic knowledge and skills, and to what extent?
4. Does the work experience of the analysed special school teachers condition their self-assessment of diagnostic and therapeutic knowledge and skills, and to what extent?

The study uses a special school teacher survey questionnaire. All data is entirely anonymous and was used exclusively for scientific purposes.

The analysis was divided into two parts. The *chi-square* and *Fisher* tests were applied to nominal variables that enable an analysis of whether the independent variables named above (age and work experience) and self-assessment of diagnostic and therapeutic knowledge and skills exhibit a statistically significant correlation.

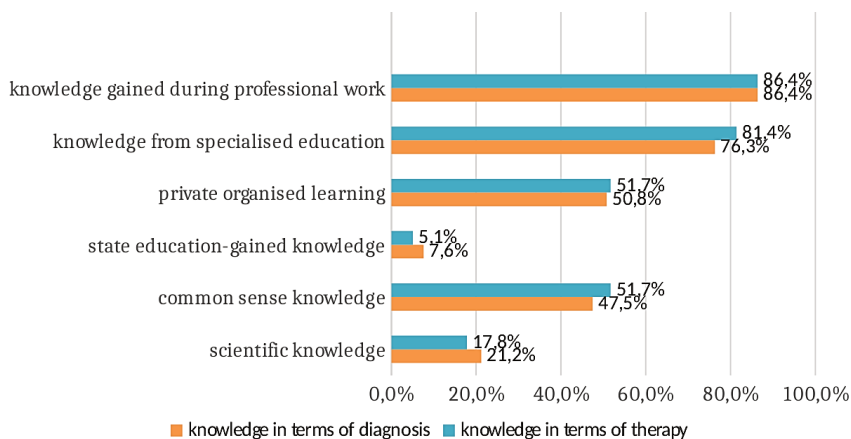
On the basis of the previously assumed scale from one to five, variables were analysed concerning the self-assessment of knowledge and skills. Non-parametric *U Mann-Whitney* as well as *Kruskal-Wallis* tests were used. For all analysis, a significance level of $p = 0.05$ was assumed.

The presented study are a fragment of a broader research project concerning the diagnostic and therapeutic competences of public, integration and special school teachers.

For the purposes of this study, the subdivision of knowledge and skills is the subdivision presented by Z. Gajdzica¹⁰.

On the basis of the collected data (Diagram 1 and 2) concerning the sources of knowledge and skills in terms of diagnosis and therapy

Diagram 1. Sources of knowledge as declared by special school teachers

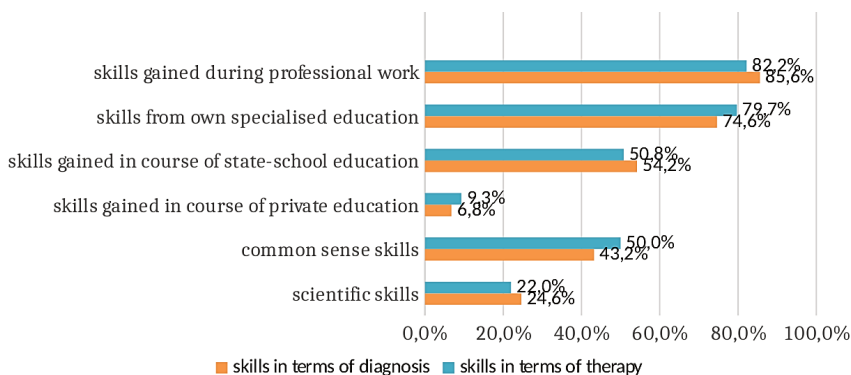


Source: own work.

¹⁰ Z. Gajdzica, *Źródła wiedzy polskich i czeskich nauczycieli*, „Studia Edukacyjne” 2013, no. 24, pp. 103–114; Z Gajdzica, *Założenia znam z ... – czyli o kreowaniu opinii nauczycieli na temat przemian kształcenia specjalnego*, „Teraźniejszość – Człowiek – Edukacja” 2011, no. 4(56).

as declared by the analysed special school teachers, one may conclude that the sources of knowledge most commonly indicated in terms of diagnosis include knowledge gained during professional employment (86.4%), knowledge from their own specialist education (76.3%) and knowledge gained through additional private courses (50.8%). Common and scientific knowledge is indicated by 47.5% and 21.2% of those surveyed, respectively. The remaining participants in the study (7.6%) utilise knowledge gained through their state education. The most commonly indicated sources of knowledge in terms of therapy are knowledge gained during work (86.4%) and knowledge from own specialist education (81.4%). Knowledge gained during private courses and common sense knowledge is indicated by 51.7% of those studied. The remaining respondents to the survey utilise scientific knowledge (17.8%) and knowledge gained from state education (5.1%).

Diagram 2. Sources of skills as indicated by the analysed special school teachers



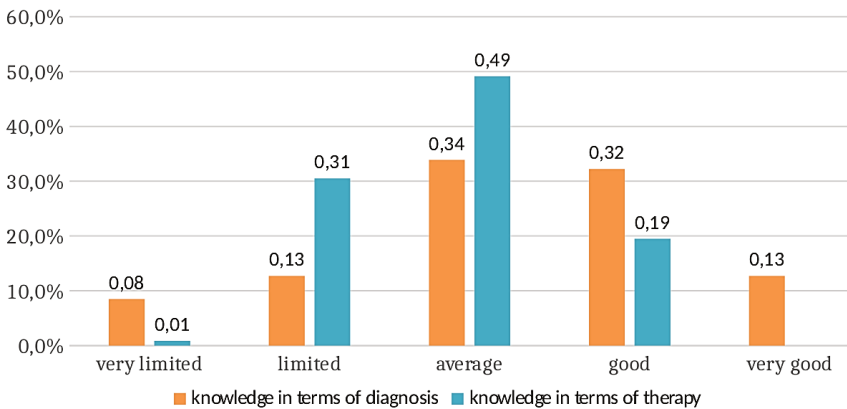
Source: own work.

In terms of diagnostic skills, the skills most commonly indicated are those gained in course of professional work (85.6%), skills from own specialist education (74.6%) and skills gained during of additional private courses (54.2%). 43.2% and 24.6% of respondents, re-

spectively, indicate using common sense and scientific knowledge. The remaining surveyed teachers (6.8%) utilise knowledge gained in course of their state education. The most commonly used sources of skills in terms of therapy are skills gained during professional work (82.2%), skills from own specialist education (79.7%) and skills gained through private courses (50.8%). 50.0% and 22.0% of those surveyed indicate having common sense and scientific knowledge, respectively. 9.3% of those surveyed in turn use knowledge gained in course of state education.

A further issue (Diagrams 3 and 4) concerned the assessment of their knowledge and skills in terms of diagnosis and therapy by the analysed special school teachers.

Diagram 3. Self-assessment of knowledge by special school teachers

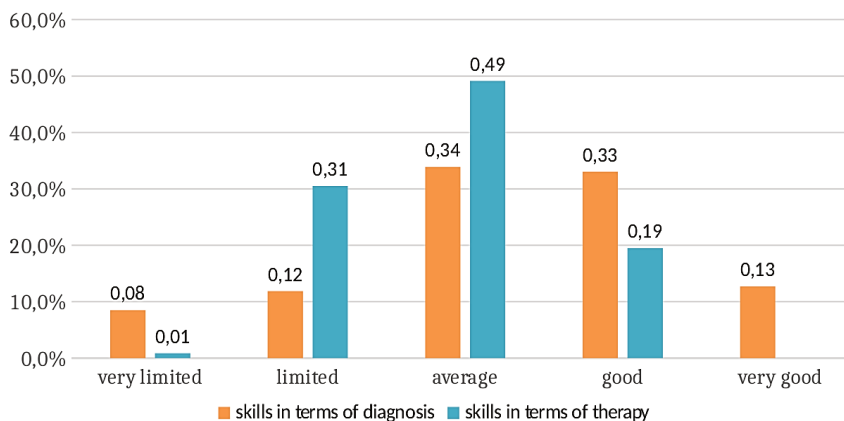


Source: own work.

Knowledge in terms of diagnosis was assessed by the studied teachers to be average (33.9%) or good (32.2%). 12.7% each of the respondents in this group believe that their knowledge is either very good or limited. 8.5% of those surveyed indicated that their knowledge in this regard is very limited. In terms of knowledge on therapy, 49.2% of those surveyed indicate it as being average, and

30.5% of those indicated that it was limited. 19.5% of the survey participants believe that their knowledge is good. 0.8% persons in this group hold their level of knowledge in this regard to be very limited.

Diagram 4. Self-assessment of skills of special school teachers



In the opinion of 33.9% of respondents, their diagnosing skills are average. Good and very good diagnosing skills were indicated by 33.1% and 12.7% of respondents of the study, respectively. 11.9% persons from this group evaluate these skills as limited, and 8.5% as very limited. In terms of therapy skills, 49.2% of those surveyed believe they are average, and 19.5% indicate that they are good. 30.5% of those surveyed believe their therapy skills to be limited. According to 0.8% of respondents, they are very limited.

A data analysis was conducted (table 1) in order to determine the relation between the age of the analysed teachers and the knowledge and skills they had in terms of diagnosis and therapy.

Statistically significant differences in terms of knowledge in terms of diagnosis are found between teachers aged 20-39 years and teachers aged 40 years and over ($U = 977.00$, $p < 0.05$). Among the

analysed teachers from the first group, the results remained within the range from *Min.* = 1 to *Max.* = 5. The median score in this group was *Me* = 3, meaning that at least half of the analysed persons achieved a result not exceeding this level. Among those analysed from the second group, the results were higher - they were limited by the values of *Min.* = 2 and *Max.* = 5; for a quarter of the analysed teachers, they did not exceed *Q25* = 3, and for half they did not exceed *Me* = 3; for three quarters they did not exceed *Q75* = 4. This indicates that teachers aged 40 years and over evaluated their knowledge in terms of diagnosis higher.

Table no. 1. Age of the studied teachers and the knowledge and skills held in terms of diagnosis and therapy

Self-assessment of knowledge and skills	Age	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Q25</i>	<i>Me</i>	<i>Q75</i>	<i>Max.</i>	<i>U</i>	<i>p</i>
Knowledge in terms of diagnosis	20-39 years	2.8	1.1	1.0	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	977.00	0.000
	40 years and over	3.7	0.9	2.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	5.0		
Knowledge in terms of therapy	20-39 years	3.5	0.6	2.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	904.50	0.000
	40 years and over	4.2	0.7	3.0	4.0	4.0	5.0	5.0		
Skills in terms of execution of diagnosis	20-39 years	2.8	1.1	1.0	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	973.00	0.000
	40 years and over	3.7	0.9	2.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	5.0		
Skills in terms of therapy	20-39 years	3.5	0.6	2.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	904.50	0.000
	40 years and over	4.2	0.7	3.0	4.0	4.0	5.0	5.0		

M - mean; *SD* - standard deviation; *Min* - minimum value; *Max.* - maximum value; *Q25* - bottom quartile; *Me* - median; *Q75* - top quartile, *U* - U Mann-Whitney test, *p* - significance.

There are statistically significant differences concerning knowledge on therapy between teachers aged 20-39 years and teachers aged 40 years and over (*U* = 904.50, *p* < 0.05). Among those analysed in the first group, the results remained in the range from *Min.* = 2 to *Max.* = 5. The median in this group was *Me* = 3, meaning that at least half of the analysed teachers achieved a result not higher than this level. Among the teachers from the second group, the

results were higher – they were limited by the values of $Min. = 3$ and $Max. = 5$; for a quarter of the tested teachers they did not exceed the level of $Q25 = 4$, for half they were not higher than $Me = 4$, and for three quarters they were not higher than $Q75 = 5$. This means that teachers aged 40 years and over assessed their knowledge in terms of therapy higher.

Statistically significant differences concerning skills in terms of execution of diagnosis were found between teachers aged 20–39 years and teachers aged 40 years and over ($U = 973.00, p < 0.05$). Among those analysed in the first group, the scores were found in the range from $Min. = 1$ to $Max. = 5$. The mean in this group was $Me = 3$, meaning that at least half of the studied teachers achieved a result not higher than this value. Among those analysed in the second group, the results were higher – they were limited by the values of $Min. = 2$ and $Max. = 5$; for a quarter of the analysed teachers, they did not exceed $Q25 = 3$, for half they did not exceed $Me = 4$, and for three quarters they did not exceed $Q75 = 4$. One can conclude that persons aged 40 years and over assessed their skills in terms of diagnosis higher than younger teachers.

A statistically significant difference in terms of skills concerning therapy was found between teachers aged 20–39 years and teachers aged 40 years and over ($U = 904.50, p < 0.05$). Among those analysed in the first group, the results remained within the range of $Min. = 2$ to $Max. = 5$. The median in this group was $Me = 3$, meaning that at least half of the studied teachers achieved a result not higher than this level. Among those analysed in the second group, the results were higher – limited by values of $Min. = 3$ and $Max. = 5$; in a quarter of the analysed teachers, they did not exceed the level of $Q25 = 4$, in half they did not exceed $Me = 4$, and in three quarters they did not exceed $Q75 = 5$. The observation was made that teachers aged 40 years and over assessed their skills in terms of therapy higher than younger ones.

Due to the fact that 98.3% of the analysed special school teachers had additional qualifications, an independent variable that was tested was the work experience of special school teachers.

The analysis (table 2) concerned the determination, whether the work experience of the analysed teachers is a condition of them having knowledge and skills in terms of diagnosis and therapy.

Table no. 2. Work experience and the knowledge and skills held in terms of diagnosis and therapy

Self-assessment of knowledge and skills	Work experience	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Q25</i>	<i>Me</i>	<i>Q75</i>	<i>Max.</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Knowledge in terms of diagnosis	less than 10 years	2.45	1.18	1.0	1.0	2.0	3.0	5.0	24.482	2	0.000
	11–20 years	3.39	0.92	1.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	5.0			
	over 20 years	3.80	0.85	2.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	5.0			
Knowledge in terms of therapy	less than 10 years	3.21	0.48	2.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	43.025	2	0.000
	11–20 years	3.98	0.65	3.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	5.0			
	over 20 years	4.27	0.59	3.0	4.0	4.0	5.0	5.0			
Skills in terms of execution of diagnosis	less than 10 years	2.48	1.18	1.0	1.0	3.0	3.0	5.0	24.405	2	0.000
	11–20 years	3.39	0.92	1.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	5.0			
	over 20 years	3.82	0.84	2.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	5.0			
Skills in terms of therapy	less than 10 years	3.21	0.48	2.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	43.025	2	0.000
	11–20 years	3.98	0.65	3.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	5.0			
	over 20 years	4.27	0.59	3.0	4.0	4.0	5.0	5.0			

M – mean; *SD* – standard deviation; *Min.* – minimum value; *Max.* – maximum value; *Q25* – bottom quartile; *Me* – median; *Q75* – top quartile, χ^2 – Kruskal-Wallis test statistic, *p* – significance.

Statistically significant differences were found between persons with different lengths of work experience concerning knowledge in terms of diagnosis ($p < 0.05$). In case of persons with work experience of up to ten years – for a quarter of teachers analysed in this group the results did not exceed the level of $Q25 = 1$, for a half they weren't higher than $Me = 2$, and for three quarters of the analysed teachers they weren't higher than $Q75 = 3$. In case of persons with work experience between 11 and 20 years, the results were higher and for a quarter of teachers analysed in this group the results did

not exceed the level of $Q_{25} = 3$, for a half they weren't higher than $Me = 3$, and for three quarters of the analysed teachers they weren't higher than $Q_{75} = 4$. Higher results were also recorded for persons with over 20 years of work experience - for a quarter of teachers analysed in this group the results did not exceed the level of $Q_{25} = 3$, for a half they weren't higher than $Me = 4$, and for three quarters of the analysed teachers they weren't higher than $Q_{75} = 4$. This means that the longer the work experience of the studied teachers the higher their assessment of their knowledge in terms of diagnosis.

Statistically significant differences were found between persons with different lengths of work experience concerning knowledge in terms of therapy ($p < 0.05$). In case of persons with work experience of up to ten years - for a quarter of teachers analysed in this group the results did not exceed the level of $Q_{25} = 3$, for a half they weren't higher than $Me = 3$, and for three quarters of the analysed teachers they weren't higher than $Q_{75} = 3$. In case of persons with work experience between 11 and 20 years, the results were higher and for a quarter of teachers analysed in this group the results did not exceed the level of $Q_{25} = 4$, for a half they weren't higher than $Me = 4$, and for three quarters of the analysed teachers they weren't higher than $Q_{75} = 4$. Higher results were also recorded for persons with over 20 years of work experience - for a quarter of teachers analysed in this group the results did not exceed the level of $Q_{25} = 4$, for a half they weren't higher than $Me = 4$, and for three quarters of the analysed teachers they weren't higher than $Q_{75} = 5$. This means that the longer the work experience of the studied teachers, the higher their assessment of their knowledge in terms of therapy.

Statistically significant differences were found between persons with different lengths of work experience concerning skills in terms of execution of diagnosis ($p < 0.05$). In case of persons with work experience of up to ten years - for a quarter of teachers analysed in this group the results did not exceed the level of $Q_{25} = 1$, for a half they weren't higher than $Me = 3$, and for three quarters of the analysed teachers they weren't higher than $Q_{75} = 3$. In case of persons with work experience between 11 and 20 years, the results were

higher and for a quarter of teachers analysed in this group the results did not exceed the level of $Q_{25} = 3$, for a half they weren't higher than $Me = 3$, and for three quarters of the analysed teachers they weren't higher than $Q_{75} = 4$. Higher results were recorded for persons with over 20 years of work experience – for a quarter of teachers analysed in this group the results did not exceed the level of $Q_{25} = 3$, for a half they weren't higher than $Me = 4$, and for three quarters of the analysed teachers they weren't higher than $Q_{75} = 4$. One could make the conclusion that the longer the work experience of the analysed persons, the higher they would assess their skills in terms of diagnosis.

Statistically significant differences were found between persons with different lengths of work experience concerning skills in terms of therapy ($p < 0.05$). In case of persons with work experience of up to ten years – for a quarter of teachers analysed in this group the results did not exceed the level of $Q_{25} = 3$, for a half they weren't higher than $Me = 3$, and for three quarters of the analysed teachers they weren't higher than $Q_{75} = 3$. In case of persons with work experience between 11 and 20 years, the results were higher and for a quarter of teachers analysed in this group the results did not exceed the level of $Q_{25} = 4$, for a half they weren't higher than $Me = 4$, and for three quarters of the analysed teachers they weren't higher than $Q_{75} = 4$. Higher results were also recorded for persons with over 20 years of work experience – for a quarter of teachers analysed in this group the results did not exceed the level of $Q_{25} = 4$, for a half they weren't higher than $Me = 4$, and for three quarters of the analysed teachers they weren't higher than $Q_{75} = 5$. The observation was made that the longer the work experience of the analysed persons, the higher their assessment of their skills in terms of therapy.

Summary and conclusions

Diagnostic and therapeutic knowledge and skills are competences that a teacher at a special school should have developed to a high level. "Within professionalism, one stresses the significance

of specific and high competences. This approach also applies to the contemporary teacher – a professional teacher is primarily a competent teacher”¹¹.

The presented study concerning the declared sources of teacher knowledge and skills in terms of diagnosis and therapy allowed the formulation of conclusions which, due to the size of the sample, cannot be generalised:

1. The analysed special school teachers declare that their knowledge and skills concerning diagnosis and therapy are primarily competences gained during their professional work (over 85%), knowledge from own speciality education (over 76%) and knowledge gained during private courses (over 50%).
2. The analysed special school teachers evaluate their knowledge and skills very highly in terms of diagnosis (over 12%) and therapy (over 19%), and highly in terms of diagnosis (over 33%) and therapy (over 49%). Knowledge in terms of diagnosis and therapy is assessed by the analysed teachers to be average as well (over 33%), just like the skills they gained in this area (over 30%).
3. The age of the analysed special school teachers is a condition of their self-assessment of their knowledge and skills in terms of diagnosis and therapy. There are statistically significant differences between teachers aged 20–39 years and teachers aged 40 years and over in this regard. Persons aged 40 years and over evaluate their knowledge and skills in terms of diagnosis and therapy higher than younger persons.
4. The work experience of the analysed special school teachers conditions their self-assessment of their skills and capacities in terms of diagnosis and therapy. Statistically significant differences in terms of diagnosis and therapy are found between persons with various work experience.

¹¹ M. Klimek, *Kompetencje* op. cit., pp. 167–168.

Teachers with more work experience assessed their knowledge and skills in terms of diagnosis and therapy higher.

The results of the analysis indicate that teachers of special schools assess their competences in terms of diagnosis and therapy as high. Working with children with special education needs every day, they are specialists in terms of diagnosis and therapy. Their professionalism may shine through in the fact that almost all teachers exhibit additional professional qualifications, including diagnostic and therapeutic ones.

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Knowledge of the Poznan region citizens about speech therapy profession

ABSTRACT: Agata Trębacz, *Knowledge of the Poznan region citizens about speech therapy profession*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, no. 27, Poznań 2019. Pp. 197–221. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. e-ISSN 2658-283X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2019.27.10>

In recent years, the speech-language pathology has developed dynamically. It plays a growing role not only in the area of education but also in the field of medicine. Teaching correct articulation is just one of possible challenges faced by speech-language pathologists. The multidisciplinary context of that field of knowledge can be seen in various subfields of speech-language pathology which have evolved over time. Therefore, the primary objective of the conducted research was to assess the awareness of the importance of speech-language pathologists in everyday life of children and adults. The research was carried out among 50 respondents in the city of Poznań and provided the ground for discussion on the subject being the core issue of the presented paper.

KEY WORDS: speech therapist's competences, speech therapy, speech therapist

Introduction

In recent years, there has been a dynamic development of speech-language pathology (SLP) as a multi-, inter- and even trans-disciplinary field of science, as its methodological basis presents a high level of intellectual reflection, which is supposed to create an

immense space of new knowledge without strictly defined boundaries between sciences. As M. Michalik writes: "Speech-language pathology is becoming a science permeated by knowledge already formed, multi-disciplinary, [...] homogeneous, methodologically uniform".¹ Not only speech-language pathologists, but also specialists in many other fields, including neurologists, audiologists, laryngologists, physiotherapists, dieticians, psychiatrists, sensory integration therapists and orthodontists, are involved in the diagnosis and therapy of patients revealing speech disorders, including pronunciation. Their knowledge allows for a holistic approach to each individual patient and a multidirectional diagnosis of the symptom and cause, resulting in a chance to plan not only fragmentary, but comprehensive and effective therapy.

Although in the legal sense, SLP does not have the status of an independent scientific discipline, on the Polish research ground its subject has been clearly specified, defining it as the *biological conditions of language and linguistic behaviour*.² However, D. Pluta-Wojciechowska proposes to extend the scope of speech therapy research proposed by S. Grabias, indicating the procedures discussed by the author:

Speech-language pathology is the science of biological conditions of language and linguistic behaviours recognised in the course of symptom and cause diagnosis, used for programming and conducting therapy aimed at eliminating or reducing the intensity of disorders.³

The research subject defined in this way places SLP on the borderline between linguistics and medicine, but also (selectively) ped-

¹ M. Michalik, „Transdyscyplinarność logopedii – między metodologiczną koniecznością a teoretyczną utopią”, [in:] *Metodologia badań logopedycznych z perspektywy teorii i praktyki*, eds. S. Milewski, K. Kaczorowska-Bray, Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2015, pp. 32–43.

² S. Grabias, „Teoria zaburzeń mowy. Perspektywy badań, typologie zaburzeń, procedury postępowania logopedycznego”, [in:] *Logopedia. Teoria zaburzeń mowy*, eds. S. Grabias, J. Panasiuk, T. Woźniak, Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 2014, pp. 32–39.

³ D. Pluta-Wojciechowska, *Efektywność terapii dyslalii. Logopedyczno-lingwistyczna analiza wyników badań*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, Katowice 2019, p. 24.

agogy and psychology, taking into account the fact that in their daily work, a speech-language pathologist uses elements of methods formulated on the basis of didactics, developmental psychology, clinical psychology or upbringing theory. But what lead to thinking of the originality of this branch of science? When analysing the place of speech-language pathology among other sciences, it should be noted that the repertoire of its diagnostic and therapeutic methods includes those that are specific, i.e. language programming, setting voice sequences, evoking normative realisation of phonetic features, etc. SLP not only draws on the achievements of these fields of science, but also contributes to building new knowledge through intensive and regular research on a variety of issues. Just as the brain collects, analyses, processes, interprets and integrates information from all the senses of the body, SLP collects, deepens and integrates knowledge of development and speech disorders from different scientific disciplines.⁴

In the social environment, however, it is not uncommon to encounter the creation of a one-dimensional image of a speech-language pathologist, recognizing that their primary role is to shape correct articulation, mainly in school-age children.⁵ Previous reports and comments from researchers, including D. Pluta-Wojciechowska and I. Michalak-Widera, also point to still prevalent myths about the profession of a speech-language pathologist, which on the one hand are not without influence on the sense of mission and self-esteem of speech-language pathologists, and on the other hand delay the start of proper SLP therapy, especially among young patients. The current myths can be summarised as follows:

⁴ D. Pluta-Wojciechowska, *Efektywność terapii dyslalii. Logopedyczno-lingwistyczna analiza wyników badań*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, Katowice 2019, pp. 22–35.

⁵ According to own research conducted in the city of Poznań ($n=50$), the primary school was the most frequently indicated place of employment of a speech-language pathologist. Only 11% of respondents indicated the possibility of employing a speech-language pathologist in medical facilities. Moreover, only 6% of the respondents answered that a speech-language pathologist is involved in the treatment of speech disorders and not only in the correction of speech defects.

- a speech-language pathologist is a teacher of correct pronunciation,
- a speech-language pathologist is a person who works with children who are already talking,
- each child develops individually and starts talking when they are ready to do so,
- boys have more time to learn to talk than girls,
- a speech development delay is diagnosed when a child is 3 years old and does not speak or speaks very little.⁶

Similarly, I. Michalak-Widera and J. Oczadły emphasise that instead of consciously supporting the development of a young child, the parent/guardian trusts the common belief that they may not speak at the age of 3 or that boys, like their fathers, start speaking later.⁷ It is possible this will be the case – the boys will start talking and make up for the deficits. But what if at the age of three their speech still has not developed? They will lose valuable time, and in an increasingly conscious child, frustration will grow due to the lack of verbal communication with the environment. Beginning therapy quickly gives the child a chance to achieve better results due to the high neuroplasticity of the brain and active neurogenesis in the early stages of development.

Although myths about the development of children's speech and the profession of the speech-language pathologist are still present in the social discourse, it should be noted that despite this, the profession of speech-language pathologist has developed significantly over the last years. Speech-language pathologists find employment in educational and medical institutions and promote reliable logopaedic knowledge, based on the results of scientific research (*Evidence Based Practice*) and individual experiences from their own workshop. Campaigns on social networking sites and

⁶ D. Pluta-Wojciechowska, „Dokąd zmierza logopedia?”, *Forum logopedyczne* 2013, no. 21, p. 9.

⁷ I. Michalak-Widera, J. Oczadły, „Logopedyczne fakty i mity”, *Forum logopedyczne* 2013, no. 21, p. 22.

other mass media, such as “Give me a chance to develop. Take away my smartphone” or “Stop the no-drip cups”, which were the brainchild of speech-language pathologist Paulina Mistal, contribute to building parents’ awareness of the correct habits that support the speech development of young children.

Speech-language pathologists work with children, adolescents and adults who have speech disorders in various forms, e. g. they manifest themselves in the form of articulation disorders, disorders of speech understanding or speech expressions. The diagnostic and therapeutic procedures they undertake take on a variety of character depending on the specific type of speech disorder presented by the patient. Such observations allow us to think about the multidimensional shape of speech-language pathology, which can be further proved by the multitude of sub-disciplines that have emerged on its ground: early speech-language pathology, speech-language neuropathology, SLP for the d/Deaf or hard of hearing, SLP for the blind/visually impaired, SLP for people with speech fluency problems, SLP for people with intellectual disabilities, clinical speech therapy, artistic/media speech therapy, SLP for the elderly and oncological SLP.

In theory and practice, early SLP intervention is understood as a speech therapeutic treatment of a child at risk of disability (e. g. a child born prematurely or with abnormal muscular tension) or with a diagnosed disability (e.g. a child with cerebral palsy or a child with a specific genetic defect), who is found to have an abnormal speech or primary function abnormalities, which are the foundation for proper speech development. Nevertheless, the literature postulates a broader perspective on early SLP intervention and defining its target audience not through the prism of their age, but through the need to take immediate action to early diagnosis of the disorder and to include appropriate therapeutic management.⁸ In the case of adults, the influence of the speech-language pathologist

⁸ J.J. Bleszyński, „Wczesna interwencja - różne podejścia, ujęcia, definicje. Różne nie znaczy sprzeczne”, [in:] *Wczesna interwencja w logopedii*, eds. J.J. Bleszyński, D. Baczała, Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2015, p. 31–42.

is aimed at counteracting the negative influence of the disorder at an early stage of its development on human communication and language competence, e. g. in Alzheimer's or Parkinson's disease.

Speech-language neuropathology focuses on the therapeutic effects on people who have suffered from disorders of linguistic communication as a result of damage to the central nervous system, especially the area of the frontal lobe, where the Broca's motor speech centre or the temporal lobe with Wernicke's sensory speech centre is located.

The area of interest of SLP for d/Deaf or hard of hearing people includes the issue of the influence of hearing impairment on the process of linguistic and communicative functioning of humans. A speech-language pathologist who undertakes the diagnosis and therapy of speech disorders in d/Deaf or hard of hearing people should have theoretical and practical preparation for this profession in all its dimensions, e. g. the ability to read the results of hearing tests, knowledge of objective and non-objective methods of hearing organ diagnosis, knowledge of the consequences of hearing disorders for speech and language development, the ability to introduce alternative and supportive communication methods, etc.⁹

SLP for the blind and visually impaired as one of the sub-disciplines of specific speech therapy focuses on the diagnosis and therapy of language and communication skills of people with visual disabilities. The results of the conducted research indicate a specific course of speech development in children with visual impairment and provide data that shows that in the group of visually impaired and blind children, more often than in the group of sighted children, there are disorders in the development of the phonetic-phonological system.¹⁰ Due to the lack of direct observation of articulatory patterns and the lack of visual stimulation to speak in the

⁹ E. Muzyka-Furtak, *Surdologopedia. Teoria i praktyka*, Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2015, pp. 13-14.

¹⁰ M. Zaorska, „Tyflogopedia jako subdyscyplina szczegółowa logopedii oraz element jej współczesnej koncepcji strukturalnej”, *Przegląd Badań Edukacyjnych* 2016, no. 22, pp. 149-162.

early stages of speech development in a child with visual impairment, some delays are observed, especially with regard to the acquisition of concepts that are matched by specific visual images, such as spatial relationships. In working with blind/visually impaired patients, the speech-language pathologist places particular emphasis on a multimodal experience of the world in order to compensate for the shortcomings associated with visual disturbances.

In the case of SLP for people with speech fluency disorders, the subject of diagnostic and therapeutic effects are people with disorders of fluency of speech, including stuttering, tachylalia (pathological acceleration of speech rate) or bradylalia (pathological slowdown of speech rate).¹¹ Finally, there are speech-language therapists who deal with the diagnosis and therapy of speech disorders in people with intellectual disabilities.¹²

Clinical speech-language pathology focuses on prophylactic, diagnostic and therapeutic treatment of people with neurological and genetic disorders, in psychiatric diseases or in dementia. The dictionary definition of the term "clinical" indicates that the above-mentioned activities take place in a clinic.¹³ A clinical diagnosis can be made for any speech disorder and is not inseparable from the other areas identified.

The subject of diagnosis and therapy in artistic/media speech therapy is the correct technique of speaking, articulatory correctness and diction of voice professionals. The specialist in artistic/media speech therapy works with journalists, entertainers, actors or managers to improve the verbal and non-verbal elements of their public performances.

Gerontologic SLP explains the developmental conditions of changes in the quality of communication functions in people who are elderly, physiologically ageing, or with co-occurring neuro-

¹¹ G. Gunia, „Strategie podwyższania jakości życia osób z zaburzeniami komunikacji”, *Rocznik Komisji Nauk Pedagogicznych* 2017, Vol. LXX, p. 36.

¹² M. Kupisiewicz, *Słownik Pedagogiki Specjalnej*, Wydawnictwo Naukowego PWN, Warszawa 2013, p. 304.

¹³ Internetowy Słownik Języka Polskiego PWN [accessed: 21.08.2019].

degenerative disorders, e. g. in Parkinson's disease or Alzheimer's disease,¹⁴ and oncological SLP focuses on the diagnosis and SLP therapy of people who reveal primitive and secondary dysfunctions in the course of a cancer and/or as a result of its treatment.¹⁵

Due to a small percentage of practising speech-language pathologists who treat people with psychogenic speech disorders (5–10%), i.e. stuttering, schizophasia, selective mutism, as well as limited cooperation of speech-language pathologists with physiotherapists and an increasing percentage of bi- or multilingual children, Z. Tarkowski additionally postulates the creation of new SLP specialisations, namely: psychological SLP, physiological SLP and bilingual SLP, which would basically constitute a compilation of speech-language pathological, linguistic, psychological and medical knowledge, and would be conducted in the form of postgraduate education.¹⁶

Looking at the list of the mentioned sub-disciplines in the field of speech therapy one may think that a speech-language pathologist can accompany an individual practically from the moment of their birth, when their task is, among others, to stimulate the sucking reflex, assess the readiness of a child born prematurely to take up food on their own, assess the structure of the oral-facial tract or the oral reflex reactions,¹⁷ until old age – when the primary role of a speech-language pathologist is seen in maintaining the communication skills of the elderly.¹⁸ A speech-language pathologist works with people (children, adolescents and adults) whose abnormalities

¹⁴ K. Kaczorowska-Bray, „Gerontologopedia, czyli starość w perspektywie logopedycznej”, *Konteksty społeczne* 2017, vol. 5, no. 1(9), p. 140.

¹⁵ A. Hamerlińska-Latecka, *Onkologopedia – logopedia wobec chorób nowotworowych*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Kazimierza Wielkiego w Bydgoszczy, Bydgoszcz 2015, p. 50.

¹⁶ Z. Tarkowski, „Nowe specjalizacje w logopedii”, [in:] *Forum logopedy* no. 14, Poznań 2016, pp. 59–61.

¹⁷ M. Czajkowska, „Współpraca fizjoterapeuty i specjalisty wczesnej interwencji logopedycznej w terapii niemowląt z grupy ryzyka”, *Forum Logopedyczne* 2016, no. 24, pp. 159–163.

¹⁸ S. Milewski, K. Kaczorowska-Bray, B. Kamińska, „Późna dorosłość z perspektywy logopedii”, *Pogranicze. Studia społeczne* 2016, Vol. XXVIII, p. 179.

in verbal communication and building logical, grammatically correct statements are not infrequently an isolated disorder, but occur as a consequence of disorders in another area, e. g. neurological, genetic or anatomical. The listed disorders do not constitute a complete list of possible developmental abnormalities but are only an indication of potential causes of the need for intervention and SLP care by specialists of the previously discussed SLP sub-disciplines.

The range of diagnostic and therapeutic activities undertaken by speech-language pathologists depends mainly on the level of development of an individual and the degree of severity of deficits that inhibit or sometimes even prevent the process of learning verbal speech. Therefore, it seems reasonable to state that a speech-language pathologist, apart from shaping the correct articulation, deals with creating conditions for the proper development of speech, i.e. removing irregularities in primal activities¹⁹ and building a linguistic system in the mind of an individual to create space for their linguistic communication with the social environment.²⁰ However, sometimes an individual is not able to verbally communicate with the people around them and then one of the tasks of a speech-language pathologist is to introduce supporting or alternative communication (pictograms, PECS, PCS, gestures, sign language, eye trackers and other devices) in order to enable them to participate in social life, to preserve subjectivity and to satisfy their individual emotional and social needs.

Theoretical considerations on the concept of speech

For the average language user, terms such as *speech* and *language* are identical in terms of meaning, but scientifically, there is a prima-

¹⁹ D. Pluta-Wojciechowska, *Zaburzenia czynności prymarnych i artykulacji. Podstawy postępowania logopedycznego*, Wydawnictwo Ergo-Sum, Bytom 2015, pp. 18–19.

²⁰ J. Cieszyńska-Rożek, *Metoda Krakowska wobec zaburzeń rozwoju dzieci. Z perspektywy fenomenologii, neurobiologii i językoznawstwa*, Omega State Systems, Kraków 2013, p. 324.

cy-subordination relationship between the two terms. The definition of speech presented in the Polish Language Dictionary emphasises the communicative aspect of the concept of speech and defines it classically as the *uttering of words to communicate with other people*. This simple definition contains the whole essence of the act of communication in question.

The currently proposed definition of speech in SLP literature is that of S. Grabias, who defines speech as “a set of activities that, a person performs with the participation of language while learning about reality and communicating its interpretation to other participants of social life”.²¹ In such an approach, *speech* – as a subject of interest of the speech-language pathologist – appears to be a linguistic behaviour involving internal speech, i.e. a mental text organising the knowledge being passed on and external speech, which is a sound performance act of internal speech in the form of verbal communication. The proposed definition includes three specific types of activities fulfilling different functions:

- a. **cognitive activities** – the person creates a mental picture of reality based on acquired knowledge, which is the result of understanding and active use of language,
- b. **linguistic communication activities** – coexist with non-verbal expressive and gestural behaviour, and are a specialised tool for transmitting knowledge about oneself and reality to other members of society,
- c. **socialisation and group-forming activities** – thanks to verbal acts, a person is subject to socialisation processes and learns the rules and principles of behaviour binding within specific social structures.²²

The communicative competence of the participants in social life is determined by internalised “rules of suitability”, which deter-

²¹ S. Grabias, „Teoria zaburzeń mowy. Perspektywy badań, typologie zaburzeń, procedury postępowania logopedycznego”, [in:] *Logopedia. Teoria zaburzeń mowy*, eds. S. Grabias, M. Kurowski, Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 2014, p. 15.

²² *Ibid.*, pp. 16–17.

mine how to create linguistic messages appropriate to the situations in which they are formulated. An individual learns these communication rules through participation in social life, and the grammatical rules, which are a component of language competence, are both acquired and innate. Communication and language skills are created through perceptive and realisational biological skills, including well-functioning physical, phonematic and prosodic hearing, as well as a properly functioning peripheral nervous system.

The last participating competence in the communication process is the cultural (cognitive) competence, which is knowledge of the surrounding reality and thus enables mutual communication. S. Grabias stresses that an appropriate level of linguistic competence is an important condition for mastering communicative and cultural competence.

The reason for discussing the above-mentioned competences is the fact that there are three leading SLP procedures in speech disorders therapy, which at the same time indicate the tasks undertaken by speech therapists, namely:

- a. competence building,
- b. improving implementation; stabilising competences,
- c. reconstruction of competences.²³

It follows from the above that a speech-language pathologist does not only “fix” incorrect pronunciation, but is a person who teaches an individual to communicate linguistically with the world or helps to rebuild their communication and language system lost e. g. due to a stroke or other neurological disorders.

The linguistic behaviour created on the basis of competence and efficiency is pronunciation, i.e. auditory production of phonemes.²⁴ The aim of the articulation diagnosis conducted by a speech-language pathologist is to assess the normativity of the realisation of particular phonemes, e. g. the realisation of [r] in the word *brother*.

²³ Ibid., p. 53.

²⁴ D. Pluta-Wojciechowska, *Dyslalia obwodowa. Diagnoza i terapia logopedyczna wybranych form zaburzeń*, Wydawnictwo Ergo-Sum, Bytom 2017, p. 110.

If a speech-language pathologist finds an incorrect realisation of a particular phoneme, their task is to identify the reason for such realisation. In the pronunciation evaluation D. Pluta-Wojciechowska postulates moving away from a diagnosis based on the auditory method (traditional method) to a multisensory diagnosis (strategic method), in which the speech-language pathologist must demonstrate knowledge of the phonetic-phonological system in order to make a precise description of non-standardised phonemes. This means that in the context of pronunciation, it is possible to speak about substance disturbances in the segmental plane, and in the case of speaking about content and language disturbances.²⁵

Tasks of a speech-language pathologist

Articulation disorders may be caused by various abnormalities, both in functional (e.g. limited mobility of the tongue), anatomical (e.g. malocclusion) and functional-anatomical (e.g. shortened lingual frenulum) dimensions. Before starting the proper therapy of the disturbed phonemes, the speech-language pathologist should determine the cause of such a state of affairs and before calling out the phoneme, obtain the threshold conditions for learning selected sounds and selected phonetic features. This means that in diagnostic and therapeutic interactions the cause and effect criterion should be followed, and speech therapy procedures should be designed based on the acquired knowledge. For example: if the speech-language pathologist evaluates the sublingual frenulum and finds that its abnormal structure restricts the mobility of the tongue and thus causes abnormal articulation or insufficient cleaning of the oral cavity from residual food, then the child should be referred to a specialist, e. g. an ENT specialist or a paediatric surgeon, who will

²⁵ S. Grabias, „Teoria zaburzeń mowy. Perspektywy badań, typologie zaburzeń, procedury postępowania logopedycznego”, [in:] *Logopedia. Teoria zaburzeń mowy*, eds. S. Grabias, M. Kurowski, Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 2014, pp. 40–41.

perform a frenotomy (i.e. the cutting of the sublingual frenulum). Removing the direct cause of faulty articulation is the foundation of effective therapy.

The causes of articulatory difficulties observed in a child may also be disorders at the level of biomechanical articulatory base (primitive functions), such as breathing, drinking and swallowing. In such cases, the speech-language pathologist first of all focuses on shaping the correct airway and the correct resting position of the tongue during physiological breathing, in which the tongue should be lifted from the bottom of the oral cavity and raised to the palate with the dorsal part, taking the vertical-horizontal position.²⁶ The correct resting position also determines correct swallowing. Normally, in children over 3 years of age, it should proceed with a contraction of the mandibular-pharyngeal muscles lifting the bottom of the oral cavity and pressing the broad tongue posteriorly, with a short circuit (or slight opening of the teeth), closing of the lips and, what is important, with the lack of activity of the chin muscle. Unfortunately, it is increasingly common for children to perpetuate the so-called infantile swallowing mode, with the tongue being flattened and extended into the intergingival/ interdental space as a result of improper dietary expansion, shortening of the sublingual frenulum, improper eating habits, e. g. using a non-drip cup, bottles with a "spout" or educational habits, e. g. prolonged sucking of a soother or thumb and habitual oral breathing.²⁷ In this case, the role of the speech therapist is also seen in building the parents' awareness of the choice of a safe feeding position (especially for newborns and infants) and the selection of appropriate accessories for drinking, eating and non-nutritive sucking (soother), emphasising that it should not be the brand or design that is important, but the right shape, size and type of material that will help to reduce the risk of malocclusion, as well as support the active work of the artic-

²⁶ D. Pluta-Wojciechowska, *Dyslalia obwodowa. Diagnostyka i terapia logopedyczna wybranych form zaburzeń*, Wydawnictwo Ergo-Sum, Bytom 2017, p. 201.

²⁷ D. Pluta-Wojciechowska, *Zaburzenia czynności prymarnych i artykulacji. Podstawy postępowania logopedycznego*, Wydawnictwo Ergo-Sum, Bytom 2015, pp. 74–84.

ulatory apparatus and ensure the development of the correct position of the tongue during physiological breathing and swallowing.²⁸

A speech-language pathologist employed at a school or kindergarten mainly focuses on shaping the correct articulation in order to prevent possible learning difficulties in reading and writing and to support the child's effective communication with the social environment.²⁹ Moreover, they devote a lot of attention to the development of small motor skills, as it indirectly determines the proper functioning of articulatory apparatus (language, lips and jaws) due to the close location of centres responsible for the precise work of the hand and the motor skills of articulatory organs in the motor cortex. In their therapeutic work, the speech-language pathologist also works on shaping creative verbal activity by expanding passive and active lexical resources, improving the work of the visual and auditory analyser, developing grammatical, semantic and syntactic skills, as well as improving storytelling/narrative speech while maintaining the rules of logical thinking, which develops in children around the age of 4, when they move away from the egocentricity of thinking and explaining the surrounding reality through the prism of their own experiences in favour of interpreting events from the perspective of other people.³⁰

Articulation disorders may also be a consequence of abnormalities in the development of phonemic hearing (in other words: phonematic, phonological). The literature on the subject presents narrow and broad meanings of this term; however, according to B. Ročlawski, who made a stage description of the development of

²⁸ E. Kaptur, J. Slawek, „Od karmienia do mówienia. Wpływ funkcji prymarnych na rozwój mowy”, [in:] *Forum Logopedy* no. 22, Poznań 2017, pp. 40–41.

²⁹ The literature on the subject states that persistently incorrect phoneme realisations may contribute to difficulties in learning to read and write [cited in: A. Jopkiewicz, *Konsekwencje społeczne, psychologiczne i pedagogiczne nieprawidłowego rozwoju mowy u dzieci*, 2001, pp. 121–122).

³⁰ S. Filipiak, „Ocena myślenia logicznego u dzieci w okresie średniego dzieciństwa na podstawie układania historyjek obrazkowych”, *Annales Universitatis Mariae Curie-Skłodowska Lublin-Polonia* 2018, Vol. XXXI, 1, p. 120.

phonemic hearing from birth until the child reaches full ability to identify voices, it is "the ability to qualify voices distinguished from the speech stream as belonging to specific, phonologically determined classes".³¹ It therefore enables the correct identification and understanding of words that differ by one distinctive feature, forming a phonological opposition. For example, there is a phonological opposition between the phonemes [p] and [b] - in the onset of the words *pill* - *bill*, based on the presence or absence of sonority, which suggests that sonority should be considered a distinctive feature differentiating the meaning of these words. The development of the perception of phonetic phenomena precedes verbal expression and ends before the child reaches the age of 1, while the phonological system is gradual and should be fully developed by the age of 5-7. The intervention of a speech-language pathologist in the case of phonemic hearing disorders proves to be necessary, as any abnormalities in this respect may contribute to delays in speech development, difficulties in learning to read and write, as well as pronunciation defects in the form of deformations or soundless speech.

Shaping correct diction, improving the speaking technique, as well as controlling the fluency of speaking are another possible influence of speech-language pathologists. The above contents refer to the most common SLP problems and certainly do not discuss all potential areas of SLP support, as the therapy plan is always adapted to the individual needs of each person, and they can be very different and mutually determined. Early SLP prophylaxis in groups of nursery-age toddlers and the provision of specialised speech therapy care for children at the preschool stage give a chance to reduce the number of children suffering from primary, speech and articulation disorders at subsequent educational stages.

Due to the increasing proportion of children with special educational needs, including those with autism spectrum disorders, motor disabilities, including aphasia, intellectual, visual and auditory

³¹ B. Rocławski, *Śluch fonetyczny i fonemowy. Teoria i praktyka*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Gdańskiego, Gdańsk 1994, p. 20.

disabilities, and the increasing number of opinions about the need for early support for the development³², speech-language pathologists not only act as teachers of correct articulation, but also undertake holistic therapy aimed at developing the communication behaviour of the individual. It is not uncommon to work on building eye contact, triggering communication intentions, shaping understanding of language messages and imitation, trying to pronounce the first words and combining the first sentences, or more generally, on shaping basic communication skills and reproducing the normative course of speech development. A speech-language pathologist gives people with speech disorders the tools to communicate, i.e. spoken language – if it is possible to develop verbal speech – or supporting and alternative communication, in order to compensate for the disorders and to pave the way for communication and language. However, it should be stressed that the introduction of supportive and alternative modes of communication does not preclude the simultaneous development of active speech, as shown by a number of studies conducted on a global scale.³³

In the case of people with neurological disorders, brain tumours, genetic defects, impairment of intellectual functions or prematurely born babies, with perinatal strains or cleft lips and/or palates, the need for a wider spectrum of SLP treatment is recognised not only in the context of developing communication skills, but also in the context of food intake, swallowing, improvement of articulatory

³² The conclusion is based on the analysis of statistical data concerning the number of students with special educational needs in individual voivodeships in the 2016/2017, 2017/2018 and 2018/2019 school years. The number of children covered by early development support in 2006–2018 is also worrying. In 2006, psychological-educational centres issued 16,015 opinions on the need for early development support, and in 2018, the number of opinions increased to 57,741, i.e. almost four times higher. Data available in the Educational Information System (access: 17.06.2019).

³³ A. Smyczek, „Zastosowanie wspomagających i alternatywnych metod komunikacji (AAC approach) w terapii małych dzieci zagrożonych poważnymi zaburzeniami w porozumiewaniu się”, [in:] *Alternatywne i wspomagające metody komunikacji*, ed. J. Bleszyński, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2017, p. 64.

apparatus muscles with the use of intra- and extraoral massage techniques, flexible kinesiotaping of the orofacial sphere, stimulation of absent or extinguishing persistent oral reflexes of the oral-facial complex or undertaking food selectivity or neophobia therapy.

In the area of feeding therapy, speech-language pathologists focus mainly on the safe positioning of people with increased or decreased muscle tension for the duration of food intake, sensitising or de-sensitising the articulatory system, expanding the diet, learning about new foods and new consistencies, practising biting, chewing and mature swallowing. It is also important to select the right accessories for feeding and drinking in such a way that they are adapted to the individual structural and functional capabilities of the orofacial sphere – considering their shape, size and material. The feeding therapist pays attention to the way the bottle and spoon are administered, which should be positioned perpendicularly to the plane of the baby's face, forcing the protrusive movement of the mandible and thus preventing the mandibular retrogenia of the newborn from becoming permanent. In addition, they should teach parents the correct way of spoon feeding from the 4th month of age so that the lips actively participate in taking food off the spoon, preparing for articulation of the lip sounds, the normative realisation of which requires the involvement of the orbicularis oris muscle of the lower and upper lip.³⁴

In the light of the above considerations, the speech-language pathologist should therefore appear in the eyes of society as a specialist with a range of tools and skills to support the development of primitive activities and speech, as well as to improve communication and language skills not only of children and adolescents, but also of adults. Speech-language pathologists are employed in neonatal and stroke wards, which shows the deep need to support patients regardless of their age. What is more, SLP has developed

³⁴ E. Gacka, „Zapobieganie nieprawidłowościom w rozwoju artykulacji u dzieci”, *Interdyscyplinarne konteksty pedagogiki specjalnej* 2019, no. 21, p. 136.

a number of methods for the diagnosis and therapy of speech disorders, which are the subject of extensive scientific studies, indicating both the leading methods of shaping and restoring communication and language competence and performance skills, as well as other supporting methods, such as Sensory Integration or movement, speech and music therapy.³⁵ Many well-known authorities in the field of SLP, who are not only involved in scientific activities, but also conduct diagnosis and therapy of speech disorders in speech therapy clinics, want to share their knowledge, experience and workshop by organising training on various areas of SLP influence. A rich offer of trainings for speech-language pathologists, many new and systematically edited bibliographical items and a wide range of conducted scientific research allow us to claim that speech-language pathology undoubtedly constitutes a transdisciplinary field of knowledge which is developing dynamically every year and introduces a new order not only in the thinking of therapists but also in the thinking of doctors, educators, parents and guardians.

Methodology and results of own studies

In order to identify the state of knowledge about the profession of a speech-language pathologist, a quantitative survey was conducted among a randomly selected group of 50 residents of the city of Poznań between 20 and 60 years old. The research method used is a diagnostic survey and the selected technique is the interview. For the purpose of the study, an interview questionnaire was constructed, which addressed four key issues:

³⁵ Many strategies for the diagnosis and therapy of speech disorders have been developed in speech-language pathology, which are continuously verified and then described in scientific publications. One of the most recent publications presenting a list of SLP therapy methods is the extensive study *Metody terapii logopedycznej*, edited by A. Domagała and U. Mirecka (Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 2018).

1. The specifics of the speech-language pathology profession:
Question 1: Who is a speech-language pathologist and what is the area of their diagnostic and therapeutic influence?
2. Gender in the profession of speech-language pathologist:
Question 2: Who is a speech-language pathologist?
3. Target group of recipients of SLP aids:
Question 3: What is the target group of recipients of speech-language pathology aids? Who does the speech-language pathologist work with?
4. The place of employment of the speech-language pathologist:
Question 4: Where can a speech-language pathologist find employment? Where does the speech-language pathologist work?

The motivation to undertake research on a specific subject was not only the reflections and observations of speech-language pathologists themselves that there are many myths about SLP in circulation in society, but also conversations with friends and families about the profession of a speech-language pathologist. In their statements, the author noticed some superficial statements and incomplete and sometimes false knowledge about the real competences of speech-language pathologists to work with children and adults. It has usually been suggested that a speech-language pathologist works with school-age children on “correct pronunciation of the sounds [sz] or [r]” and common opinions (myths!) about the development of a child’s speech were repeated. More and more often it is said that SLP is such a multithreaded and dynamically developing area of knowledge that it is impossible to be a specialist in everything. This means that speech-language pathologists should specialise in working with a specific target group of patients in order to make the right diagnosis and organise effective therapy.

Two research questions were formulated, which were then answered using the collected interview data:

1. What is the social awareness of the residents of Poznań in the real area of diagnostic and therapeutic influences and the place of employment of the speech-language pathologist?
2. What is the social awareness of the residents of Poznań in terms of the age of people using SLP aids?

The questions contained in the interview were open-ended, thus allowing full freedom of expression for the respondents and not suggesting any possible possibilities of response. The average age of male respondents ($n=20$) was ≈ 37 years, and for female respondents ($n=30$) ≈ 40 years. The 50-person study group included women and men with both higher education and secondary or vocational education. The criteria for exclusion from the sample included the use of a language other than Polish as a mother tongue.

The first question was asked about who a speech-language pathologist is and what are the areas of their diagnostic and therapeutic interactions. The most frequent statements among the responses included statements that a speech-language pathologist deals with the therapy of pronunciation defects and the learning of correct articulation (90%). However, the two answers above can be regarded as identical, as the work on correct articulation results from the presence of a specific type of pronunciation defect, e. g. incorrect realisation of voiced dentalised sounds. It should be noted that in total only 10% of the respondents indicated other possible actions taken by speech-language pathologists, i.e. speech disorders therapy (6%), expanding the lexical resource (2%) and learning the language system (2%).

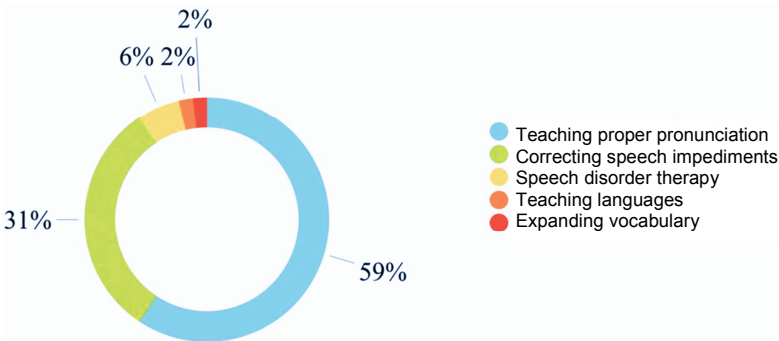


Fig. 1. Percentage distribution of respondents' answers to the question: *Who is a speech-language pathologist and what is the area of their diagnostic and therapeutic influence?*

On the basis of the collected data, it is therefore possible to assume a low awareness of the actual area of activities undertaken by speech-language pathologists and their competence to treat other disorders than just speech defects. None of the respondents indicated such areas as: visual and auditory gnosis exercises, feeding therapy, selection of eating and drinking accessories, narrative speech, introduction of supportive and alternative methods of communication, and many others described in the previous sections of this article.

The second question asked who can work as a speech-language pathologist. Almost half of the respondents, 42%, stated that the profession of a speech-language pathologist is performed exclusively by women. When asked whether a man could take up a job as a speech-language pathologist, they replied that they had not encountered such a situation so far. Nearly 28% of the respondents stated that this profession is performed by both women and men, but with a strong emphasis on female dominance. Another 28% of people answered that a speech-language pathologist can be both male and female. The data collected confirms the beliefs about the feminisation of the speech-language pathologist profession, similar to other teaching positions.³⁶

In the next question, the respondents were asked to indicate possible places of employment for speech-language pathologists. The vast majority of answers stated that a speech-language pathologist works in primary school (88%) or kindergarten (34%). Over 1/3 of the respondents (36%) stated that speech-language pathologists work in their own speech therapy practices, where they diagnose patients and organise individual speech therapy for them. 12 out of 50 respondents (24%) answered that a speech-language pathologist may be employed in hospital wards, e. g. in a stroke or neurological ward.

Next, they were asked about potential recipients of a speech-language pathologist's care. The most frequently indicated group of recipients were school-age children (82%), with particular emphasis

³⁶ A. Gromkowska-Melosik, „Feminizacja zawodu nauczycielskiego – ‘różowe kołnierzyki’ i paradoksy rynku pracy”, *Studia Edukacyjne* 2013, no. 25, pp. 85-100.

on the period of early childhood education. Nearly half (48%) of the respondents answered that speech-language pathologists organise therapeutic activities for pre-school children, and 30% of the respondents indicated that SLP support is also provided to adults after a stroke or those who have lost the ability to communicate effectively with the social environment as a result of communication accidents or brain/laryngeal cancer. One of all the people who took part in the interview indicated the area of artistic speech-language pathology, saying that speech-language pathologists can prepare candidates for theatre schools or to seek the correct technique for using the voice of journalists and politicians. It should be added that 6% of the respondents answered that only those children who already speak are covered by speech therapy, which in the light of the above mentioned considerations is an alarming signal as one of the tasks of a speech-language pathologist is to support linguistic development of non-speaking children.

Therefore, the collected data allow us to establish that among the residents of Poznań, there is a low awareness of other dimensions of SLP work beyond just the aspect of shaping the correct implementation of sounds, as well as the age of the target group of people using the support and knowledge of speech-language pathologists. Moreover, the results confirm the existence of previously discussed myths/stereotypes in the social consciousness about this professional group and testify to the incomplete knowledge of the respondents in the selected issue. The results obtained may indirectly signal low social awareness, when and to whom one should turn if a child does not develop communicative-language competence commensurate with age, or if an adult has growing problems in using speech in social contacts.

Conclusions

In the light of the presented considerations on the wide range of possible actions taken by speech and pronunciation disorders therapists, the opinions of respondents on the specificity of the speech-

language pathologist profession, revealed by the results of the research, should be considered incomplete and superficial. The vast majority of the respondents, as many as 90%, pointed to the formation of correct articulation, and only 6% to the therapy of *sensu largo* speech disorders. There is no doubt that a speech-language pathologist conducts the therapy of pronunciation defects; however, this is only one of many areas of their influence, looking at the multitude of sub-disciplines in modern speech-language pathology. Therefore, it is worrying that a large group of respondents (>90%) do not have the appropriate knowledge to observe the development of children in a more conscious way, as well as to be a vigilant observer of adults who may also experience speech regression.

Speech-language pathologists have the right tools and competences to shape the linguistic and phonetic-phonological system of people of all ages. The specialisations identified in the field of speech therapy, e. g. early intervention, SLP for d/Deaf or hard of hearing people, or neurological SLP, thus testify to the need to provide therapeutic support not only to children/pupils who reveal articulation disorders, but especially to those whose speech disorders are secondary to other, superior developmental abnormalities or are one of the symptoms of a progressive disease process. Based on the collected research results, it can be assumed that there is a need in the social space for various information campaigns and meetings, free lectures and trainings on early symptoms of speech development disorders in children or first symptoms of language and communication skills limitations in adults.

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An overview of tools useful in the speech diagnosis of a child with intellectual disability

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Object literature offers standards of diagnostic procedure for oligophasia. The book market still lacks, however, tools that would be developed for the purpose of logopaedic diagnoses of persons with intellectual disabilities (ID), which could fully assess the speech of a child with oligophasia. Presently, specialists utilise tools used for diagnosing other disorders or create their own research tools. The choice of relevant diagnostic tools, and, as a result – later result analysis, is a complex process mostly due to the great variation of functioning of persons with ID, and due to the lack of developed reference norms for the population of persons with ID (conclusions on language development in this group are by and large quite general, frequently formulated intuitively and without support by empirical studies). As a result, the author concluded an analysis of diagnostic tools available on the book market that could provide aid in the logopaedic assessment of a child with ID, stressing the need to create an original tool adapted for diagnosing the speech disorder of oligophasia.

KEY WORDS: logopaedic diagnosis, diagnostic tools, intellectual disability, oligophasia

The problem of selection of research tools in the process of diagnosing of a child with ID

According to the general methodology of logopaedic practice developed by Grażyna Jastrzębowska and Olga Pelc-Pękala¹, diagnosis in speech therapy is the process of formulation and verification of hypotheses. Verification takes place most commonly by the use of diagnostic tools that may comprise e. g. language capacity tools, communication efficiency tests, pronunciation tests, etc. They help to determine the normative diagnosis (constituting e. g. the basis for any certificate of the need for special education) and the profile diagnosis that indicates a child's strong and weak sides. Finally, they help to formulate the diagnosis and suggest therapy supporting the child's development.²

Subject literature includes diagnostic progress standards³ for oligophasia. The book market still lacks tools that were specifically developed for the purpose of logopaedic diagnosis of persons with ID that could fully assess the speech of a child with oligophasia⁴.

¹ G. Jastrzębowska, O. Pelc-Pękala, *Metodyka ogólna diagnozy i terapii logopedycznej*, [in:] *Logopedia – pytania i odpowiedzi. Podręcznik akademicki*, ed. by T. Gałkowski, G. Jastrzębowska, vol. 2, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole 2003, pp. 309–345.

² M. Kielar-Turska, *Testy sprawności językowych i komunikacyjnych w diagnozie logopedycznej*, [in:] *Metodologia badań logopedycznych z perspektywy teorii i praktyki*, ed. by S. Milewski, K. Kaczorowska-Bray, Wydawnictwo Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2015, pp. 214–215.

³ J. Błęszyński, *Diagnoza rozwoju mowy osób z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną*, [in:] *Diagnoza logopedyczna. Podręcznik akademicki*, ed. by E. Czaplewska, S. Milewski, Gdańskie Wydawnictwo Psychologiczne, Sopot 2012, pp. 177–222; U. Jęczeń, *Postępowanie logopedyczne w przypadkach oligofazji*, [in:] *Logopedia. Standardy postępowania logopedycznego. Podręcznik akademicki*, ed. by S. Grabias, J. Panasiuk, T. Woźniak, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej, Lublin 2015, pp. 267–282.

⁴ This problem was already mentioned in an article by the author (M. Szurek, *Detailed logopaedic diagnosis of a child affected with moderate intellectual disability as the basis for effective therapy*, „Interdyscyplinarne Konteksty Pedagogiki Specjalnej” 2017, no. 18, pp. 165–184).

Presently, experts utilise tools foreseen for diagnosing other dysfunctions or create their own research tools.

The selection of suitable diagnostic tools, and, as a result – the later analysis of results, is a complex process, primarily due to the high level of differentiation in the functioning of persons with ID and the lack of developed representative standards for the population of persons with ID (conclusions concerning the language development of this group are usually very general, most frequently formulated intuitively, without the support of empirical studies). Oligophasia is a term with diverse meanings, defined most commonly from the medical and logopaedic points of view. This stems from the dysfunctions in the background of delayed speech development and the numerous overlapping speech impediments that are difficult to capture and assess. The multitude of definitions indicates the complexity of this deficiency and the related diagnostic difficulties. Most generally, it may be concluded that oligophasia is a speech disorder, a complete lack thereof or its delayed development, related to intellectual disability. It is characterised by deformations of content, form and substance of the language, with the depth of the indicated dysfunctions depending on the level of intellectual disability⁵. A further problem is the functioning of children with ID on various levels depending on the level of their intellectual dysfunction⁶. For instance, children with minor intellectual disability have the same speech disorders as children in the norm⁷, how-

⁵ J. Surowaniec, *Słownik terminów logopedycznych*, Wyższa Szkoła Pedagogiczna w Krakowie, Kraków 1992.

⁶ The classic categorisation discerns the following degrees of ID: minor, moderate, significant, deep (I. Chrzanowska, *Pedagogika specjalna. Od tradycji do współczesności*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2018, p. 249). Currently, however, a departure is seen from the fixed subdivision of ID into grades, only assuming the cognitive criterion. In this case, one distinguishes between minor and major ID, stressing rather the capacities than the limitations of persons with ID (R.J. Kijak, *Niepełnosprawność intelektualna. Między diagnozą a działaniem*, Centrum Rozwoju Zasobów Ludzkich, Warszawa 2013, p. 21).

⁷ Differences in functioning are seen between children from the top and bottom boundary of the ranges of a specific degree of ID.

ever in terms of deeper disabilities (moderate, significant), compound speech disorders may arise, such as dyslalia coupled with dysarthria, stuttering, cluttering, bradylalia or tachylalia⁸.

The fundamental signs of oligophasia co-existing with delayed speech development are primarily: extensive improper articulation of individual sounds or groups of sounds, slower acquisition of passive and active vocabulary, reduced narrative skills visible during the construction of statements on a given subject, disturbed syntactic skills, persisting agrammatisms in speech and reduction of verbal activity⁹.

As indicated earlier, the communication capacities of persons with ID are set against the backdrop of globally delayed psychological and physical development. Symptoms of oligophasia are found beside disturbances of cognitive processes that include: perception, thinking, memory, attention as well as emotional and motivation processes¹⁰. In addition, in little children with ID, there can occur dysfunctions in reactions to stimuli, disturbed contact with the en-

⁸ Conf. A. Szuniewicz, *Próba badań wad wymowy dzieci upośledzonych umysłowo w warszawskich szkołach specjalnych*, „Logopedia” 1967, no. 7, pp. 112–118; T. Gałkowski, *Charakterystyka funkcji mowy i ich zaburzeń*, [in:] *Wybrane zagadnienia z defektologii*, ed. by T. Gałkowski, vol. 1, Wydawnictwo Akademii Teologii Katolickiej, Warszawa 1972; E. Minczakiewicz, *Logopedia. Mowa, rozwój, zaburzenia, terapia*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Akademii Pedagogicznej, Kraków 1996; Z. Tarkowski, *Zaburzenia mowy dzieci upośledzonych umysłowo*, [in:] *Logopedia. Pytania i odpowiedzi*, ed. by T. Gałkowski, G. Jastrzębowska, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole 1999, pp. 489–495; J.J. Bleszyński, K. Kaczorowska-Bray (ed.), *Diagnoza i terapia logopedyczna osób z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną*, Wydawnictwo Harmonia Uniwersalis, Gdańsk 2012; U. Jęczeń, *Postępowanie logopedyczne w przypadkach oligofazji*, [in:] *Logopedia. Standardy postępowania logopedycznego. Podręcznik akademicki*, ed. by S. Grabias, J. Panasiuk, T. Woźniak, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej, Lublin 2015, pp. 267–282.

⁹ A. Rakowska, *Język, komunikacja, niepełnosprawność. Wybrane zagadnienia*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Akademii Pedagogicznej, Kraków 2003, p. 127.

¹⁰ U. Jęczeń, *Symptomy oligofazji w upośledzeniu umysłowym*, [in:] *Logopedia. Teoria zaburzeń mowy*, ed. by S. Grabias, M. Kurkowski, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej, Lublin 2012, pp. 381–393.

vironment, lack of organisation during execution of activities on objects as well as disorders of stature and locomotion¹¹.

Due to the differences of speech in children with ID that can be observed, object literature differentiates between two fundamental models of speech development in the described group: one characteristic for persons with minor ID (minor disability level), and one characteristic for persons with deeper ID (moderate, significant and major disability level). The model of language functioning in persons with minor ID does not fundamentally differ from the language model of persons in the intellectual norm. This stems primarily from the fact that both biological foundations of speech development as well as the mechanisms responsible for understanding and creation of speech are the same in both groups. In addition, the development speech during ontogenesis proceeds along all the same stages. The model of language functioning in persons with deeper ID fundamentally differs from the model of persons in the norm, because persons with deeper ID have deficits of the biological mechanism of speech development, their speech differs quantitatively and qualitatively, and speech development proceeds autonomously (it does not reflect any stadium of speech development of persons in the intellectual norm), and their language is strongly limited; it has syntactic, semantic and phonological properties that are specific to this group. The deeper the ID, the deeper is the speech development delay¹². Among children with deeper ID, one can also find those who do not communicate verbally at all.

Statements of persons with ID show certain properties characteristic for this group. These include:

- a) construction of shorter statements as compared to persons in the norm – the deeper the ID, the shorter the statement;

¹¹ S. Siwek, *Upośledzenie umysłowe*, [in:] *Neuropsychologia kliniczna dziecka. Wybrane zagadnienia*, ed. by A.R. Borkowska, Ł. Domańska, Warszawa 2007, pp. 31–83.

¹² Z. Tarkowski, *Zaburzenia mowy dzieci upośledzonych umysłowo*, [in:] *Logopedia. Pytania i odpowiedzi*, ed. by T. Gałkowski, G. Jastrzębowska, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole 1999, pp. 489–495.

- b) limited vocabulary, reduction to concrete concepts (no abstract concepts), usage mostly of nouns and verbs, to a lesser extent – adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, numerals, conjunctions and prepositions – the deeper the ID, the poorer the vocabulary;
- c) prevalence of simple and incomplete sentences, coordinate compound sentences or adversative sentences, usage mostly of the present tense, less frequently – past tense, sporadically – future tense – the deeper the ID, the poorer the statement structure;
- d) agrammatisms in speech caused by the inability to master complex rules of grammar – the deeper the ID, the more difficulty mastering grammar¹³.

It is clear that in case of children with ID, the mode of acquisition of language skills differs from children in the intellectual norm, and is characterised by a different dynamic (in persons with ID, the development of language skills proceeds much more slowly, and the individual stages of development of speech take longer)¹⁴. The lack of diagnostic tools developed especially for persons with ID encourages the undertaking of an overview and categorisation of existing tools developed for persons in the developmental norm for future use with persons with ID. The significant differences between the functioning of children with various levels of ID, as well as within a single degree of ID, also contributes to difficulties in the choice of tools for persons in the norm that could be useful when logopaedically diagnosing children with ID.

When choosing specific test tools in order to logopaedically diagnose children with ID, one needs to retain a certain level of caution and exhibit fluency in the theoretical basis in logopaedic diagnosis in order to properly choose the tests. The critical analysis of

¹³ Z. Tarkowski, *Zaburzenia mowy dzieci upośledzonych umysłowo*, [in:] *Logopedia. Pytania i odpowiedzi*, ed. by T. Galkowski, G. Jastrzębowska, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole 1999, pp. 489–495.

¹⁴ It seems reasonable to reflect every aspect of language in a separate test and compare them to development norms.

available tools included in this article will make it easier for speech therapists to choose diagnostic tools best suited to the needs of children with ID. The choice of suitable tests from among those available on the market for the purpose of logopaedic diagnosis will allow the determination of the fundamental issues that hinder or prevent language communication, e. g. a poor vocabulary, compounded speech impediments, agrammatisms or significant delays in the development of all aspects of speech. This will e. g. allow the determination of the mode of communication of the child with its environment, of whether the child makes any attempts at verbal contact, whether they understand speech and are able to communicate with their environment.

Selected diagnostic tools that could be used for logopaedic diagnoses of children with ID

Despite the fact that diagnostic analyses rely to a great extent on diagnostic tests conducted with the child, the speech therapist cannot forget that it should „take the form of a discourse between the analysing and the analysed, being an opportunity to observe their language and communication behaviour”¹⁵. The place, where the test is conducted, is important (it should provide comfort and security, be isolated, quiet), and the objects found there (e.g. toys and test materials) should provide help to make contact and elicit specific reactions of the subject¹⁶. Due to the problems with longer-term attention focus of children with ID and in order to reduce the prob-

¹⁵ M. Kielar-Turska, *Testy sprawności językowych i komunikacyjnych w diagnozie logopedycznej*, [in:] *Metodologia badań logopedycznych z perspektywy teorii i praktyki*, ed. by S. Milewski, K. Kaczorowska-Bray, Wydawnictwo Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2015, p. 216.

¹⁶ M. Kielar-Turska, *Testy sprawności językowych i komunikacyjnych w diagnozie logopedycznej*, [in:] *Metodologia badań logopedycznych z perspektywy teorii i praktyki*, ed. by S. Milewski, K. Kaczorowska-Bray, Wydawnictwo Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2015, p. 216.

ability of a sudden motivation drop due to exhaustion, one should adapt the time of the test to the capacities of the child with ID, spreading it out over several meetings. One needs to note that the choice of suitable diagnostic tools and methods to conduct the diagnosis depends on the depth of the dysfunction, the intensity of ID symptoms and the age of the patient. Significant is also the question, whether the child communicates verbally or not (in particular in case of deep ID or compound disabilities)¹⁷. The logopaedic test should be amended by thorough observation of the child's spontaneous behaviour, and expanded to include other tools serving a comprehensive assessment of the functioning of the child (e. g. Schopler's PEP-R).

A tool that could be of assistance in diagnosing diverse aspects of speech disorders of the child with ID is the *Test Sprawności Językowej* (Polish for *Language Skills Test*, TSJ) by Zbigniew Tarkowski¹⁸. This is a standardised tool used for testing the current level of speech development and for discovery of development delays or dysfunctions in various areas. The test is used for diagnosing language skills in children aged four to eight years. It is composed of seven subtests, made up of: understanding a story, vocabulary, correcting sentences, inflection, asking questions, formulating pleas and commands and telling stories. Every subtest checks, respectively: the understanding of longer statements, the vocabulary size on the basis of the ability to name objects, the capacity to perceive and correct grammatical and semantic errors, knowledge of grammar on the basis of the ability to decline nouns, the ability to create questions about a text, the ability to express desires using pleas and orders, the ability to recall a test listened to. During the test, diverse techniques are used to test language skills spanning comprehension and speech on four language

¹⁷ The group of children with ID includes those, for whom the only mode of communication are weakly pronounced facial expressions and gestures, children using limited language, not comprehending the social function of language and children who do not speak, having difficulties with verbal expression.

¹⁸ Z. Tarkowski, *Test Sprawności Językowej*, Wydawnictwo Fundacji „Orator”, Lublin 2001.

levels: grammar, lexis, context and extralinguistic. The test allows the speech therapist to determine, based on the analysis of the language skills profile of the child, to describe disharmonies for all language functions of the child with ID measured by the TSJ and aim the therapy towards less developed skills.

The book market also offers the *Test Rozwoju Językowego* (Polish For *Language Development Test*, TRJ), created by Magdalena Smoczyńska, Ewa Haman, Ewa Czaplewska, Agnieszka Maryniak, Grzegorz Krajewski, Natalia Banasik, Magdalena Kochańska, Magdalena Łuniewska and Marta Morstin¹⁹. The TRJ is a normalised psychometric tool used to diagnose language competences (determine the level of language development) of children aged four to 11 years that psychologists and speech therapists may utilise in their work. Subtests assess language competences spanning: passive and active vocabulary, understanding grammar structures, comprehension of the text listened to. The execution of all subtests takes about an hour, necessitating the subdivision of the diagnosis across 2–3 meetings (adapting the pace of work to the capabilities of a child with ID). When diagnosing a child with ID, the tool allows one to determine the level, at which it is similar in terms of language development to children developing typically. Requirements of standardisation do not allow free modification of the diagnostic process. The speech therapist may, however, adapt it to the individual needs of the patient, forgoing developed norms. The language profile determined using the results allows one to describe specific objectives in the therapeutic process, depending on the type and depth of deficits diagnosed for the child.

Sprawdź jak mówię. Karta badania logopedycznego z materiałami pomocniczymi [Polish for *See how I talk. Speech therapy assessment sheet with auxiliary materials*] by Elżbieta Stecko²⁰ is a further tool that can

¹⁹ M. Smoczyńska, E. Haman, E. Czaplewska, A. Maryniak, G. Krajewski, N. Banasik, M. Kochańska, M. Łuniewska, M. Morstin., *Test Rozwoju Językowego*, Instytut Badań Edukacyjnych, Warszawa 2015.

²⁰ E. Stecko, *Sprawdź jak mówię. Karta badania logopedycznego z materiałami pomocniczymi*, Wydawnictwo ES, Warszawa 2014.

be of help during logopaedic diagnoses. The work is foreseen for diagnosing children of various ages – from toddlers to school-age children (older than seven) characterised by different levels of psychomotor and mental development – for children with speech impairments and delayed speech development, development deficiencies, with a positive pregnancy and birth period. The tool is made up of colourful drawings used to test speech, the interview sheet, the instinct assessment sheet, the test and registration sheet for non-linguistic voice behaviour, the sheet for assessing capacities of speech organs and speech itself (e. g. comprehension, naming, execution of statements and articulation) and a summary sheet to mark the score. What is important, thanks to the tool the speech therapist may test instincts of little children, and in children up to the third year of age assess breathing and swallowing functions, the construction and efficiency of the articulation organs, the development of speech, the status of phonematic hearing, hearing memory and attention. In case of older children (above the third year of age), assessed is the efficiency of articulation organs (spanning mimicking of movements), speech comprehension and expression, articulation as well as hearing analysis and synthesis. The tool allows one to present the image of development of speech in a child with ID. The figures of the tool are sometimes difficult for children, because at times some drawings may be misunderstood by them.

The speech therapist may also make use of offerings foreseen exclusively for diagnosing the youngest of children. One of these are the *Inwentarze Rozwoju Mowy i Komunikacji* (Polish for *Inventories of Speech and Communication Development*, IRMIK) developed by Magdalena Smoczyńska, Grzegorz Krajewski, Magdalena Łuniewska, Ewa Haman, Krzysztof Bulkowski and Magdalena Kocharńska. As the authors indicate, “these are modern diagnostic tools used for the initial assessment of the level of speech development in children aged up to three years. These two parental questionnaires, WORDS AND GESTURES and WORDS AND SENTENCES, are the Polish adaptation of known MacArthur-Bates inventories, broadly used in various countries both for research as well as clinical purposes,

in particular to diagnose language development levels in children with development problems”²¹. This standardised and normalised test allows one to determine the level of language development in little children and to refer these results back to development norms. Thanks to this, the recognition of deficiencies in the development of speech in a child with ID becomes possible already at an early stage.

The scale for assessing the speech of a child with aphasia-type speech disorders, the *AFA-Skala*²² by Anna Paluch, Elżbieta Drewniak-Wołosz and Lucyna Mikosza, is a further publication for assessing children at pre-school and early school age. The test using the *AFA-Skala*, as the authors stress in the introduction to the work, is based on observations of child behaviour in an experimental situation, during which conditions are created as similar to natural situations as possible. The suggested trials are used to assess key aspects related to speech – the level of comprehension and expression of speech. The tool may be used to assess the understanding of individual names (mainly nouns and verbs, but also simple adjectives (including colours), adverbs, numerals and pronouns, simple and complex commands, simple sentences as well as coordinate/ subordinate complex ones, the comprehension of prepositions, comprehension of simple questions (referring to specific items or figures and those without specific objects or drawings)). Additionally, the skill of interchanging mimicking and action is observed, as is the mode of making emotional and social contact. Assessed is also the skill to repeat individual sounds, syllables (opposing ones with primary and secondary sounds), two-syllable and longer words. In terms of expression, the tool is used to assess the mimicking of onomatopoeia, naming words and simple sentences. Assessed is the skill to construct a longer statement on the basis of a figure, as well as cause-and-effect thinking (arranging a picture story). Assessed is

²¹ M. Smoczyńska, G. Krajewski, M. Łuniewska, E. Haman, K. Bulkowski, M. Kochońska, *Inwentarze rozwoju mowy i komunikacji (IRMIK): SŁOWA I GESTY, SŁOWA I ZDANIA. Podręcznik*, Instytut Badań Edukacyjnych, Warszawa 2015, p. 7.

²² A. Paluch, E. Drewniak-Wołosz, L. Mikosza, *AFA-SKALA. Jak badać mowę dziecka afatycznego?*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2008.

the issue, whether the child communicates spontaneously, whether they ask questions, formulate pleas and expresses its needs. The authors recommend noting the plane of non-verbal expressions – gestures and facial expressions – during the test. The material contained in the tool is clear, easily recognised by children with ID – as it mostly refers back to specific situations, and the presented objects are thematically related to the child (they stem from their closest environment). The material was developed in a suitable order with respect to the parts of speech that emerge during language development in the child, and chosen suitably due to the relevant linguistic criterion (phonetics). The *AFA-Skala* is an auxiliary tool to assess child speech dysfunctions; it is not standardised, hence the therapist has full liberty with the test – they can change the order, modify tasks, adapt them to the child's level, forgoing e. g. more difficult examples. Sadly, the scale does not assess all language skills – others must be amended by other tests.

When diagnosing a child with ID, the speech therapist may also use the *Diagnoza rozwoju ucznia z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną w stopniu umiarkowanym. Arkusz monitoringu rozwoju ucznia* [Polish for *Diagnosis of development of pupils with moderate intellectual disability. Pupil development observation sheet*] developed by Alicja Tanajewska and Renata Naprawa²³. The entire sheet includes areas, standards and education content concerning: self-care, health and communication education, cognitive and emotional-motivational development, social education, learning Polish (including the ability to communicate with the environment, preparation ahead of learning to read and write), mathematics, nature, music, arts, technology, computer science and physical education. The authors indicate that the prepared tool allows for a diagnosis of the child's development and determination of the level of mastery of specific skills among the ranges quoted above. The speech therapist may use selected

²³ A. Tanajewska, R. Naprawa, *Diagnozą rozwoju ucznia z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną w stopniu umiarkowanym. Arkusz monitoringu rozwoju ucznia*, Wydawnictwo Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2014.

trials from the publication that will allow them to expand the diagnostic scope and indicate deficits in the area of cognitive and emotional-motivational development, including areas such as: communication with the environment, hearing perception, visual perception, preparation ahead of reading, knowledge of spatial relations, classification of objects and temporal orientation. Even though the authors foresaw this tool to be used with children with moderate ID, it will prove itself to expand the diagnosis in children with other levels of ID with an appropriate adaptation of the trials.

Kwestionariusz diagnostyczny zaburzeń mowy ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem afazji i dysartrii dla młodzieży i dorosłych [Polish for *Diagnostic questionnaire of speech disorders with particular consideration for aphasia and dysarthria for youths and adults*], authored by Katarzyna Szłapa, Iwona Tomasik and Sławomir Wrzesiński,²⁴ is recommended for diagnosing youths and adults with aphasia and dysarthria. However, it will also prove itself in diagnosing language communication disorders in children with ID. The questionnaire is composed of two parts. The first is a diagnostic questionnaire that includes detailed instructions for the test and a sheet for registering the patient's speech; the second contains visual material for the test, composed of drawings and photographs, as well as verbal material. In the first part, testing auditory gnosis, includes simple figures representing objects from the closest environment (and corresponding sounds recorded on CD). Then, the efficacy of the articulatory organ is assessed. Subsequent tests entail the indication of specific parts of the body, naming simple nouns, verbs, adjectives (including colours), adverbs, numerals and prepositions. The tool also includes a test entailing the construction of sentences based on the presented figures. A great advantage of the tool are the realistic photographs it contains, which present daily life situations and actual objects present within the environment of a child with ID. Subsequent tests

²⁴ K. Szłapa, I. Tomasik, S. Wrzesiński, *Kwestionariusz diagnostyczny zaburzeń mowy ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem afazji i dysartrii dla młodzieży i dorosłych*, Wydawnictwo Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2014.

will not be useful for diagnosing a child with ID due to excess difficulty – as they concern the recognition of capital and lowercase letters, reading syllables, one-syllable and more difficult words. This part, however, can be modified, asking the child to repeat syllables and words or used with older children. Next, the skill to read sentences with blanks is assessed, as is storytelling (with the story repeated from memory afterwards), recognition of numbers and mathematical signs and solving mathematical problems.

When discussing tools useful in diagnosing children with ID, one must note the *Całościowe badanie logopedyczne z materiałem obrazkowym* [Polish for *Comprehensive speech therapy assessment with visual aids*] by Danuta Emiluta-Rozya²⁵. Even though this tool is not standardised, the result of long-term experiences of the author and used only for a qualitative assessment, it includes many tests, thanks to which a comprehensive logopaedic diagnosis is possible. Any test conducted using this tool is comprehensive – it assesses the linguistic and non-verbal behaviour of the child, and is used to analyse the conditions of its development. The author does not describe the age range for the patients, substantiating this with the adaptation of the diagnostic trials to the age and cognitive capacities of the diagnosed children. The tool can only be used by a qualified specialist – a speech therapist. The test is divided into two parts. The first spans; an anamnesis, a preliminary assessment of the child's development and of this pre-verbal and verbal communication, as well as specialised trials. The speech therapist is able to give a preliminary diagnosis after this phase, describing the relevant norm of verbal communication development, its disturbed development or speech development delays. The second stage is described as a detailed logopaedic assessment; it is dependent on the results of the first stage – if the first one would find dysfunctions or delays, the specialist can choose specific trials, their order and the relevant language material. The second stage is composed of the following

²⁵ D. Emiluta-Rozya, *Całościowe badanie logopedyczne z materiałem obrazkowym*, Wydawnictwo Akademii Pedagogiki Specjalnej, Warszawa 2013.

diagnostic trials: a preliminary assessment of the orientation and cognitive skills of the child; an assessment of the condition of speech (the ability to create and understand expressions, to evaluate dialogue, assess inflection forms, assess wordbuilding skills, assess words – their usage and comprehension and independent execution, and during repetition – assess the expression of phonemes and word structures), assessing diverse patomechanisms of speech disorders (including the capacities and tension of the articulatory organ, its structure, physical capacities in the area of the articulatory organ – breathing, biting off, biting and chewing as well as swallowing; assess hearing reaction, assessing phonematic hearing, articulation kin-aesthesia and word memory). Such numerous trials allow a comprehensive assessment of the linguistic functioning of a child with ID. A unique advantage of the tool is its flexibility and the ability to pick trials depending on the cognitive level of the patient.

The *Test Słownika Dziecka* [Polish for Child Vocabulary Test]²⁶, developed by Zbigniew Tarkowski, is frequently listed as a diagnostic tool. It is composed of three subtests:

- building subordinate words (with the child providing responses to questions, e. g. *What toys do you know? What colours do you know?* according to the pattern *Tell me + question*);
- defining concepts (with the child also responding to questions put to them, e. g. *What is a ball? What is milk?* according to the pattern *Tell me + question*, with the option of changing *What is...?* to *What does it mean...?*);
- creating superordinate words (the child is tasked with describing three indicated words with one word, e. g. *How would you describe a doll, a ball and a building block with one word?* according to the pattern *You certainly know that some words may be replaced by a single one, for instance: a dog, a horse, a cat are...?* If the child responds, the therapist repeats each time the command *How do you name using one word...?*).

²⁶ Z. Tarkowski, *Test Słownika Dziecka*, Wydawnictwo Fundacji „Orator”, Lublin 1999.

The entire test is based on a discussion with the child, possibly contributing to a drop in motivation during the tests. Lack of visual aids may additionally caused it to be perceived as unattractive. Children may not be eager to respond to further questions, quickly becoming distracted. They may also not understand the commands put to them, and the lack of possibility of adapting the difficulty level may prevent some trials from being executed.

Tests of nomination, comprehension, and in particular articulation correctness²⁷ may be aided by e. g. the *Kwestionariusz obrazkowy* [The image questionnaire]²⁸ and the *Test Nazywania* [The Naming Test]²⁹ by Antoni Balejko. The questionnaire is composed of a set of figures, using which the speech therapist may test the passive and active vocabulary (including the assessment of speech). *The Naming Test* in turn is a tool foreseen for diagnosing persons with various speech disorders. It is composed of a test with visual aids (subtests: showing, expressing, repeating, remembering, thinking, rhythm, drawing, figures - colours, speech - language when solving life difficulties, strings, cutting, naming - reading, minor rebus, nursery rhymes), an instruction sheet and answer sheets. As the author stresses - this tool is meant to inspire the creation of own methods that are to facilitate the sense of sight and hearing and contribute to the development of speech, reading and writing.

One of the more valuable positions for testing speech is the *100-wyrazowy Test Artykulacyjny* [Hundred-Word Articulation

²⁷ Speech therapy of children with ID should stress improvement of communication to a level allowing patients to independently cope with life, and not to develop precise pronunciation - only if a speech impediment would prevent the child with ID from communicating and if it constitutes a problem for them, the speech therapist should work on removing it (L. Bobkowicz-Lewartowska, *Niepelnosprawność intelektualna. Diagnozowanie, edukacja i wychowanie*, Wydawnictwo Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2011, p. 115).

²⁸ A. Balejko, *Kwestionariusz obrazowy do badania mowy i prowadzenia terapii logopedycznej*, 5th ed., Wydawnictwo Antoni Balejko, Białystok 2017.

²⁹ A. Balejko, *Test nazywania. Diagnoza i terapia osób z zaburzeniami mowy*, Wydawnictwo Antoni Balejko, Białystok 2005.

Test]³⁰ developed by Ewa Krajna. It is the first standardised test to assess speech at pre-school age, containing comparative references. It was constructed out of image material, a textbook with a detailed manual of the test procedure and results analysis, the theoretical basis that includes standardisation procedures, and the speech assessment sheets (for qualitative and quantitative assessments). The test is the only one in Poland to contain transcriptions of phonetic script in two standards: Slavonic and IPA (the International Phonetic Alphabet). This tool is meant to be used exclusively by speech therapists. It contains a rich database allowing assessment of articulation, but primarily the vocabulary of a child with ID.

When testing articulation, it is also useful to try the *Badanie wymowy dziecka. Kwestionariusz obrazkowo-wyrazowy dla dzieci 5-letnich i starszych* [Assessment of child pronunciation. Visual-word questionnaire for five-year-old and older children] by Hanna Duda³¹. As the name suggests, the tool is dedicated for children aged five and above (with the precise age limit of patients not described precisely) and is used for the quantitative and qualitative assessment of expressed sounds both in controlled as well as spontaneous speech. The questionnaire is composed of two parts – the first contains linguistic material with sounds that the child should master until the age of five, the second contains words with all sounds of the Polish language, pronounced by the child that is five years old. On the reverse side of every sheet, the author placed suggested dialogues to be conducted with the child during the test. Thanks to this, the diagnostician may acquire a speech sample of a given sound not only in isolation, but also surrounded by other words during spontaneous speech. It is also the perfect opportunity to make a general assessment of pragmatic skills.

An amendment of the assessment conducted using the above test is the second tool developed by the same author – *Badanie kines-*

³⁰ E. Krajna, *100-wyrazowy Test Artykulacyjny*, Wydawnictwo Komlogo, Gliwice 2008.

³¹ H. Duda, *Badanie wymowy dziecka. Kwestionariusz obrazkowo-wyrazowy dla dzieci 5-letnich i starszych*, Wydawnictwo Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2018.

tezji artykulacyjnej. Kwestionariusze i karty [Articulation kinaesthesia test. Questionnaires and sheets]³², which allows a detailed analysis of disturbed sound articulation in the aspect of articulation kinaesthesia. The test is also dedicated to assessing five-year-olds and older children. It is composed of visual-verbal questionnaires divided into two parts – the first concerns resonant and non-resonant sounds, and the other – oral and nasal, hard and soft sounds, which are articulated at different places, and for whom the closeness of the organs of speech is different. An integral part of the tool is the logopaedic assessment sheet, which the therapist may use to note scores. The author indicates that an assessment using this test may be conducted by a speech therapist, child psychologist, paedagogue or any other therapist. It seems quite risky, as the assessment of articulation and articulation kinaesthesia should be done exclusively by a suitably qualified specialist. This is reinforced by the fact that the test is not meant for screening but for a detailed assessment of the analysed parts of speech. It is an amendment of the detailed diagnosis of a child with ID in terms of articulation kinaesthesia, however, the verbal material it contains may prove to be too difficult, in particular for children with deeper ID.

Logopedyczny test dla dzieci i młodzieży [The logopaedic test for children and youths] developed by Iwona Michalak-Widera³³, foreseen for analysing children aged three years and over all the way to adolescence, is meant both for children developing correctly as well as for those with developmental difficulties. It is composed of visual aids testing the articulation of the key sounds of the Polish language and a speech test sheet. Of significant value is the Methodical guidebook on the usage of the speech test sheet and the visual questionnaire at the end of the work, where the author presents the full speech therapy diagnosis system, composed of: the anamnesis, the

³² H. Duda, *Badanie kinestezji artykulacyjnej. Kwestionariusze i karty*, Wydawnictwo Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2017.

³³ I. Michalak-Widera *Logopedyczny test dla dzieci i młodzieży*, Wydawnictwo Unikat 2, Katowice 2009.

assessment of the structure and capacities of speech organs, the test of execution of the basic sounds in the the initial, middle and at the end of words, tests of breathing, of the speaking pace, of hearing, lateralisation, grapho-motor skills, general motor skills and the analysis of specialised test results. Regrettably, even though the author lists many aspects of diagnoses, the test itself only contains material for testing articulation, and as a result, it is not possible to conduct a full logopaedic test with its use.

In case of deeper ID, in particular significant and deep, and in compound disabilities, speech development is significantly limited, or it does not occur at all. In instances of logopaedic diagnoses of a child with ID that does not speak at all, it is important to check the level of ability to convey information and to assess pre-verbal communication. For this purpose, the speech therapist may use the *Indywidualnym arkuszem kompetencji komunikacyjnych* [Individual communication competence sheet] developed by Aleksandra Nowak and Katarzyna Kobylacka-Sikora³⁴. The questionnaire assesses the child's communication skills in five areas – pre-verbal³⁵, verbal, interpersonal, intrapsychological communication and creative expression. Each area takes into account aspects of non-verbal communication, spanning the physical appearance, body movements, gestures, facial expressions, eye movements, touch, voice and the mode of usage of the time and place in communication. Communication competences are assessed across the following ranges: emo-

³⁴ A. Nowak, A. Kobylacka-Sikora, *Indywidualny arkusz kompetencji komunikacyjnych*, <<https://docplayer.pl/21470964-Wprowadzenie-zalozenia-teoretyczne-warunki-przeprowadzania-badania-indywidualny-arkusz-kompetencji-komunikacyjnych-iakk-literatura.html>> [access: 13.11.2019].

³⁵ Pre-verbal communication is assessed on four levels, meaning: original communication – contact with the environment on the level of perception of the own body; sensory communication – contact with the environment by gestures and specific behaviour such as shouting, beating, laughter; communication on the level of behaviour organisation – contact with the environment based on the organisation of own behaviour; auditory communication – contact with the environment on the specific-visual level with use of elements of auditory speech).

tional (ability to recognise and express emotions), verbal-cognitive skills (e.g. vocabulary, mastery of grammar in speaking and writing, articulation, ability to express thoughts and to create and define concepts), and social (initiation and management of social interactions, comprehension, adherence to social rules and standards, group cooperation, taking on social roles). This tool allows the speech therapist to conduct a multi-aspect assessment of functioning of a child with ID.

The *Karty Oceny Zachowań Komunikacyjnych* [Assessment sheets for communication behaviour] by Kazimiera Krakowiak and Marii Panasiuk³⁶ are used most commonly when logopaedically diagnosing children with damaged hearing. The tool allows for an assessment of 30 categories of communication behaviour: Those related to the use of preverbal and verbal phonemic (oral), gesture and mimic signs, using the former and latter type, and the knowledge of writing. It still also prove itself when logopaedically diagnosing children with ID.

The *Ocena efektywności porozumiewania się dzieci niemówiących* [Assessment of communication efficiency in non-speaking children] by Magdalena Grycman³⁷ may also be used for children who do not speak and those with low communication competences across four levels: information transfer, statement construction, interplay with the interlocutor and general communication attitude and motivation. Thanks to this scale, the speech therapist may determine, how (and whether at all) the child is able to convey the information, whether they have the intent of communication and whether it communicates with its environment by way of specific behaviour using facial expressions or gestures. This is a necessary component of diagnosis when introducing alternative communication methods.

³⁶ K. Krakowiak, M. Panasiuk, *Umiejętności komunikacyjne dziecka z uszkodzonym słuchem. Komunikacja językowa i jej zaburzenia*, vol. 3, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej, Lublin 1992.

³⁷ M. Grycman, *Sprawdź, jak się porozumiewam. Ocena efektywności porozumiewania się dzieci niemówiących wraz z propozycjami strategii terapeutycznych*, 2nd ed., Wydawnictwo RCRP, Kraków 2015.

A tool used for logopaedic diagnoses of children with deeper ID is the *Kwestionariusz do badania umiejętności komunikacyjnych u dzieci głębiej upośledzonych* [Questionnaire assessing communication skills in children with deeper disabilities] (with significant and deep ID) developed by Elżbieta Maria Minczakiewicz³⁸. It may be used to assess such skills as: reactions to the own name, auditory reactions, interaction, communication of own needs and interests and properties of speech development (creation and comprehension). Each skill is scored separately. The total score allows the determination of the child's communication skill level as: very good, good, mean, weak, insufficient.

The observation sheets *Diagnoza bazowych umiejętności komunikacyjnych* [Diagnosis of basic communication skills] by Marzena Machoś³⁹ are the perfect tool for assessing skills, upon which the child builds its communication system. These sheets allow for the assessment of basic (primary) cognitive functions that constitute the foundation in the language acquisition process; these being: eye contact, following an object with the eyes, auditory attention, common field of attention, using the finger-pointing gesture, working with the hand, mimicking, imitation of primary sounds, comprehension of the statement *the same*, understanding the concept of *I* (including reacting to one's name) as well as motion, auditory and visual memory. This tool is particularly useful when diagnosing non-speaking children, including those with ID, and children with other disabilities having problems with speech acquisition. These sheets were created, as the author indicates, on the basis of development scales, object literature concerning development of small children and on the basis of own experience in work with children with communication difficulties. The detailed diagnosis of so-called

³⁸ E.M. Minczakiewicz, *Edukacyjny i pragmatyczny aspekt rozwoju komunikacji u dzieci ze sprzężonymi zaburzeniami rozwoju*, [in:] *Komunikacja, mowa, język w diagnozie i terapii zaburzeń rozwoju u dzieci i młodzieży niepełnosprawnej*, ed. by E.M. Minczakiewicz, Wydawnictwo Naukowe AP, Kraków 2001.

³⁹ M. Machoś, *Diagnoza bazowych umiejętności komunikacyjnych. Karty obserwacji*, Wydawnictwo Ergo-Sum, Bytom 2018.

basic communication skills allows for the assessment of the communication functioning of a child with ID and skilful programming of speech therapy.

Conclusions

The examples of certain tools available on the publication market may become useful both for logopaedic diagnoses of children with ID as well as find broad application in therapeutic processes, during which hypotheses put forward during the diagnostic process are verified and modified. The comprehensive diagnosis contributes to the determination of the key assumptions of the relevant therapy programme. It is a long-term activity, comprising many stages, and accordingly it should be spread out over several meetings. The diagnostic is required to have a high level of theoretical knowledge not only in speech therapy, but also basics of linguistics, psychology and paedagogy. Practical experience gained in course of daily work with patients with ID is also important. The main task of the logopaedic diagnosis is the determination of areas of deficiencies or delays, but also the discovery of the patient's strong suits, upon which the speech therapy shall be based. The diagnostic tools are an aid in the development of the key language deficiencies, but also others that accompany the core deficit. One must also consider that the juvenile period is a time, in which the development process is continuous. As a result of the stimulation and continuing development processes, landscape of the child's functioning may change over time. Even though children with ID have certain cognitive limitations, this does not mean that they cannot be successful in honing their skills.

The presented tools are foreseen for analysing selected aspects of language and communication competences. They are most commonly dedicated not only to speech therapists, but also other specialists working with the child. It must be stressed that certain diagnostic trials, specific only to speech therapy, such as the condition

and efficiency of articulation organs, the analysis of speech, of articulation kinaesthesia, should be conducted exclusively by a qualified speech deficiency therapist. Standardised tests allow for a thorough, reliable and objective assessment of speech, however, through this they introduce a certain limitation – they cannot be applied to a specific deficiency, and all trials must be conducted according to the provided instructions so that the scores could be referred to the valid norms, which in turn usually only apply to children in the development norm. Any modification of this tool is related to the possibility of emergence of boundaries in the interpretation of the achieved scores that would prevent their comparison with the norms developed for the tests⁴⁰.

In the majority of the described tools, the material is clear, easy to recognise by children with ID – it refers in most cases to specifics, and the presented objects are known to the child in the technical sense (they stem from its closest environment). Sadly, none of them tests all language capacities. The speech therapist may, however, pick and adapt individual test trials from among the available tools that would create the possibility of a comprehensive speech diagnosis of a child with ID. It must be kept in mind that the test tools must be adapted to the cognitive functioning of the patient, the level of ID and the mode of communication with its environment (verbal/ non-verbal).

The lack of diagnostic tools dedicated to children with ID contributes to the use of other tests or questionnaires developed in most cases for children without cognitive deficits, and as a result, to the diagnostic procedures being treated less rigorously, with the methods and tools being adapted to the specific deficiency⁴¹. This, however, gives rise to the fear that inappropriately selected trials may not necessarily fulfil the basic criteria of properly prepared diagnos-

⁴⁰ E. Hornowska, *Testy psychologiczne: teoria i praktyka*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe „Scholar”, Warszawa 2009.

⁴¹ This issue is also seen for other disabilities (see E. Muzyka-Furtak, E. Haman, *Obrazkowy Test Słownikowy – Rozumienie (OTSR) w diagnostyce logopedycznej dzieci z uszkodzonym słuchem*, „Logopedia” 2014, no. 43–44).

tic tools. It thus seems necessary to develop, on the basis of models already existing, of a test foreseen for diagnosing speech deficiencies in persons with ID, an original tool that would fulfil the expectations of specialists working every day with this group of people. This is, however, not an easy task, and constitutes a challenge for the persons who would take it on. The diagnosis of communication competences of a child with ID is related to the necessity of establishing a multi-aspect tool that would take into account diverse modes of communication referring to the main spheres of the psychological functioning of the patient – language and cognitive capacities, emotional capacities and social capacities.

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Verbal fluency in categories of common and proper names in the phase of mild cognitive impairment in the course of Parkinson's disease

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The article is devoted to consideration of verbal fluency in MCI-PD. The VF test allows for the detection of dysfunctions within linguistic processes, semantic memory and dysfunctions of executive functions already in the early stages of Parkinson's disease. The article compares the results of verbal fluency tests in selected categories of proper names and common names, and assesses the effect of the MCI-PD stage on the test result. The comparison of the test group results with various degrees of MCI indicates a progressive decrease in verbal fluency. The experiment showed different profiles of the verbal task in terms of common and proper names.

KEY WORDS: nomina propria, nomina appellativa, semantic category, verbal fluency test, mild cognitive impairment in Parkinson's disease

Introduction

Words that constitute the basis of verbal communication create a so-called mental dictionary that contains cognitive diagrams understood as knowledge on stimuli ordered by category. The resources of the *dictionary* are collected with varied intensities as a result of acquisition of linguistic and extralinguistic experience throughout an individual's life. The more frequently one uses data related to specific semantic categories in daily life, the better access they have to them.¹

The state of the semantic dictionary is indicated, among others, the capacity to recall words as needed – so-called verbal fluency.² One of the most reliable tools used to assess it is the verbal fluency test (VF test)³. This test was created to assess the mental productivity of persons with damage to the CNS. Its completion requires one to list as high a number of words according to a specific criterion, e. g. formal (words beginning with a specific sound) or semantic (belonging to a specific semantic category).⁴

¹ Conf. E. Zawadzka, *Świat w obrazach u osób po udarze mózgu*, Wydawnictwo DIFIN, Warszawa 2013, p. 17.

² Conf. E. Łuczywek, E. Fersten, *Poziom fluencji słownej przy różnych uszkodzeniach mózgu*, „Studia Psychologiczne” 1992, no. XXX, pp. 89–98; E.M. Szepietowska, B. Gawda, *Ścieżkami fluencji werbalnej*, Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 2011, p. 7.

³ The TFS, Thurstone's Word Fluency Test, was developed by L.L. Thurstone in the first half of the 20th century (conf. L.L. Thurstone, *Mental abilities*, Chicago 1938; conf. also M. Piskunowicz, M. Bieliński, A. Zgliński, A. Borkowska, *Testy fluencji słownej – zastosowanie w diagnostyce neuropsychologicznej*, „Psychiatria Polska” 2013, no. XLVI, 3, pp. 475–476).

⁴ Due to the frequency of words in a given language, one distinguishes between broad categories (sets of words connected in a certain manner, e. g. semantically or phonetically, strongly represented in the mental dictionary of the members of a society, e. g. animal names; or narrow categories – sets of words with statistically limited representation in the mental dictionary, e. g. names of sharp objects (conf. E. Łuczywek, E. Fersten, op. cit., p. 93; M. Ponichtera-Kasprzykowska, T. Sobów, *Adaptacja i wykorzystanie testu fluencji słownej na świecie*, „Psychiatria i Psychologia Kliniczna” 2014, 14(3), p. 180). On various types of fluence see e. g. E.M. Szepietowska, B. Gwda (*Ścieżkami...*, op. cit., pp. 8–9).

The correct execution of the test is possible thanks to the interaction of several factors: Efficient execution mechanisms⁵, developed semantic networks binding concepts into specific sets, an efficient lexical activation mechanism⁶ and the fundamental capacity of understanding verbal messages.⁷ The mode of execution of tasks dealing with verbal fluency (e.g. the choice of the name search strategy⁸) indicates the quality of linguistic processes, the state of semantic memory and the efficiency of execution processes/ functions.⁹

The semantic dictionary is a construct that is very sensitive to negative changes taking place in the human body e. g. due to ageing¹⁰ or progressing neurodegenerative diseases¹¹. This study in-

⁵ Cognitive functions are also referred to as self-regulation functions that entail the organisation, control and management of other cognitive activities, emotional reactions and behaviour (conf. T. Morris, *Urazy mózgu*, [in:] „Neuropsychologia medyczna”, ed. by C.L. Armstrong, L. Morrow, Polish edition edited by M. Harciarek, *Wydawnictwo Lekarskie PZWL*, Warszawa 2014, pp. 441–442). More on executive functions – see M. Pąchalaska (*Rehabilitacja neuropsychologiczna*, Lublin 2014, pp. 370–382).

⁶ The lexical activation hypothesis emerged on the basis of the semantic network model; in this view, semantic knowledge is stored as networks composed of numerous connections between various representations, referred to as nodes of semantic networks (conf. M. Kielar-Turska, K. Byczewska-Konieczny, *Specyficzne właściwości postępowania się językiem przez osoby w wieku senioralnym*, [in:] „Biomedyczne podstawy logopedii”, ed. by S. Milewski, J. Kuczkowski, K. Kaczorowska-Bray, Harmonia, Gdańsk 2014, pp. 437–440).

⁷ Conf. M. Kielar-Turska, K. Byczewska-Konieczny, op. cit., pp. 430–433.

⁸ The name search strategy can take place according to a semantic key, e. g. for a semantic subcategory of a given semantic category, or according to a formal key, e. g. the first sound or syllable, etc.

⁹ Conf. E.M. Szepietowska, B. Gawda, *Ścieżkami...*, op. cit., pp. 11–14; E.M. Szepietowska, B. Gawda, *Werbalna fluencja afektywna i narracje emocjonalne u osób z chorobą Alzheimera i demencją naczyniową*, „Psychogeriatrya Polska” 2012, no. 9(1), pp. 38–39.

¹⁰ Historic study results indicate that age is related to the number of errors when offering generative naming, meaning that as ageing progresses, the ability to create a list of semantically-related words worsens (conf. M. Rutkiewicz-Hanczewska, *Wiek a nazywanie. Procesy wyszukiwania słów w starszym wieku*, [in:] „Gerontologopedia”, ed. by W. Tłokiński, S. Milewski, K. Kaczorowska-Bray, Gdańsk 2018, p. 248).

¹¹ Conf. W. Tłokiński, H. Olszewski, *Zaburzenia mowy związane z wiekiem*, [in:] „Biomedyczne podstawy logopedii”, ed. by S. Milewski, J. Kuczkowski, K. Kaczorowska-Bray, Gdańsk 2014, p. 415.

clude an attempt to assess the condition of the semantic dictionary in persons with diagnosed mild cognitive impairment (MCI) in course of Parkinson's disease (PD).

Parkinson's Disease

Parkinson's Disease (ICD 10 – G20) is the second most frequent, after Alzheimer's Disease, neurodegenerative disease of the nervous system. In its case, the main cause of pathology is the death of a large number of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra.¹² Symptoms of PD include motor and extramotor dysfunctions. The first group includes e. g. bradykinesia (slowness of movement), muscle stiffness, shivers at rest, dysfunctions of posture movements.¹³ Extramotor symptoms include e. g. reduced speed of mental processes, weakened memory and the capacity to recall.¹⁴

In speech therapy of persons with PD, noted are mainly symptoms that are the effect of dysarthria – most commonly hypokinetic, emerging as a result of damage to the extrapyramidal system.¹⁵

¹² Conf. A.P. Krysiak, *Zaburzenia języka i mowy i komunikacji w chorobie Parkinsona*, „Neuropsychiatria i Neuropsychologia” 2011, no. 6(1), p. 36; W. Kozubski, P.P. Liberski, *Neurologia*, Wydawnictwo PZWL, Warszawa 2014, pp. 288–289; A. Friedman, *Epidemiologia, rozpoznawane i leczenie choroby Parkinsona*, [in:] „Zaburzenia poznawcze i psychiczne w chorobie Parkinsona i innych zespołach parkinsonowskich”, ed. by T. Sobów, J. Sławek, Continuo, Wrocław 2006, p. 11.

¹³ W. Kozubski, P.P. Liberski, op. cit., pp. 287–288; A. Friedman, op. cit., p. 13. Symptoms supporting the diagnosis include e. g. dysarthria, hypomimia (limited facial expressions), akinesia (limited movement), dysfunction of the ability to quickly execute subsequent movements (conf. W. Kozubski, P.P. Liberski, op. cit., p. 289), (hence e. g. micrographia observed in a patient's handwriting).

¹⁴ Conf. A.P. Krysiak, op. cit., p. 36; W. Kozubski, P.P. Liberski, op. cit., pp. 288–289; A. Friedman, op. cit., p. 11.

¹⁵ Conf. I. Gatkowska, *Diagnoza dyzartrii u dorosłych w neurologii klinicznej*, Wydawnictwo UJ, Kraków 2012, p. 73; O. Jauer-Niworowska, J. Kwasiborska, *Dyzartria. Wskazówki do diagnozy różnicowej poszczególnych typów dyzartrii*, KOMLOGO, Gliwice 2009, p. 29, 33.

It results in weakened activity of muscles responsible for motorics of articulation mechanisms, as well as breaching and dysfunctions.¹⁶

Ever improving efficiency of treatment of the motor symptoms of PD causes the extension of life of persons suffering from it. It is supposed that as the disease progresses, the frequency of extramotor symptoms increases, including cognitive dysfunctions. Their frequency ranges between 21% the moment PD is diagnosed up to 88% after seven years of disease progress.¹⁷ Language and speech dysfunctions apply to even 89% of patients, but only 3% participate in therapy aimed at reducing these symptoms.¹⁸

The presence of cognitive dysfunctions may lead to the development of mild cognitive impairments (MCI), and as a result – dementia¹⁹ even at an early stage of PD.

¹⁶ Conf. A.P. Krysiak, op. cit., p. 36; Kozubski W., Liberski P.P., op. cit., pp. 287–288. Effects of muscle dysfunctions include e. g. dysprosody, expressed by: monotonous speech, lack of the capacity of voice modulation, voice decay, rhythm interference and lack of the possibility to accentuate, articulation dysfunctions. Observed is also a breathy or harsh voice or articulation, gradual reduction of the exhalation phase, and as a consequence, phase length, increased pauses and hesitation when speaking, and variable speech pace (reduction in case of damage to the globus pallidus, *bradylalia*, and quicker speech pace if there is damage to the striatum, *tachylalia*) conf. A.P. Krysiak, op. cit., p. 36; conf. also I. Gatkowska, op. cit., p. 76.

¹⁷ D. Wiczorek, E.J. Sitek, J. Wójcik, J. Sławek, *Łagodne zaburzenia funkcji poznawczych i otępienie w chorobie Parkinsona – obraz kliniczny i aktualne kryteria diagnostyczne*, „Polski Przegląd Neurologiczny” 2013, no. 9(3), p. 96; J. Sławek, T. Sobów, R. Magierski, M. Boczarska-Jedynak, G. Opala, A. Gorzkowska, *Zaburzenia neuropsychiatryczne*, [in:] „Choroba Parkinsona i inne zaburzenia ruchowe”, ed. by J. Sławek, A. Friedman, A. Bogucki, G. Opala, Via Medica, Gdańsk 2012, p. 130.

¹⁸ A.P. Krysiak, op. cit., p. 37, 39. Particularly complex are relationships between cognitive deficits and the duration of the disease and symptom intensity. Historic studies show the increase of cognitive dysfunctions as extrapyramidal symptoms increase, or the presence of memory and formal fluency dysfunctions at an early stage of PD with limited neurological symptoms, meaning a relative independence of motor and cognitive deficits, conf. E.M. Szepietowska, T. Hasięc, A. Jańczyk-Mikoś, *Fluencja słowna i niewerbalna w różnych stadiach i formach choroby Parkinsona*, „Psychogeriatryka Polska” 2012, no. 9(4), p. 139.

¹⁹ Current diagnostic criteria for discovery of cognitive dysfunctions and dementia in PD were developed by the expert group *Movement Disorder Society*. They are presented in the paper of D. Wiczorek et al. (op. cit., p. 96).

MCI is a set of clinical symptoms described as a transitional state between the correct ageing process and minor dementia.²⁰ Mild cognitive impairment is of limited visibility in early stages of PD (meaning, ≤ 2 stage on the Hoehn and Yahr scale²¹), however, they are among the most frequent causes of irreversible dementia²², hence the necessity of precise diagnosis to prevent the development of dementia.²³

The most fundamental dysfunctions of PD-MCI, *mild cognitive impairment in Parkinson's disease*, include deficits in attention, operating memory and verbal fluency dysfunctions, in particular phonemic fluency (coupled with executive dysfunction), and semantic fluency to a lesser extent (related to verbal semantic memory).²⁴ The deficits

²⁰ T. Gabrylewicz, *Łagodne zaburzenia poznawcze*, [in:] „Diagnostyka i leczenie otępień. Rekomendacje zespołu ekspertów Polskiego Towarzystwa Alzheimerowskiego”, ed. by M. Zabawa, Medisfera, Otwock 2012, p. 51. Broader data on mild cognitive disorders is contained in the paper by L. Bidzian (*Łagodne zaburzenia funkcji poznawczych*, „Geriatrya” 2015, no. 9, pp. 22–30; conf. also J. Sławek, T. Gabrylewicz, *Otępienie w chorobie Parkinsona*, [in:] „Diagnostyka i leczenie otępień. Rekomendacje zespołu ekspertów Polskiego Towarzystwa Alzheimerowskiego”, ed. by M. Zabawa, Medisfera, Otwock 2012, pp. 114–122; conf. also T. Sobów, *Zaburzenia poznawcze w chorobie Parkinsona*, [in:] „Zaburzenia poznawcze i psychiczne w chorobie Parkinsona”, ed. by T. Sobów, J. Sławek, Continuo, Wrocław 2006, pp. 75–85).

²¹ The Hoehn and Yahr scale is used to assess clinical progress of PD. The first stage is related to mild PD symptoms only on one side of the body, and minor psychomotor speed reduction; the fifth stage is found if the patient is not able to move independently or is confined to the bed (conf. M.M. Hoehn, M.D. Yahr, *Parkinsonism: onset, progression and mortality*, „Neurology” 1967, no. 17, pp. 427–442).

²² Conf. W. Kozubski, P.P. Liberski, op. cit., p. 263; H. Olszewski, *Otępienie czołowo-skroniowe. Ujęcie neuropsychologiczne*, Kraków, 2008, p. 183; G.M. Opala, *Epidemiologia otępień w perspektywie prognoz demograficznych*, [in:] „Choroby otępienne. Teoria i praktyka”, ed. by J. Leszek, Wrocław 2003, p. 31.

²³ Assessment of PD uses the common numerical Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (UPDRD); it is used to assess cognitive functions, the mental state and behaviour dysfunctions of patients, allows an assessment of motor skills, including the ability to perform daily tasks (R. Kazimierski, A. Niezgoda, *Skale kliniczne w neurologii*, [in:] „Neurologia. Podręcznik dla studentów medycyny”, ed. by W. Kozubski, P.P. Liberski, Warszawa 2014, p. 84).

²⁴ Conf. L. Bidzan, op. cit., pp. 25–26; J.E. Sitek, K. Kluj-Kozłowska, A. Barczak, *Zaburzenia funkcji językowych w atypowych zespołach parkinsonowskich*, [in:] „Geronto-

may also concern the pragmatic subsystem of language, including the capacity to take turns in a conversation, deliver feedback to the speaker, stay on topic, maintain statement style and conciseness.²⁵

Objective of the analysis

The present analysis makes an attempt to evaluate verbal fluency in selected categories of common and proper names in persons with diagnosed mild cognitive impairment (MCI) without dementia, in the course of PD (PD-MCI).

Compared was the possibility of extraction of lexemes from the mental dictionary that are used to name items with multidesignate references – animal names (AN) and monodesignate references – city names (CN). An attempt was made to assess the influence on their “generation” of the fact that processes of searching for them take different brain pathways (which must be bound to different brain networks binding these names in the mental dictionary).²⁶

The results of the executed tests were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively²⁷. Evaluated was the time it took the patients to pro-

logopedia”, ed. by W. Tłokiński, S. Milewski, K. Kaczorowska-Bray, Gdańsk 2018, p. 560. The basis for dysfunctions of executive functions is pathology of the frontostriatal circuit, mainly the thalamus and front portion of the circuit bend, and to a lesser extent the dorsolateral prefrontal circuit or the orbitofrontal part, considered to be the main anatomical substrates of executive capacities. Considered is also the relation between dysfunctions of executive functions and deficits of memory processes in course of PD covering declarative and non-declarative memory (conf. E.M. Szepietowska, T. Hasić, A. Jańczyk-Mikoś, op. cit., p. 136. M. Pąchalska, op. cit., p. 272).

²⁵ Conf. A.P. Krysiak, op. cit., p. 39.

²⁶ Literature assumes proper names are more difficult to learn and extract from the mental dictionary at any age (conf. M. Rutkiewicz-Hanczewska, *Neurobiologia nazywania. O anomii własnej i apelatywnej*, Wydawnictwo naukowe UAM, Poznań 2016, p. 28).

²⁷ Quantitative norms were developed for the Polish language only for selected samples and age groups. This study assumes that the norm for broad categories is 15 words (after M. Piskunowicz et al., op. cit., p. 479).

duce the first name. Assessed was the result of so-called word production, e. g. the number of correct answers and errors (with their properties described). The strategy of generation of bunches of related words – clusters²⁸ – was described, their content was analysed, their size – assessed. Phenomena were indicated and described that influence the results in verbal fluency, such as OTV (off target verbosity) or TOT (tip-of-the-tongue)²⁹, as well as the forms of amendment of verbal messages as a result of word readiness reduction. Observations were referred back to the results of the control group, and then related to possible causes of reduction in verbal fluency; the process specifics were described.

Method

The study had two stages. During the first, medical documentation and anamneses³⁰ were used to select the study and control group. I conducted the MMSE for both groups – it is a fundamental test allowing one to evaluate cognitive functioning, to achieve relevant certainty: the presence of mild cognitive impairments without signs of dementia in the group of persons diagnosed with PD and

²⁸ The presence of clusters, the basis of which are semantic ties, indicates well-developed/ maintained semantic networks in the mental dictionary. Clusters in fluency tests can also be created using formal keys – when at least two words begin with the same sound or syllable (conf. Piskunowicz et al. 2013, op. cit., p. 476). It is assumed that tasks of semantic fluency more strongly engage temporal lobes, and those of formal fluency – frontal lobes – executive functions. The criterion choice for the establishment of a cluster indicates the thinking strategy (A.K. Troyer, M. Moscovitch, G. Winocur, M.P. Alexander, D. Stuss, *Clustering and switching on verbal fluency: the effects of focal frontal and temporal-lobe lesions*, „*Neuropsychologia*” 1998, no. 36, pp. 138–146).

²⁹ More on the tip-of-the-tongue syndrome, see M. Rutkiewicz-Hanczewska (*Wiek...*, op. cit., pp. 244–246).

³⁰ The anamnesis was used to register data on education, professional activity, language, lateralisation and the will to participate in the study.

no cognitive disorders in the control group. The second stage involved the verbal fluency test.

I commanded the analysed individual as follows: *please state as many animal names as possible* (followed by names of cities, always in the same order). I made sure the studied person understood the order. I made no pauses between the trials, because I evaluated whether perseveration occurred (returning to the preceding task).³¹ 60 seconds were allotted for the task.³²

I did not intervene in the trials, save for situations if the studied individual asked for the command to be repeated, or if they asked whether a particular word was already named (my replies being *yes* or *no*). I took to recording both interventions, as they might indicate memory dysfunctions. Questions by the studied individual whether a word fulfils the task criteria were responded to with the information that the word was recorded, so as not to suggest what type of response I expected.

Characteristics of the studied persons

The study used data collected in the years 2014–2018 at a care and treatment facility and at a speech therapy practice. The study spanned 32 people classified in two groups. The first, of seventeen

³¹ They indicate dysfunctions of memory and task control mechanisms (conf. Pąchalska, op. cit., pp. 395–397).

³² Usually, the execution of individual tasks in terms of verbal fluency use 60 seconds (conf. B. Daniluk, E.M. Szepietowska, *Płynność semantyczna i literowa osób w różnych fazach dorosłości – czynniki modyfikujące wykonanie zadań fluencji słownej – część II*, „Annales Universitatis Mariae Curie-Skłodowska. Sectio J: Paedagogia-Psychologia” 2009, no. 22, pp. 383–405; U. Stolarska, S. Krocza, A. Gergont, M. Steczkowska, M. Kaciński M., *Test fluencji słownej – aspekty rozwojowe w normie i patologii*, „Przegląd Lekarski” 2008, no. 65, p. 765; B. Daniluk, E.M. Szepietowska, *Płynność semantyczna i literowa osób w różnych fazach dorosłości – część I*, „Annales Universitatis Mariae Curie-Skłodowska. Sectio J: Paedagogia-Psychologia” 2009, no. 22, pp. 97–110), the time limit is extended to two minutes in case of significant psychomotor reduction (conf. E.M. Szepietowska, B. Gawda, *Ścieżkami...*, op. cit., p. 12).

people, are patients with diagnosed mild cognitive disorders in course of Parkinson's disease (GPD-MCI), the second 15-person group is the control group (CG).

The analysed persons formed groups „naturally”, meaning, according to the dynamics of admission to the facilities. Everyone consented to the study.³³

The age of persons in both groups remained in the range of 67-75 years.³⁴ Due to the lack of clear data on the influence of gender³⁵ on the test results, the study analysis did not account for gender differences³⁶. Nobody was professionally active, everyone was right-handed, Polish, with vocational or secondary-school education.³⁷

Before the commencement of the verbal fluency test, the patients did not participate in therapy for the purpose of improving it.

The PD-MCI group was selected based on medical documentation and anamneses. The study included persons: 1) with diagnosed Parkinson's Disease; 2) with a MMSE score of 26-24; 3) without depressions or with mild depression (per the GSD)³⁸; 4) in the first or second stage of PD per the Hoehn and Yahr scale. Excluding criteria

³³ Data was collected in line with rules on personal data protection.

³⁴ The relationship is assumed that age is inversely proportional to verbal fluency (conf. Szepietowska, Gawda, *Ścieżkami...*, op. cit., p. 26; J.K. Bolla, S. Gray, S.M. Resnick, R. Galante, C. Kawas, *Category and letter fluency in highly educated older adults*, „The Clinical Neuropsychologist” 1998, no. 123, pp. 330-338).

³⁵ More on studies on the influence of gender on verbal fluency test results, see M. Szepietowska, B. Gawda, (*Ścieżkami...*, op. cit., pp. 30-31).

³⁶ In GPD-MCI 86% were male and 14% female; in CG 81% were male and 19% female.

³⁷ Historic studies assumed a relation between high scores in the verbal fluency test and higher formal education. A broader vocabulary related to education corresponds to more efficient execution of verbal fluency tasks, conf. Szepietowska, Gawda, *Ścieżkami...*, op. cit., p. 29.

³⁸ Test results suggest that patients with stronger depression assess their cognitive difficulties as higher as compared to actual results, in comparison to results of observations of their caretakers (E.M. Szepietowska, B. Gawda, *Werbalna...*, op. cit., p. 139).

were: 1) generalised infections; 2) electrolyte problems, thyroid gland insufficiency, vitamin B12 shortage; 3) hallucinations; 4) current medications influencing cognitive functioning (save for levodopaminergic medications)³⁹; 5) other dysfunctions/ factors not related to the PD that could influence the VF test score.

The control group was made up of persons who: 1) received an MMSE score above 26; 2) are patients of internal medicine or geriatric wards or care and treatment facilities for reasons other than dysfunctions caused by any CNS diseases, mental diseases or other illnesses that significantly influence the execution of verbal fluency tasks.

Results and analysis of the verbal fluency test

Animal names

The studied persons from the PD-MCI group listed on average nine names (top score 16, lowest four!), of which on average 77% were correct (no repetitions or semantic errors). In the CG the mean score was 22 (top 30, lowest 13) of which ca. 90% fulfilled the criteria.

The first name in the PD-MCI group was recalled within ca. 5–15(!) s. At first and during the task, observed was a significant reduction of thinking speed in the studied persons, indicating reduced quality of processes of searching through semantic memory resources, limited capacity to initiate purposeful activity and slow-downs in cognitive processing.⁴⁰ Highest productivity was observed between the 10th and the 20th second. Even though none of the studied persons declined participating in the trial, patients of this group reacted significantly worse to the task than those of the CG.

³⁹ Pharmacological therapy can have a negative influence on cognitive functioning, hence, also on verbal fluency of PD patients. More on the influence of drugs on cognitive functioning, see J. Ślawek et al. (*Zaburzenia ...*, op. cit., pp. 130–171).

⁴⁰ Conf. M. Piskunowicz et al., op. cit., p. 477.

The awareness of the vastness of the set, with simultaneous impossibility of reaching its entries caused the studied patients to finish the task quickly by stating that they do not remember any more animals, and, lacking access to further names, most commonly ceased to attempt searching their semantic dictionary (over half of the studied patients) e. g. *...well... no more animals; I already named the bear... that's the end. I don't have any more; what else? What now?; that's it...; that's... that's... about it.*

The patients from the CG used all the time allotted for the trial. They recalled the first name much more quickly, e. g. within 1-2 s. Highest productivity was observed between ca. 30-40 seconds. The speed of finding the first and subsequent names and their mean number indicates a quicker speed of searching the semantic dictionary and of its larger size. It may also prove that processes of initiation of purposeful activity and cognitive processing are more efficient than in GPD-MCI.⁴¹

Nobody from either group required the task content to be repeated, indicating quite well-functioning short-term memory.

Semantic errors emerged in strings produced by patients from both groups, but they dominated in GPD-MCI. These were so-called superordinate category errors – subcategory names, e. g. *...fish...; ...fish in general...; ...birds...; ...dog, cat, what else is there... reptiles?* Such errors indicate the possibility of reaching the name describing the prototypical properties of that semantic category, without access to words fulfilling the properties of this prototype.⁴² Their presence may suggest semantic dysfunctions as the use of superordinate „labels“ for a broad range of various units may indicate that the categorisation process stops at the boundary of hierarchy that is disintegrated, with the components closest to the boundary most susceptible to dysfunctions.⁴³ This phenomenon is related to a drop

⁴¹ M. Piskunowicz et al., op. cit., p. 477.

⁴² Conf. E.M. Szepietowska, J. Lipian, *Fluencja słowna neutralna i afektywna u chorych z uszkodzeniem prawej, lewej lub obu półkul mózgu*, „Psychiatria Polska” 2012, no. XLVI, 4, p. 541.

⁴³ H. Olszewski, op. cit., p. 110.

in so-called mental flexibility and attention divisibility that are to be linked with executive functions and working memory⁴⁴, more generally – with frontal lobe activity.⁴⁵

At times, a consequence of the observed lack of word readiness (TOT) were descriptive structures, e. g. *that... red one, you know, dear; chicken..., okay, rooster... and the grand one... that gobbles?...*, these were sporadic, mainly in the GPD-MCI (ca. 1%).

Repetitions – a phenomenon characteristic for the described age group⁴⁶ – were found in both groups. In GPD-MCI, however, there was a tendency to repeat the superordinate category name at the start of the task (46% of patients) e. g. *animals...; animals... cat, dog; some animals...* This phenomenon is most probably related to the mode of excitation of semantic fields – the semantic activation mechanism. Patients from the CG did not use it at the start of the task, they used this mechanism during the trial, when lacking access to a further desired word.

Among all repetitions emerging in responses by patients from the PD-MCI group, patients were aware of ca. 65% of them, e. g. *lion, tiger, cheetah..., lion... I had that already; ... hamster, mouse, rat, what else... duck, chicken, rooster, hamster, had that [...]*; the remaining repetitions went unnoticed. Literature says that Parkinson's disease at an early stage causes quite rarely difficulties in retaining in memory the results of cognitive decisions and dysfunctions of mechanisms controlling a task course⁴⁷, hence the number of recorded repetitions was not significantly higher than in the control group; here they constituted a total of ca. 5% of all responses (most commonly the persons were aware of them [90%], as

⁴⁴ Conf. B. Rende, G. Ramsberger, A. Miyake, *Commonalities and differences in the working memory components underlying letter and category fluency task: A dual task investigation*, "Neuropsychology" 2002, no. 16, pp. 309–321.

⁴⁵ A.K. Troyer, M. Moscovitch, G. Winocur, M.P. Alexander, D. Stuss, *Clustering and switching on verbal fluency: the effects of focal frontal and temporal-lobe lesions*, "Neuropsychologia" 1998, no. 36, pp. 138–146.

⁴⁶ Conf. M. Kielar-Turska, K. Byczewska-Konieczny, op. cit., p. 437.

⁴⁷ Conf. A.P. Krysiak, op. cit., p. 38.

indicated by comments like: *I already said that; already had that; already given*).

One of the mechanisms aimed at encouraging the mental dictionary search process is referring to so-called fillers, e. g. single or multiple repetitions of an earlier word or of words; their presence indicates reduced efficiency of searching the mental dictionary, but at the same time it simplifies the activation of semantic fields related to the generated words his type of shortage of fluency must be distinguished from repetitions named above. Fillers, even though present and numerous in strings generated by patients from GPD-MCI (ca. 10% of all responses), did not significantly influence the improvement of results, as they were rarely followed by bunches of words or single words semantically or phonologically tied to the words sought after, e. g. *herring, mackerel..., mackerel..., herring..., mackerel...; ...chicken... chicken... chicken..., seal; duck, chicken..., duck, chicken... fish*. In CG fillers were less numerous, and their use was related to recalling words similar in the semantic or phonological sense, e. g. [...] *stork, sparrow, tit, swallow... swallow... hawk...*

The phenomenon of „off-target verbosity” (OTV)⁴⁸, typical for the analysed age group and possibly related to a deficit of the capacity to limit insignificant information that does not fulfil the task criteria, was noted only in the CG, e. g. *cows, horses, calves, bull and others... chickens... we had these animals, there was a lot of work with them, and what else... dog [...]; dog, cat, I always had dogs and kittens, ooh, all kinds of breeds [the patient laughs], and the boar, fox, roe [...]*. However, the focus on the task objective related to this was not observed. The responses by patients from GPD-MCI did not see any tendencies to relate to their life experiences, and this is most probably related to a reduction of discourse and spontaneous speech characteristic for PD.⁴⁹

⁴⁸ The phenomenon is quite characteristic for the elderly, also without brain pathologies (conf. Kielar-Turska, Byczewska-Konieczny, op. cit., p. 432).

⁴⁹ J.E. Sitek et al., op. cit., p. 562.

The responses of the patients indicated minor numbers of diminutives⁵⁰, e. g. *kittens, doggies, cowies, doggies, and if there's a doggie, there is a kitten*, without any significant domination by any group. There was also no significantly differentiating volume of names used in the plural (this subjectively increases the perceived number of quoted names) e. g. *chickens, roosters, ducks* (PD-MCI).

As expected, the GPD-MCI included much fewer clusters than the CG, statistically just a little over two per patient (lowest one, highest four clusters) with CG scoring almost six on average (lowest two, highest 12). In the GPD-MCI, the number of related (in clusters) and unrelated names was statistically compatible, indicating a reduced capacity to search for a strategy of name generation. The patients quickly ran out of resources of names belonging to indicated subcategories. A result of the drop of cognitive flexibility were significant difficulties in switching over to a further subcategory and recalling unrelated names, e. g. *chicken, rooster, roe, sparrow*, most probably related to low cluster diversity. Patients would most commonly name pets, e. g. *dog, cat; dog, cat, hamster*; farm animals, e. g. *goat, sheep..., sheep... ram*, much less forest animals, e. g. *wolf, boar*, or African animals, e. g. *lion, elephant, crocodile; lion, giraffe*. Some patients used the phonetic strategy to search for names, e. g. the k sound: *cow, crocodile, cat*; the b sound: *bull, bison, bear*.

In CG, cluster spanned 12 subcategories (including farm animals, pets, birds, exotic animals, fish, reptiles, mammals, forest animals). A significant number of clusters indicates an efficiently operating semantic activation mechanism. The presence of clusters, the basis of which is a formal key, e. g. the k sound: *cow, cat, crow, crocodile, cockatoo*; similarly, within specific semantic categories: *cow, cock, cat*, proves that executive functions are efficient; it also suggests quite high cognitive flexibility allowing a change of the strategy if a further name is inaccessible.

⁵⁰ A significant proportion of diminutives may indicate progressive speech infantilisation.

Table no. 1. Source: Own work

Animal names	GPD-MCI	CG
Statistic number of responses per studied patient	9	22
Number of correct names among the responses provided	77%	90%
Semantic errors among all responses	5%	0,2%
Descriptive structures	2%	0,2%
Repetitions among all responses	6,5%	5%
Fillers among all responses	10%	5%
Mean number of clusters per patient	ca. 2	ca. 6
Mean cluster capacity	ca. 3 names	ca. 6 names

City names

The patients from the GPD-MCI listed on average 14 names, of which 89% were names fulfilling the task criteria (lowest score six, highest 21 names). In CG, the mean result was 19 names, of which 90% were correct (lowest five, highest 30 names).

Patients from the GPD-MCI recalled the first name within the first 4–10 seconds. Highest productivity was observed until about 25 seconds. The patients did not utilise all their time allotted for the trial, independently concluding the task ahead of time (ca. 70% patients), e. g. *Warszawa, Łódź, Łowicz..., Kraków, Katowice, Konin, Konin... that's it, I can't recall any more; [...] Łódź, Warszawa, Zamość... that's it; [...] Poznań, Pabianice, my God there are so many and I forgot'em all..., no, there aren't gonna be any more; [...] I don't know any more, this is so silly of you, I don't know...* In CG the first name was recalled within 1–3 seconds. Highest productivity was observed up to ca. 30 seconds. The patients used all the time allotted for the trial.

No semantic errors were recorded in either group. This may certainly be explained by the specifics of the *propria*⁵¹ and suggests

⁵¹ *Nomina propria* are characterised by e. g. singularity, describing, not adjudicating on the reference, information entropy, narrow denotation, broad connotation and the identifying, indicative function. *Nomina appellativa* primarily have meaning, are characterised by information redundancy, broad denotation and narrow conno-

more efficient storage of city names in the mental dictionaries of the tested patients.

Numerous descriptive structures were found, a result of TOT. Their presence may prove that the patients had easier access to semantic knowledge on the name searched for, e. g. *that small place near here, they make good milk and cheese there... I don't remember... that's it*. The quote shows that the patient did not have access to phonological knowledge on the desired name and abandoned searching for it quite quickly. The majority of test results show that patients from the healthy population, when they gain access to certain metacognitive data on the word sought for, continue searching for it, hoping for success.⁵²

Repetitions were quite frequent. In both groups they formed a comparable part of responses. In GPD-MCI repetitions that patients weren't aware of were statistically more common (ca. 5%) e. g. *Wrocław, Warszawa, Wieliczka, Kraków, Poznań, Toruń, Warszawa [...]; Kalisz and then... what can we name...? then maybe now... [after ca. 15 s.] Kalisz*, indicating dysfunctions of short-term memory and dysfunctions of executive functions, the task of which is controlling the correctness of task execution against the set criteria. Less numerous were repetitions indicating lack of certainty whether a name was already given, e. g. [...] *did I say Wałbrzych?* [...]; [...] *did I say Kraków?* [...].

In this category as well, patients from the GPD-MCI had a tendency to repeat the order at the beginning of the task. saying e. g. *city names...; some city names...*, this phenomenon, as stated above, can be related to the mode of excitation of the semantic dictionary. In CG, this tendency was observed only during task execution, if a further desired word was not accessible.

Fillers were more frequent in CG, making up ca. 5% of answers, in GPD-MCI ca. 3%.

Perseveration – returning to the previous task – was not found in any group.

tation, they have a symbolic, categorising function (conf. M. Rutkiewicz-Hanczewska, *Neurobiologia...*, op. cit., p. 16).

⁵² Conf. M. Rutkiewicz-Hanczewska, *Wiek ...*, op. cit., p. 246.

Category clusters for cities were significantly more numerous in CG (lowest six, highest 15) than in GPD-MCI (lowest two, highest five). In GPD-MCI, the semantic strategy of name-searching prevailed, with patients naming e. g. voivodeship capitals, capitals or seaside cities, e. g. *Warszawa, Kraków; Kołobrzeg, Gdańsk, Gdynia, Sopot; Łódź, Warszawa*. They used a formal key of searching to a lesser extent, e. g. *Warszawa, Wrocław; Ostrów Mazowiecki, Ostrów Wielkopolski, Ostrów Lubelski; Radomsko, Radom; Nowy Sącz, Nowy Targ*. CG saw the domination of the phonetic strategy when searching for names – based on the first sound, syllable or part of the name, e. g. *Warszawa, Wrocław, Wieliczka, Wałbrzych; Katowice, Kalisz; Tomaszów Mazowiecki, Tomaszów Lubelski*. The patients, using the semantic strategy, listed most frequently capital city names, e. g. *Paris, Rome*, seaside cities: *Gdańsk, Gdynia, Sopot*; cities related to known destinations.

Table no. 2. Source: Own work

City names	GPD-MCI	CG
Statistic number of responses per studied patient	14	19
Number of correct names among the responses provided	89%	90%
Semantic errors among all responses	0%	0%
Descriptive structures	0,8%	0%
Repetitions among all responses	7%	6%
Fillers among all responses	3%	4,5%
Mean number of clusters per patient	ca. 2	ca. 3
Mean cluster capacity	ca. 2–3 names	ca. 3–5 names

Summary

The presented study results are not conclusive, as the study only used a small group, however, they allow for the formulation of conclusions with respect to it and are an introduction to further research on a larger patient group.

Patients from both groups had no trouble understanding the task, nobody asked for the task to be repeated, hence, no working memory deficiencies were observed (they may accompany PD).⁵³

Irrespective of the task type, in GPD-MCI there was a significant problem with the first name and a reduction in course of the task (so-called bradyphrenia). Observed difficulties with initiation of activity and control of the task course, difficulty changing the cognitive attitude, may be bound to dysfunctions of executive functions.⁵⁴ The patients searched a bit more quickly for city names, and the highest productivity period was slightly longer than for the animal name category. In CG these values were comparable in both categories and provide no differentiation.

Patients from the PD-MCI group did not use the entire time allotted for the task, as patients from the CG did. One may conclude that the core of observed deficits seems to lie in motivation and execution dysfunctions, and this behaviour cannot be linked to disorders of attention selectiveness, the possibility to maintain it or control dysfunctions.⁵⁵

The quantitative analysis of the results shows that patients from the GPD-MCI reached higher word production scores for the city name category than for the animal name category. Historic references concerning the possibility of generative and confrontational naming of common and proper names suggest lower "accessibility" of propria (with the studies, however, mainly applying to first and last names).⁵⁶ Difficulty recalling them is explained by specific phonological properties of the propria, which, as arbitrary, offer less excitation as compared to common names, which have numerous semantic ties (so-called transmission deficit).⁵⁷ The observed diver-

⁵³ Conf. M. Paćhalska, op. cit., pp. 256–264; J.E. Sitek et al., op. cit., p. 561.

⁵⁴ Conf. J.E. Sitek et al., op. cit., p. 560.

⁵⁵ The process of control is the process of assigning resources to a task, requiring conscious decisions on what should be provided with attention in any given moment (conf. M. Paćhalska, op. cit., p. 212).

⁵⁶ Conf. M. Rutkiewicz-Hanczewska, *Neurobiologia...*, op. cit., pp. 251–253.

⁵⁷ Conf. M. Kielar-Turska, K. Byczewska-Konieczny, op. cit., pp. 439–440; M. Rutkiewicz-Hanczewska, *Wiek...*, op. cit., p. 205.

gence suggests at least comparable access capacity for city names and common names. However, this conclusion requires observation on a larger study group.

In both tasks, patients from the GPD-MCI achieved scores below the norm. The minor number of terms actualised according to the set semantic criteria indicates a dysfunction of semantic memory and suggests pathology of the temporal lobes.

Semantic errors in both groups were characteristic only for common names; this stems most probably from the systemic properties of common and proper names. There were no instances of generation of names outside of the categories as a result of switching to a different search criterion that would be more easily available at the time of searching.

As a percentage, descriptive structures comprised a minor fraction of all responses and were more common in the common name category. They indicate inaccessibility of the word sought after, but indicate the process of active vocabulary browsing and the will to complete the task.

The number of repetitions basically does not offer differentiation between tasks or groups.

Fillers in the GPD-MCI were more frequent in the category of common names. They indicate inaccessibility of the word sought after and are a sort of mechanism exciting the process of active semantic dictionary browsing. In CG their number was comparable for both tasks.

A significant factor differentiating the groups, irrespective of the task criterion, was the size and capacity of the generated clusters – their count is considered to be a score indicating cognitive flexibility, and the size is considered a measure of the efficiency of browsing semantic memory.⁵⁸ Test results indicate that the presence of MCI may be linked to a drop in the count and capacity of clusters. This suggests a progressive process of reduction of the mind dic-

⁵⁸ E.M. Szepietowska, B. Gawda, *Ścieżkami...*, op. cit., p. 12; E.M. Szepietowska, B. Gawda, *Werbalna...*, op. cit., p. 136.

tionary, hence, a slow decay of semantic categories. Limited flexibility in movement from one semantically or phonologically related group of words to another (so-called switches) is to be linked with executive function insufficiencies.

Patient responses did not show echolalia, palilalia, perseveration or neologisms. Not noted was also lack of fluency when producing further words or errors in word structures that could indicate decay of automated language forming processes.

To summarise – one could find several causes for low scores in the VF test result for the PD-MCI group, with the most significant seemingly dysfunction of organisation and strategy of thinking (related to the loss of general cognitive flexibility, executive function insufficiencies and memory as well as attention dysfunctions).⁵⁹ They concern, to a lesser extent, the decay of semantic networks and a gradual reduction of the semantic dictionary. The test results must also be analysed in the context of dysfunctions in the cognitive-emotional-motivational area.⁶⁰

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⁵⁹ Conf. K. Jodzio, *Neuropoznawcze korelaty spadku fluencji słownej po udarze prawej półkuli mózgu*, „Studia Psychologiczne” no. 44(2), 2006, p. 15; conf. also E.M. Szepietowska, T. Hasić, A. Jańczyk-Mikoś, op. cit., p. 136.

⁶⁰ Conf. E.M. Szepietowska, T. Hasić, A. Jańczyk-Mikoś, op. cit., p. 136.

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The dynamics of the language development of twins with perinatal difficulties from a neurologopedic perspective

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The present article attempts to evaluate the language development of 6-year-old twins with neurological damage developed during the perinatal period. First, the author discusses theoretical issues related to the most frequently occurring cerebrovascular diseases in children and their consequences leading to speech development disorders. Then, a neurologopedic diagnosis procedure with the use of selected research tools is described.

KEY WORDS: oligophasia, intellectual disability, neurological damage, speech disorders

1. Introduction

The brain is doubtless the most complicated organ of the human body, containing – at birth – over one hundred billion nerve cells, or neurons. In the opinion of certain scientists, the majority of humanity is unable to use, throughout its lifetime, more than 10% of the potential of their nerve cells. A significant group of people functions within society, however, in which even such a small portion of po-

tential cannot be fully utilised¹. This group includes children with neurological damage emerged in the perinatal period, meaning, until the end of the fourth week of life.

2. The etiology of brain damage in prematurely born infants

The most common vascular diseases of the brain in children include the ischaemic stroke and the haemorrhagic stroke. According to US data, the ischaemic stroke is found in 1.0 in 1500–4000 live births, and risk factors leading to its emergence may include: haematological dysfunctions, innate and acquired heart flaws, infections and genetic causes. Haemorrhagic strokes in turn are found in infants at a frequency of 1.9 per 100000 live births, with the most frequent causes being, among others, arterial hypertension, vascular flaws, head injuries as well as a lack of vitamin K, liver diseases and genetic conditions². It must be noted that a particular group of patients susceptible to the emergence of the stroke are children born prematurely, meaning, infants born before the conclusion of the 37th week of pregnancy. The shorter the time of pregnancy, the more increased the risk of post-stroke complications, which doubtless include brain damage³.

Other causes of damage of the central nervous system in children born prematurely include periventricular leucomalation – de-

¹ K. Pennock, *Ratowanie dzieci z uszkodzeniem mózgu*, Wydawnictwo Graffiti BC, Toruń 1994.

² E. Pilarska, *Choroby naczyniowe mózgu u dzieci*, [in:] B. Steinborn (ed.), *Neurologia wieku rozwojowego*, Wydawnictwo Lekarskie PZWL, Warszawa 2017, pp. 983–1021; D. Trauner, K. Eshagh, A. Ballantyne et al., Early language development after peri-natal stroke, *Brain & Language*, 127 (2013), pp. 399–403.

³ R. Michałowicz, *Mózgowe porażenie dziecięce*, Wydawnictwo Lekarskie PZWL, Warszawa 2001; B. Pietrzak-Szymańska, *Ciąża wielopłodowa a ryzyko zaburzeń rozwoju psychomotorycznego u dzieci*, [in:] B. Pietrzak-Szymańska (ed.), *Wspieranie rozwoju mowy dzieci urodzonych przedwcześnie i niepełnosprawnych*, Wydawnictwo Wyższej Szkoły Pedagogicznej TWP, Warszawa 2013.

defined as necrosis of the white matter of the brain – or hyperbilirubinaemia related to immaturity of the liver. It has been proven that pathological jaundice might cause defects in cognitive development and hearing dysfunctions⁴.

All the brain pathologies described below may as a result lead to the emergence of many deficits in later life of the child, including dysfunctions in terms of language development⁵. A review of literature shows that one of the more frequently occurring effects of neurological damage in children that could lead to dysfunctions in speech development, is intellectual disability (ID)⁶. For the purposes of the present paper, in relation to the discussed cases, it shall form the next subject of research – in the context of dysfunctions of speech development that accompany it.

It is worth noting that a group of factors from the perinatal period also exists that are different than damage to the central nervous system, which may also negatively influence the development of speech in prematurely born children. These include, among others, lack of the sucking reflex, dysfunctions in the coordination of sucking and swallowing, an Apgar score below six, breathing dysfunctions, bronchopulmonary dysplasia and a grave form of retinopathy of prematurity⁷.

3. Intellectual disability and speech development dysfunctions

The DSM-5 Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders of the American Psychiatric Association defines intellectual

⁴ E. Gacka, *Zaburzenia rozwoju mowy u dzieci z porodów przedwczesnych. Diagnoza i efekty oddziaływań terapeutycznych*, Wydawnictwo Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2016.

⁵ E. Pilarska, *Choroby naczyniowe...*, op. cit., pp. 983–1021.

⁶ E. Mazanek, *Rozwój umysłowy dzieci z mózgowym porażeniem dziecięcym*, [in:] E. Mazanek, *Dziecko niepełnosprawne ruchowo, cz. 3. Wychowanie i nauczanie dzieci z mózgowym porażeniem dziecięcym*, Wydawnictwo Szkolne i Pedagogiczne, Warszawa 1998, pp. 73–78.

⁷ E. Gacka, *Zaburzenia rozwoju...*, op. cit.

disability as a dysfunction that must fulfil the following three criteria: dysfunctions of general intellectual skills (criterion A), dysfunctions in adaptation (criterion B), and the commencement of emergence of these dysfunctions – both intellectual as well as adaptive ones – takes place in the developmental period (criterion C). The mentioned classification takes into account three levels of gravity of ID: minor, moderate and grave. A slightly different subdivision is presented in the ICD-11 International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, which assumed four levels of gravity of intellectual development dysfunctions (corresponding, by criteria, to intellectual disability according to DSM-5), namely: minor, moderate, significant and deep levels⁸.

The development of speech in children with ID occurs with significant delays, and the dynamics of the process are conditioned, among others, by the level of intellectual disability. As Tarkowski (2005) indicates: „The extent of linguistic impairment expands significantly with the gravity of the disability. The more intense it is, the later do first words and phrases emerge”⁹. The development of speech in intellectually disabled children is also governed by other factors that may include: coexistence of dysfunctions in the area of senses, manifested most commonly by dysfunctions of the hearing organ, presence of dysfunctions in the motor area, the period of commencement of logopaedical activity, the quantity and quality of interactions with the child, the anatomical and functional status of the peripheral speech system, as well as – in case of children with neurological problems – the location and gravity of brain damage¹⁰.

⁸ P. Gałęcki, M. Pilecki, J. Rymaszewska et al., *Kryteria diagnostyczne zaburzeń psychicznych DSM-5*, Edra Urban & Partner, Wrocław 2018.

⁹ Z. Tarkowski, *Mowa osób upośledzonych umysłowo i jej zaburzenia*, [in:] T. Gałkowski, E. Szelaąg, G. Jastrzębowska (ed.), *Podstawy neurologopedii. Podręcznik akademicki*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole 2005. In education literature, the terms of “mental dysfunction” and “intellectual disability” continue to be used interchangeably at times, in particular in somewhat older studies. This article, in line with current trends, however, only uses the term “intellectual disability”.

¹⁰ J. Bleszyński, K. Kaczorowska-Bray, *Diagnoza i terapia logopedyczna osób z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną*, Wydawnictwo Harmonia, Gdańsk 2012.

Speech of intellectually disabled children is characterised by the weakly developed capacity of understanding it, using a limited vocabulary as well as difficulties in proper usage of grammar¹¹. Verbal communication is also hindered by statements of the disabled persons themselves that could be of limited understandability for their recipients, which, as a result, negatively influences social interactions, leading to behavioural problems and isolation¹². The cause of limited understandability of statements of intellectually-disabled children are in particular speech impediments. Studies conducted in Bosnia and Herzegovina have shown that almost 89% of children with intellectual disability being the result of neurological damage exhibited speech dysfunctions¹³.

Speech disturbances accompanying intellectually disabled persons are referred to as oligophasia¹⁴. This term, stemming from the Greek word *oligos* – minor, and *phasia* – speech – is related to delays in the development of speech or its complete lack as well as dysfunctions of the form, content and substance of language depending on the level of gravity of intellectual disability¹⁵. In the logopaedic classification of speech dysfunctions by Stanisław Grabias, oligophasia was included in the group of speech disabilities related to undeveloped skills of perception¹⁶. Table no. 1 shows selected prop-

¹¹ N. Marrus, L. Hall, Intellectual Disability and Language Disorder, *Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, 26 (2017), pp. 539–554.

¹² M. Coppens-Hofman, H. Terband, A. Snik et al., Speech Characteristics and Intelligibility in Adults with Mild and Moderate Intellectual Disabilities, *Folia Phoniatrica et Logopaedica*, 68 (2016), pp. 175–182; Z. Tarkowski, *Mowa osób upośledzonych...*, op. cit.

¹³ H. Memisevic, S. Hadzic, Speech and Language Disorders in Children with Intellectual Disability in Bosnia and Herzegovina, *Disability, CBR and Inclusive Development*, 24 (2013), pp. 92–99.

¹⁴ M. Szurek, Szczegółowa diagnoza logopedyczna dziecka z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną w stopniu umiarkowanym jako podstawa skutecznej terapii, *Interdyscyplinarne Konteksty Pedagogiki Specjalnej*, 18 (2017), pp. 165–184.

¹⁵ U. Jęczeń, Symptomy oligofazji w upośledzeniu umysłowym, [in:] S. Grabias, M. Kurkowski (ed.), *Logopedia. Teoria zaburzeń mowy*, Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 2012.

¹⁶ S. Grabias, *Perspektywy opisu zaburzeń mowy*, [in:] S. Grabias (ed.), *Zaburzenia mowy. Mowa. Teoria. Praktyka*, Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 2001.

erties of the development of speech in children with intellectual disability with respect to its levels of gravity. It is worth noting that certain limitations in the development of speech in a child with disability or at risk of disability – including intellectual disability – may be reduced, at times – significantly reduced – by early support and therapeutic activity¹⁷, including early logopaedic intervention¹⁸, even though the scope of their efficiency is limited, among others, by the level of irreversible biological damage.

Table 1. Selected properties of the development of speech in intellectually-disabled children

Category	Level of intellectual disability			
	Minor	Moderate	Significant	Deep
Properties of speech development	Delayed speech development; limited vocabulary, difficulty expressing thoughts and creating stories independently, difficulty in understanding the meaning of statements, agrammatisms; sometimes, fear of speaking.	Significantly delayed speech development; poor vocabulary, unclear speech; simple sentences with numerous agrammatisms; the child is unable to use abstract concepts.	Deep speech development deficits; the child does not construct sentences, and speaks using single words or monosyllabic phrases; it sometimes uses simple sentences, however, without declination; speech is gibberish, and active vocabulary is very poor.	Speech not developed; the child is able to master only a few words, and understanding of speech is limited to a few simple commands.

Source: own work on the basis of Bleszyński, 2015; Tanajewska et al., 2014.

¹⁷ D. Podgórska-Jachnik, Uzasadnienie potrzeby wczesnych oddziaływań wspomagających rozwój dziecka jako jednego z głównych kierunków rozwoju społecznej pedagogiki specjalnej, *Niepełnosprawność*, 1 (2009), pp. 91–102.

¹⁸ D. Podgórska-Jachnik, *Specyfika wczesnego wspomaganie rozwoju i wczesnej interwencji logopedycznej w pracy z dziećmi z uszkodzonym słuchem*, [in:] K. Kaczorowska-Bray, S. Milewski (ed.), *Wczesna interwencja logopedyczna*, Wydawnictwo Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2016, pp. 459–496.

4. Analysis of a case of twins with difficulties in the perinatal period

4.1. Research methods, techniques and tools

A case study was performed to compare the dynamics of language development of twins with perinatal period dysfunctions, whereby in one of which the diagnosis indicated a speech dysfunction referred to as oligophasia¹⁹. As T. Pilch indicates, the case study is a method that is “[...] a mode of research entailing the analysis of the fate of an individual within specific educational situations or an analysis of specific educational phenomena from the perspective of individual human biographies with the aim to develop a diagnosis of the case or phenomenon in order to instigate therapeutic work”²⁰.

The scientific objective was the presentation of a clinical case study aimed at the presentation of problems stemming from oligophasia, their functional diagnosis and the presentation of a speech therapy programme for a child with oligophasia. The logopaedic study was aimed at the development of a thorough speech therapy analysis with the inclusion of an evaluation of language competence of six-year-old patients: Szymon and Bartosz (names altered)²¹. The execution of the study used the following research techniques:

- observation, allowing the evaluation of the psychological and physical condition of the twins;
- a logopaedic examination²², taking into account:

¹⁹ The nosological diagnosis stems from the child's medical documentation.

²⁰ Quoted per: M. Łobocki, *Wprowadzenie do metodologii badań pedagogicznych*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2008.

²¹ The author has the parents' consent to publish the case description, however the first names were altered to protect the children's personal data. For this same reason, the case description is limited to information necessary from the point of view of achievement of the research objectives, mainly in the context of the logopaedic diagnosis.

²² The analysis of documentation from special examinations as well as the family anamnesis are an integral part of the diagnostic procedure, found within the paradigm of the symptom and cause diagnosis (Grabias 2008, 2014).

- an unstructured, deep anamnesis with the child's parents, the objective of which was to collect information on the development of the boys until that time, with the inclusion of speech development;
- an analysis of medical documents that allowed the study of the location and level of brain damage of the boys, and additionally – in case of Szymon – of other test results concerning e. g. epilepsy, nystagmus and hearing difficulties;
- a current evaluation of the development of speech and language.

The following research tools were utilised:

- *The TRJ Language Development Test (Pl. Test Rozwoju Językowego)*²³ – a normalised, standardised diagnostic tool used to evaluate the language competences of a child aged between four years and eight years, eleven months. The *TRJ* is composed of six subtests testing as follows: understanding of words, repetition of sentences, word production, sentence comprehension, word inflection and text comprehension. In every subtest, the patient may achieve a specific score that in the further part must be referred to standards using a stanine scale. The *TRJ* is aimed at an analysis both of the results of individual subtests as well as the results of summary measures of the four subscales (vocabulary, grammar, comprehension and production), and the overall score. The estimated reliability coefficients for *TRJ* subtests fit in the range of 0.50 to 0.94; positive correlations of the results of *TRJ* subtests with the age of the analysed individuals – ranging from 0.42 to 0.59 – indicate the theoretical reliability of the test.
- *A comprehensive logopaedic examination*²⁴ – a non-standardised tool for the purpose of evaluation of all aspects related to

²³ M. Smoczyńska et al., *Test Rozwoju Językowego. TRJ. Podręcznik*, Instytut Badań Edukacyjnych, Warszawa 2015.

²⁴ D. Emiluta-Rozya, *Całościowe badanie logopedyczne z materiałem obrazkowym*, Wydawnictwo Akademii Pedagogiki Specjalnej, Warszawa 2013.

a child's speech. The comprehensive logopaedic examination allows for both an initial assessment of the development of the child and its communication, as well as a detailed logopaedic examination, covering, among others, the evaluation of the skill to create and understand statements, the evaluation of dialogue, of forms of inflection, the utilisation of phonemes and the structure of words as well as the evaluation of abilities and tension of the muscles of the articulatory organ, a general examination of hearing and phonemic awareness as well as word memory. The qualitative character of the test enables one to only use the trials that the diagnostician would deem necessary in a specific case.

In course of the neurologopaedic diagnosis of patients, the author used the model of diagnostic activity according to S. Grabias²⁵, however, for the purposes of the present study, this model was partially modified. For the purpose of the precise presentation of the discussed cases to the reader, an analysis of medical documentation was taken up first, with information acquired through family anamnesis and observation quoted next. Subsequently, an evaluation of the linguistic functioning of the tested children was undertaken.

4.2. Medical history – analysis of medical documentation

Szymon and Bartosz are dizygotic twins born in November of 2012 in the 23th week of pregnancy with an extremely low birth

²⁵ S. Grabias, *O ostrość refleksji naukowej. Przedmiot logopedii i procedury logopedycznego postępowania*, [in:] S. Milewski, K. Kaczorowska-Bray (ed.), *Logopedia. Wybrane aspekty historii, teorii i praktyki*, Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2013. The diagnostic activity model by S. Grabias assumes that the diagnostic process is composed of two fundamental parts: the description – covering a test of interaction skills, e. g. motor skills, pronunciation, language, concept structures, dialogue and narrative speech – and interpretation, composed, among others, of an analysis of specialised test results, the family anamnesis and the case finding.

weight amounting to 810 and 770 grams, respectively. The cause of the premature birth was most probably an intrauterine infection by a *Mycoplasma* bacterium. The boys, directly after birth by Caesarean section, achieved the following Apgar scores: Szymon 1, 5 and 7 points, and Bartosz 2, 2 and 4 points – in the first, third and fifth minutes of life, respectively. After birth, both children were diagnosed with grave perinatal asphyxia, breathing insufficiency, inborn lung inflammation, and in Szymon – retinopathy of prematurity.

During the first day of life, Bartosz, during an ultrasound examination of the brain, was observed to exhibit first degree bleeding to the brain chambers. The intracranial haemorrhage was also found in his twin brother, where it took on a more grave form – second degree bleeding to the brain chambers on the right side and fourth degree on the left side. In Szymon, the haemorrhagic stroke contributed to the development of post-haemorrhagic hydrocephalus and dysgenesis of the corpus callosum, as confirmed by a MR examination of the head in December of 2013. Due to the significant progression of the hydrocephalus, leading to extreme collection of cerebrospinal fluid in the brain chambers of the child, in December 2015 a ventricular-abdominal valve was implanted, diverting excess fluid to a different area in the body.

An additional neurological problem of Szymon is epilepsy, described in medical documentation as unspecified epilepsy (G40.9). The first two instances of epilepsy took place in December of 2015 and February of 2017, and were caused by high fever in course of an infection. In both cases, they receded after ca. 40 minutes from the moment of administration of anti-epileptic medication. During a hospital stay following the second epilepsy attack, an EEG examination was conducted that showed changes. In relation to the high risk of re-emergence of the seizure, the decision was made to administer anti-epilepsy medication in the form of *Depakine Chronosphere*. A further epileptic seizure, lasting ca. 10–15 minutes, took place in May of 2018, accompanied by salivation. At that time, the anti-epilepsy medication was switched from *Depakine* to *Trileptal*,

and due to persistent aggression and manic symptoms present in Szymon, the antipsychotic drug *Rispolept* was introduced. The last epileptic seizure, lasting about three minutes, took place in November of 2018.

Further dysfunctions of Szymon include significant nystagmus, which decisively influences the motion functioning of the boy, and slight bilateral hearing impairment²⁶. Hearing damage may also be a significant factor hindering the development of speech²⁷, however for the boy, no decision was made as to the need for technical compensation (with the use of hearing aids or implants), and no specialist surdologopaedic therapy was concluded on. Such a strategy does not only stem from the light hearing impairment but also from the co-existence of other developmental difficulties and the necessity to also consider them in therapeutic work. Due to the nystagmus, Szymon underwent treatment using botulin toxin three times.

Both boys are certified as disabled. Bartosz received his certificate on motor disability that was valid between June 2015 and June 2019. Szymon received a certificate indicating compound disability: moderate intellectual disability (IQ 48)²⁸, motor disability, weak eyesight and hearing. For Szymon, the certificate is valid between July 2015 and July 2022.

²⁶ Analysing specialist test results, the Author found no document about the time of discovery of the hearing disorder. The mother's statement indicates that this was around the time of the child's second birthday, inasmuch as this time is only approximate.

²⁷ D. Podgórska-Jachnik, *Specyfika wczesnego wspomagania...*, op. cit.

²⁸ According to specialist literature, a 4th degree intracranial haemorrhage in the perinatal period leads most commonly to death or - in case the child survives - to grave development dysfunctions. The author of the article, during their voluntary logopaedic tour at the 1st University Hospital of Dr Antoni Jurasz in Bydgoszcz, Poland, performed several consultations with child neurologists, neuropsychologists and specialists in neurologopaedics. A minor portion of the mentioned specialists met in their professional careers little patients who, despite having suffered such intense haemorrhages in the perinatal period, continue to function with a moderate intellectual disability. It must be stressed, however, that these situations are extremely rare.

4.3. Data from the anamnesis and observations concerning the development of the twins, including speech

A. Bartosz

The present psychomotor development of Bartosz is correct, despite the fact that for an extended period of time, his development gave rise to many reservations. As in the case of his brother, Bartosz was observed not to exhibit the sucking reflex²⁹. Until the third day of life, the boy was only fed parenterally. Then, first attempts were made at the inclusion of enteral feeding, with full enteral feeding – initially with the use of a probe – was initiated in the boy's ninth day of life. Information from the boy's mother indicates that towards the end of the 2nd month of life she made attempts to nurse Bartosz, however, without the expected result. The child had difficulty latching onto the breast and sucking it correctly. Due to the above, the boy was fed using a teat. Noticeable is the fact of inclusion in the child's diet of paste-like and mixed foods already in the seventh month of life and mashed and soft solid foods in the 11th–12th months of life.

The boy started babbling in the seventh month of life, speaking his first words in the 13th–14th month. Towards the end of the second year, Bartosz was able to construct simple sentences. He is provided with logopaedic therapy since September of 2015 as part of early development support. Since then, the boy was noted for dynamic development of speech capabilities. Presently, Bartosz speaks using full sentences, including compound sentences. he eagerly makes verbal contact, he is cheerful and joyous.

It must be stressed that Bartosz started walking independently at 17 months of age, and before that he used to walk held by his hand. Due to motor disability, Bartosz participated for four years in intense motor rehabilitation as part of early development support. Rehabilitation allowed the boy to equalise deficits in this area of development. His intellectual development level is correct.

²⁹ The analysed specialist documentation lacks information on other lip and facial movements from infancy.

B. Szymon

The psychomotor development of Szymon is delayed. One of the most significant dysfunctions noticeable in the boy was the lack of the sucking reflex. In the first days of life, the child was only fed parenterally. From the fifth day of life of the child, attempts were made to introduce enteral feeding, however they were frequently interrupted due to leftovers in the stomach probe. Full enteral feeding was introduced in the 17th day of life, initially with the use of the probe. In the 50th day of life, the infant gained full breathing capacity. Information from the mother indicates that after this time, numerous attempts were made at breastfeeding, however, due to improper latching onto and sucking of the breast, the uptake of food was inefficient. From the 82nd day of life the child was fed exclusively by teat. In the discussion on the issues of food uptake, noticeable are also difficulties with its biting and chewing in the subsequent months of life of the child. The majority of foods in Szymon's diet constituted, almost until the fifth year of life, were meals in the form of pastes and mashed solids. Due to the boy being covered by neurologopaedic therapy that included learning to eat, solid foods were introduced as time passed.

The boy started babbling in the 16th-17th months of life, and first words were heard shortly before his third birthday. Considering the moderate intellectual disability, the boy has passive speech developed quite well. Szymon understands simple commands, moreover - in the opinion of the mother - he handles understanding complex commands better and better. The boy communicates using very simple sentences or single words, and his statements are not always suitable for the situation. Szymon most commonly whispers when he speaks, he repeats the last word in a sentence or an entire phrase from a question put to him quite frequently (echolalia). He indicates the will to take care of his physiological needs verbally and also verbally reminds that he would like to be handed a specific item.

Noteworthy is the motor development of the child. Szymon started walking independently aged about 3.5 years. He made attempts at walking before that, however, after the first intense fever-

ish convulsions this capacity disappeared. Since a few years ago, due to motor disability, the boy participates in NDT-Bobath rehabilitation therapy.

In addition, Szymon has his body layout orientation developed well, whereby his spatial orientation is slightly worse. Noticeable are significant difficulties in focusing attention and difficulties in controlling emotions. The boy is unable to organise his free time independently nor play with toys as they are intended to be used. Szymon particularly enjoys music and playing the keyboard synthesizer.

4.4. Analysis of own examination results

1. The *TRJ* Language Development Test

The *TRJ* is a tool, the standards of which were developed on the basis of results achieved by children in the intellectual norm. It is primarily used to evaluate language competences in children that do not exhibit „significant somatic and neurological dysfunctions”³⁰. Nonetheless, as the authors indicate, “initial trials show that it can also be used to evaluate the functioning of language development in children, in which dysfunctions were found in this area caused by illnesses”³¹. Moreover, “the *TRJ* can also be used for scientific research, as a tool to control variables related to language competences. In such instances, the researcher is able to modify procedures, however, this *de facto* denotes forgoing the use of standards and relying on the use of raw scores for their analyses”³².

The patients studied by the Author are children, in which neurological changes were noticed in the perinatal period. However, the location and degree of damage to the brain significantly differenti-

³⁰ M. Smoczyńska et al., *Test Rozwoju Językowego...*, op. cit., p. 21.

³¹ Ibidem.

³² Ibidem, p. 109.

ated the continued psychomotor development of the twins. Bartosz is a boy in the intellectual norm, hence in his case the decision was made to use the tool as traditionally, referencing the attained scores to the age norms. For Szymon, due to his moderate intellectual disability, the decision was made to present only the subtest scores, without the score being recalculated using the stanine scale. Table no. 2 presents the results of the boys in the individual subtests of the *TRJ*.

Table 2. Results attained by Szymon and Bartosz in the individual subtests of the *TRJ*

Subtest		Maximum attainable score	Bartosz's score		Szymon's score	
			attained score	stanine	attained score	stanine
1. Vocabulary	Word comprehension	28	24	7	10	-
2. Grammar	Sentence repetition	34	30	7	14	-
3. Vocabulary	Word production	25	15	6	3	-
4. Grammar	Sentence comprehension	32	31	7	4	-
5. Grammar	Inflection	14	14	8	2	-
6. Discourse	Text comprehension	20	20	9	0	-

Source: own work on the basis of the conducted examination.

1A. Discussion of the score of Bartosz in the *TRJ* test

After the recalculation of the score of Bartosz using the standards table, the conclusion was made that the boy received a high total score corresponding to the 99th percentile. This means that 99% of children achieve results lower than or equal to the score of Bartosz. The results in the subscales of vocabulary, comprehension and production re considered high, and in the grammar subscale – very high. In the discourse – text comprehension test the boy achieved the top score.

The results of the examination clearly show above-average language competences of the child. Bartosz answered correctly on all questions concerning the text he heard, indicating a very well de-

veloped ability to draw conclusions. He handled very well the task that required him to repeat sentences, a proof of correct morphosyntactic development of the child³³. the active vocabulary of Bartosz is appropriate for his age. The boy was keen to respond to the questions put to him, he worked with engagement and interest.

Table 3. Normalised results of the TRJ test for Bartosz calculated according to general norms

	Comprehension	Production	Total	Stanine
Vocabulary	1. Word comprehension (stanine) 7	3. Word production (stanine) 6	1 + 3 13 VOCABULARY: recalculated score	7 VOCABULARY: Stanine
Grammar	4. Sentence comprehension (stanine) 7	2. Sentence repetition (stanine) 7 5. Inflection (stanine) 8	4 + 2 + 5 22 GRAMMAR: recalculated score	8 GRAMMAR: Stanine
Total	1 + 4 14 COMPREHENSION: recalculated score	3 + 2 + 5 21 PRODUCTION: recalculated score	1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 35 TOTAL SCORE: Recalculated	
Stanine	↓ 7 COMPREHENSION: Stanine	↓ 7 PRODUCTION: Stanine		7 TOTAL SCORE: Stanine

Source: own examination score processing according to the IBE table pattern.

³³ M. Smoczyńska et al., *Test Rozwoju Językowego...*, op. cit., s. 30. As the authors of the TRJ state: „Sentence repetition is a test commonly used to examine language competences because, as studies show, a strong relation exists between spontaneous speech and sentence repetition. A child may repeat only such a structure that it has already mastered. The task of sentence repetition is thus a reliable and differentiating tool to assess a child’s morphosyntactic development”.

1B. Discussion of the score of Szymon in the TRJ test

On the basis of the conducted examination it was concluded that the boy exhibits quite well developed passive speech on the level of single words, as exhibited by the score in the Vocabulary – word comprehension subtest. In this part of the test, Szymon scored a total of ten points, including five for understanding nouns and five for understanding verbs³⁴. The active speech of the boy is weakly developed. In the Vocabulary – word production subtest, the boy scored three out of 25. On many occasions, he made no attempt to respond, and in a few cases the reply was not precise. An example may be the panel showing a cactus, to which the boy replied *tree*. When asked what this „tree” is named, he was unable to answer. Szymon also exhibits deficiencies in the use of grammar structures, as is reflected by the score he attained in the fifth subtest concerning the inflection of selected nouns. During the test, the boy exhibited difficulty focusing attention, he required much encouragement, frequent repetitions of commands and mobilisation to work.

2. Comprehensive logopaedic examination

Table 4. Evaluation of the individual areas of speech in Bartosz and Szymon on the basis of a comprehensive logopaedic examination

Category	Bartosz	Szymon
Evaluation of abilities and muscle tension of the articulation organ	Motions and tension of the lips (e.g. contraction and expansion of the lips), the tongue (extension and withdrawal, pushing cheeks with the tongue, shifting the tongue to the right and left corner of the mouth and the palate) correct. Motions of the soft palate during emissions of [a] and series of [a] are also correct. Approximate	Capacities and tension of muscles of the articulation organ (e.g. tongue, lips) re correct. The child is able to perform exercises in terms of verticalisation and agility of the tongue and contraction and expansion of the lips correctly. Movements of the soft palate during emissions of [a] and series of [a] are correct. Assessment of lower

³⁴ The assessment of understanding and usage of other parts of speech, such as adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions and numerals was discussed under the *Comprehensive logopaedic examination*.

Category		Bartosz	Szymon
		assessment of lower jaw mobility without reservations ³⁵ .	jaw mobility on the basis of approximate test without reservations. Some tests were not conducted because the patient did not comprehend the command.
Assessment of the structure of the articulation organ		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – tongue: size and shape of tongue correct, tongue symmetrical, length and thickness of lingual frenulum correct – lips: symmetrical, length and shape of upper lip correct – hard palate: symmetrical, shape and surface correct – soft palate: symmetrical, surface correct – teeth: patients undergoing tooth exchange – bite: correct 	
Assessment of physiological activity around the articulatory organ		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – breathing (at rest and dynamic): correct – biting off: correct – biting and chewing: correct 	
		– swallowing: correct	– swallowing: infantile ³⁶
Verbal memory assessment		Child has well-developed verbal memory.	The child's verbal memory is weak.
Assessment of auditory reactions	Assessment of phonemic awareness	The boy is able to differentiate between paronyms. All trials concluded correctly.	Three of 12 trials failed. The boy indicated images in the following paronyms wrongly: <i>tacka-taczka, kasza-kasa, sale-szale</i> . This does not indicate disturbances in phonemic awareness, however ^{37, 38a}

³⁵ D. Pluta-Wojciechowska, *Dyslalia obwodowa*, Wydawnictwo Ergo-Sum, Bytom 2019. As Pluta-Wojciechowska states: "The temporomandibular joint and the related mobility of the mandible are evaluated by the speech therapist (approximately) on then basis of the capacities, path and range of retraction of the mandible and an interview concerning any possible occlusion parafunctions", p. 155.

³⁶ During the first assessment of swallowing performed at the practice, the child experienced strong disquiet when its face was touched (the patient was excitable, clearly nervous due to the examination). The examination result proved unreliable at that time. The repeated assessment, conducted at the child's home, indicated the presence of infantile swallowing. This is indicated by e. g. strongly tense lips and cheeks during swallowing and inserting the tongue between the teeth.

³⁷ As the test Author indicates: "[...] a child that executes substitutes in place of the required consonant, e. g. in case of parasigmatism: [š ž č ẓ̌] = [s z c ʒ], frequently indicates the designate corresponding to the word being the effect of its own execution, e. g. *soot* instead of *shoot*. one can thus assume that the sensual-motor paradigm of the word is stronger in the child in this case than the auditory pattern indicated

Category		Bartosz	Szymon
	Approximate hearing examination	The child has correctly functioning physical hearing.	The conducted evaluation did not find dysfunctions in this regard. The result gives rise to doubts to the diagnosis about hearing difficulties, as this information was repeated many times, e. g. in opinions of the psychological and paedagogical advisory facility.
Phoneme execution assessment ³⁹		<p>All sounds pronounced correctly as isolated, in syllables and words. Sometimes - for phrases and sentences - properties of the expected phoneme were not found, as properties of a different phoneme were heard and observed that was spoken as standard. This applies to the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the phoneme /š/ executed as dental (/š/→[s]), - the phoneme /ž/ executed as dental (/ž/→[z]), - the phoneme /č/ executed as dental (/č/→[c]), - the phoneme /ž/ executed as dental (/ž/→[ʒ]). <p>It must be stressed that the observed phenomenon was only noted in spontaneous speech.</p>	<p>The speech examination showed an abnormal execution of the following phonemes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the phoneme /š/ executed as an interdental sound (/š/→[interdental s]), - the phoneme /ž/ executed as an interdental sound (/ž/→[interdental z]), - the phoneme /č/ executed as an interdental sound (/č/→[interdental c]), - the phoneme /ž/ executed as an interdental sound (/ž/→[interdental ʒ]), - the phoneme /r/ executed as an interdental sound (/r/→[interdental l]). <p>Non-standard execution of the phonemes /s/ /c/ /z/ /ʒ/ /l/ is related to dislocation, or dysfunction of the place of articulation. The first four phonemes should be executed as dental, and the pho-</p>

earlier on during the examination. In my opinion, this is not indicative of dysfunctions of phonemic awareness [...], but difficulties in the differentiation between phonemes with a specific property, e. g. the point of articulation”.

³⁸ Paronyms left untranslated due to the fact that their significance is only on the auditory and not the semantic level [translator’s note].

³⁹ When assessing phoneme execution, the analytical-phonetic pronunciation test method was used, developed by such researchers are B. Ostapiuk (1997), L. Konopska (2006), D. Pluta-Wojciechowska (2012, 2019), whereby the description of the method is used by the latter. The author of the present paper used primarily the latter researcher’s approach.

Category		Bartosz	Szymon
			neme /l/ - as alveolar. The above phonemic and phonetic changes are the result of missing teeth caused by exchange of milk teeth, concluding with an incorrect position of the tongue.
Assessment of words (their comprehension and use)	Comprehension and use of adjectives and adverbs	The boy is able to correctly indicate and describe item properties (adjectives), and also responds correctly to the question "What is it like here?" (adverbs).	The boy shows significant shortcomings in the comprehension and use of adjectives and adverbs. Many times, the child did not attempt responses or they were not suitable to the presented image.
	Comprehension and use of pronouns and prepositions	The patient has no trouble understanding pronouns and prepositions. Their use during the study as well as during spontaneous expressions of the child, is correct.	The patient shows difficulty using the pronoun „I". Frequently talks about himself in third person singular. The test also showed lack of understanding for prepositions - both with the use of images as well as actual items.
	Comprehension and use of numerals	The child shows no deficits in terms of comprehension and use of cardinal and ordinal numerals.	The test was conducted using toys - animals. When asked, "how many animals are there?" the child responded correctly. However, when asked: "the cow is first, and the cat is...?", the boy could not respond.
Assessment of the ability to create statements		The patient describes very precisely what is going on in the presented images, his statements are detailed and exhaustive. When speaking, the child uses all parts of speech.	The patient shows deficits in the area of creation of statements on the basis of the presented image-based story. The boy does not respond, but lists items/ persons found in the images.
Assessment of dialogue		The boy has the ability to initiate and maintain dialogue, and waits for his turn in conversation. The responses given by the child are free responses, extensive and detailed. During discussions, the patient always faced the examiner, and his statements were amended by gestures and facial expressions.	The boy attempts to initiate dialogue, however his skills at maintaining dialogue are significantly limited. The responses usually do not venture past nominal or simple sentences. The patient would at times lose interest in the topic of conversation and „shift" his attention to a different activity or item.

Source: Own work on the basis of the conducted examination.

3. Diagnoza neurologopedyczna i program terapii

A. Bartosz

The patient shows only slight difficulty in articulation found in spontaneous speech. Continuation of speech therapy is recommended to perfect pronunciation by Bartosz.

B. Szymon

As a result of the conducted examination, the patient was found to have a speech dysfunction termed oligophasia, exhibited through the following:

- delayed development of active and passive speech,
- nonstandard execution of the phonemes /š/, /ž/, /č/, /ž/, /r/, as the properties of these phonemes were not noticed, however, properties of other phonemes were noticed (/s/, /z/, /c/, /3/, /l/) that were not executed as standard, e. g. as interdental sounds,
- infantile swallowing,
- usage of incorrect grammar forms,
- reduced verbal memory,
- echolalia,
- speaking about themselves in the third person singular.

The following conclusions were also made:

- reduced motor and graphomotor abilities,
- difficulty focusing attention on tasks,
- difficulty controlling emotions.

Considering the above diagnosis, it must be noted that the boy requires intense stimulation in many areas significant from the neurologopaedic point of view. In the conducted therapy, attention is also turned to the development of the child's language activity, working on articulation shortcomings and difficulties in using grammatical forms as well as the development of social behaviour in the area of establishment of skills enabling functioning in the environment, facilitation of concentration and fine motor skills. Due to the fact that the boy is best motivated to work by music, the suggestion is made to utilise therapeutic methods related to it, e. g. log-

orhythmics and music therapy. These will definitely stimulate the patient's speech development, and serve relaxation and calming of the collected emotions. In work with the boy, importance is the extension of the time needed to perform specific tasks and mobilisation to work. Recommended is also continued regular supervision of Szymon's development progress.

5. Discussion

The logopaedic examination conducted between February and March of 2019 showed significant differences in the development of speech in both patients. As literature shows, language development in children with neurological damage may proceed with delays, as reflected in one of the boys⁴⁰. A compounding factor may also be the uncompensated hearing dysfunction. In Szymon, the development of both active and passive speech is delayed. Additionally, numerous difficulties with articulation were noticed, as well as echolalia and difficulty using grammar correctly. Bartosz in turn – from the neurologopaedic perspective – is a child developing correctly, for whom further therapy should only focus on perfecting pronunciation.

The dynamics of the language development between the boys is varied. Attention should be turned here to the neurological damage observed in the twins in the first week of their lives. In Szymon, the intracranial haemorrhage took place in both hemispheres, and every haemorrhage took on a more grave form than was the case in his twin brother, in whom the intraventricular haemorrhage – in the most minor degree – was observed only on the right side. The above information allows the statement that the level of brain damage determines the further psychological and physical development of the child, and, accordingly, their speech development. Of importance is also the place of damage of the brain. As literature

⁴⁰ D. Trauner, K. Eshagh, A. Ballantyne et al., Early language development after peri-natal stroke, *Brain & Language*, 127 (2013), pp. 399–403.

shows, children suffering from a perinatal stroke in the left brain hemisphere seem to make more morphological errors, use less complex syntax and convey information with a lower degree of detail than children with a stroke found in the area of the right hemisphere⁴¹. Significant seem also other dysfunctions that can accompany perinatal strokes. One of these is the total or partial failure of the corpus callosum, or the connection joining areas of the neocortex, allowing for the cooperation between both hemispheres. It has been proven that flawed development of the corpus callosum may result in delays in intellectual development, speech dysfunctions and epilepsy⁴².

The conducted case study also allowed the presentation of usability of the utilised research tools to diagnose speech development dysfunctions in a child with intellectual disability. Presently, logopaedic tests for the diagnosis of oligophasia are lacking, however, the conducted study shows that the TRJ test⁴³ along with a *Comprehensive logopaedic examination*⁴⁴ form a good basis to diagnose the above-described speech dysfunction, the development of a speech therapy program on this basis and the assessment of its relevant effects.

6. Conclusion

The dynamics of a child's language development depend on many factors, and one of them is neurological damage that can lead

⁴¹ A. Kirton, G. de Veber, Life After Perinatal Stroke, *Stroke*, 44 (2013), pp. 3265–3271; D. Woolpert, J. Reilly, Investigating the extent of neuroplasticity: Writing in children with perinatal stroke, *Neuropsychologia*, 89 (2016), pp. 105–118.

⁴² K. Zakrzewski, Wady rozwojowe układu nerwowego, [in:] B. Steinborn (ed.), *Neurologia wieku rozwojowego*, Wydawnictwo Lekarskie PZWL, Warszawa 2017, pp. 609–641.

⁴³ M. Smoczyńska et al., *Test Rozwoju Językowego...*, op. cit.

⁴⁴ D. Emiluta-Rozya, *Całościowe badanie logopedyczne z materiałem obrazkowym*, Wydawnictwo Akademii Pedagogiki Specjalnej, Warszawa 2013.

to disturbances in intellectual development. Logopaedic care for an intellectually disabled child should be based on regular, best weekly, meetings of the patient with the therapist and on individualisation in the development of the therapy programme. All therapeutic activities should, however, be preceded by a logopaedic examination of the little patient, concluded with a thorough and detailed functional diagnosis, in particular in case of additional compound disabilities. When conducting a neurologopaedic diagnosis of a disabled child, one cannot limit themselves to just aspects related to speech dysfunctions. One must consider the child holistically, taking into account their other difficulties as well. In case of cerebral palsy, these do not only include motor dysfunctions, but also difficulties in terms of memory, attention focusing, perception of reality and emotional problems that do not remain without influence on the course of the therapeutic process. And what is most important, the therapist must not look at the child only from the perspective of their disability; as Maria Grzegorzewska stated: „There is no cripple; there is a human”⁴⁵. The simplest and at the same time the most obvious sign of such an approach is for all therapy – speech therapy as well – to account for a child’s strong suits and interests, as was also shown on the example of the presented case study.

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⁴⁵ Quoted per: T. Maszczak, *Kultura fizyczna w edukacji osób niepełnosprawnych*, [in:] M. Chodkowska (ed.), *Pedagogika specjalna. Wobec potrzeb teraźniejszości i wyzwań przyszłości*, Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 1998.

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The National Days in the Bilingual School

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The bilingual school tends to address both the national days of the Arabs and the national days of the Jews as a part of its multicultural perception. As aforementioned, these days are characterized as tense and complicated days in the school, both for the Arabs and for the Jews, because of the narratives and perceptions that they represent, which sometimes are contradictory and. Nevertheless, it is possible to see that the school addresses the different perceptions and narratives of each culture, with recognition of the difference and uniqueness of each one of them and with reinforcement of the commonalities between them. In this way, it gives hope and encourages the desire for a shared life between Jews and Arabs in Israel, which on the one hand includes the difference and on the other hand broadens the common denominator between the two groups. This article will describe the national days of Arabs and Jews in the bilingual school in Jerusalem. It will focus on the meaning of the days, their complexity, and the ways of coping and implementation in the framework of the school, with reference to the school perception.

KEY WORDS: national days, school, bilingual, multiculturalism, Arabs and Jews

1. Introduction

In the State of Israel today there are five bilingual schools and a Young Division (a framework that includes kindergarten and first grade) that operate on the basis of humanist ideology and on the

perception of a shared and equal life between Arabs and Jews who are citizens of Israel. Bilingual education is embodied in the presence of the languages, Arabic and Hebrew, which represent the different cultures. It enables multicultural dialogue between Arabs and Jews, which for the most part is not expressed in the reality of life in Israel, in light of the complex and tense relationships between Arabs and Jews in Israel and because of the Arab-Jewish conflict. In addition, in its existence it realizes humanist values of reciprocal recognition and respect. In addition, according to the perception of bilingual education, the separate identities, both of Arabs and of Jews, are shaped, each on its own significantly, simultaneously with a connection to the other. In other words, the dialogue in both languages leads to the re-naming of concepts and relations, to the inclusive description and interpretation of the social reality, which barely occurs in the life reality in Israel. In addition, bilingual education calls to give an equal and shared place to the Jewish identity and to the Arab identity, in the approach of the creation of a space in which there is legitimization of the different identities, dialogue between the identities and the narratives of the two groups, in contrast to the situation in Israel, in which there is barely an encounter or a discourse between the groups.

According to this educational approach, the bilingual school in Jerusalem tends to address both the national days of the Arabs and the national days of the Jews as a part of its multicultural perception. As aforementioned, these days are characterized as tense and complicated days in the school, both for the Arabs and for the Jews, because of the narratives and perceptions that they represent, which sometimes are contradictory and different (like the tension that exists in these days in Israel among both groups). Nevertheless, it is possible to see that the school addresses the different perceptions and narratives of each culture, with recognition of the difference and uniqueness of each one of them and with reinforcement of the commonalities between them. In this way, it gives hope and encourages the desire for a shared life between Jews and Arabs in

Israel, which on the one hand includes the difference and on the other hand broadens the common denominator between the two. In addition, it presents another way of coping with the Arab-Jewish conflict and with the view of the other, which can be implemented in different frameworks in Israeli society. Moreover, it is possible to see that the school presents an educational perception that can be implemented in additional multicultural frameworks around the world or in frameworks in which there are complicated relationships between different populations or different groups. Moreover, it is possible to be assisted by this approach in regions where there are conflicts between different groups.

This article will describe the national days of Arabs and Jews in the bilingual school in Jerusalem. It will focus on the meaning of the days, their complexity, and the ways of coping and implementation in the framework of the school, with reference to the school perception. In addition, it will enable us, on the one hand, to see the narratives, the approaches, and the viewpoints that are different and sometimes contradicting of each one of the two cultures, the Arabs and the Jews, and on the other hand, to see the common denominator between the cultures. It will present the educational perception of the school as another way that enables the other person to be heard, seen, and listened to, when this may contribute to the shared life between Arabs and Jews in Israel.

The article is organized in seven parts. The first part is the introduction. The second part focuses on the identities in Israeli society and the main components of the identity. The third part presents a short description of the Hand in Hand Association and the bilingual school in Jerusalem. The fourth part addresses the main national days noted both by the Arab population and by the Jewish population in Israel. The fifth part describes the national days in the schools in Israel, presents how Nakba Day and Land Day are expressed in the Arab schools and how Holocaust Remembrance Day, Memorial Day, and Independence Day are expressed in the Jewish schools. The sixth part depicts the national days in the bilingual school and addresses their process, contents, activities, and struc-

ture. In addition, this part describes the questions, thoughts, insights, and main topics that arise in these days. The seventh part presents the conclusion and the main points that arise.

2. Identities in Israeli Society

The identity is the person's perception of himself and the other's perception of him. In other words, the person's identity is personal since it expresses the individual's viewpoint relative to himself and relative to groups with which he identifies completely or partially. In addition, the person's identity is composed of affiliative elements, such as origin, sex, and ethnic nationality, and acquired elements, such as belonging to a sports team, youth movement, and place of residence, in addition to values, experiences, memories, and so on. Affiliative elements are inherent and for the most part immutable, while the acquired elements are subject to change in the person's life (Alferson, Dubi, & Stackerman, 2006). Hence, the identity is a collection of innate and acquired traits that shape the individual and make the individual separate and different from the other.

There are three main elements of identity in Israeli society: the civic component, the religious component, and the national component:

1. Civic component. This component emphasizes the connection between the individual and the country where he lives. In the State of Israel, for the most part the shared identity of the residents is the civic identity, which is the Israeli identity. It should be noted in this context that the State of Israel defines itself as a Jewish and democratic state (Peres & Ben Raphael, 2006).
2. Religious component. This component addresses the individual's attitude towards religion. The religious identity of the citizens of Israel is Jewish, Muslim, Christian, and Druse. Most of the citizens are Jewish, while the Muslims, Christians, and Druse are minorities (Alferson, Dubi, & Stackerman, 2006).

3. National component. This is a component in the identity that determines the affiliation and sense of belonging of the person to his nation in ethnic-cultural terms, or in other words, on the basis of a common ethnic origin, shared territory, tradition, culture, language, and others. The citizens of the state generally have a national identity (in ethnic-cultural terms) that is not shared by all the citizens of the state. The main national identities in Israel are:
- The national identity of Jewish society. This identity is shared by the national majority group among the citizens of Israel and emphasizes the tradition, history, and culture of the Jewish people along with a feeling of solidarity with all members of the Jewish people in Israel and abroad (Ben Rafael & Ben Haim, 2007).
 - The national identity of Arab society. This emphasizes the Arab national connection (pan-Arabism) in the Middle East. This identity is shared by the Arab citizens who see themselves as a part of the Arab nation, who have a shared history and a common language, which is the Arabic language (Alhaj, 2000; Peres & Ben Rafael, 2006).
 - The Palestinian national identity. This emphasizes the connection to Palestine as a historical and cultural homeland. Its expressions lie in the cultivation of the Palestinian Arab culture and tradition and in the holding of relations with members of their nation who live outside of the country (Alhaj, 2000; Samooha, 2012). This can be seen, for instance, in the research of Samooha (2012), who compared the definition of the identity of the Palestinian Arab minority in Israel in 2003 and in 2013 and found that these identities are undergoing a process of Palestinianization. Explanation can be found in the statements of Maruhana (1997), who thinks that the Palestinian Arabs who are citizens in Israel see their Israeli identity as only civic and formal and the Palestinian identity in the emotional and ideological context. He asserts that the emphasis of the Palestinian identity is an outcome

of the denial of national expression by the state because of the feeling of discrimination that the Palestinians feel in the areas of the state.

Hence it can be said that for the Jews the Israeli national identity is based on ethnic and genealogical characteristics and is anchored in an independent nation state. In contrast, the Israeli Arab nationalism is ethnic nationalism composed of the demand for a state and national territory, alongside a psychological sense of partnership that unites the members of the nation, when the identity of the Arabs ranges from a Palestinian identity to an Israeli identity (Haviv, Beckerman, & Bilu, 2011).

3. The Hand in Hand Association

The Hand in Hand Association was established in the year 1997 so as to promote and develop in Israel a society shared by Arabs and Jews. In addition to the core studies obligated by law, the special days and holidays are commemorated in the schools on the different dates on the calendar. All the schools are recognized and official, under the supervision of Ministry of Education. The Hand in Hand Association initiated a new model of bilingual education, in which both Hebrew and Arabic are used as the languages of teaching in the schools and are granted equal status, and Jews and Arabs learn together both languages. The basic idea underpinning the initiative is to create an equal bilingual educational environment so as to offer respect and equality to both groups and to enable children, parents, and educators in the school and in the community to develop continuous and equal relationships of cooperation, co-existence, and education for peace. The Hand in Hand schools emphasize the symmetry between the two languages in every aspect of the teaching in general and in the school perception in particular. Two teachers, an Arab and a Jew, together conduct most of the lessons. Two principals, a Jew and an Arab, stand at the head of the entire school. There is an effort to maintain numerical balance

among the students in every class, although in actuality this is not always possible (Amara, 2014).

The Max Rayne bilingual school in Jerusalem was the first of the educational institutions of the Hand in Hand Association. Today more than 696 students from pre-kindergarten to twelfth grade study in this school. In the school there are Muslim, Jewish, Christian, Druse, Circassian, and Armenian students, both religious and secular. The bilingual school is today divided into two schools, an elementary school (which includes a Young Division¹ and students in the first to sixth grades) and a secondary school (for students in the seventh to twelfth grades).

4. The Main National Days in Israel

This part addresses the main national days commemorated by the Arab population in Israel and the main national days commemorated by the Jewish population in Israel.

Main National Days of the Arab Population in Israel

- Nakba Day. Nakba Day is May 15 and commemorates the escape, expulsion, or departure of the Arabs from their homes and their becoming refugees, when the State of Israel was established in the year 1948 (Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2019; Masalha, 2008; Masalha, 2012). The word 'nakba' means catastrophe or disaster in Arabic.
- Land Day. Land Day is a day of a general strike of Arabs who are citizens of the State of Israel in protest of the "theft of Arab land" and the "Judaization of the Galilee" (expropriation of lands) by the government of Israel. The first time this strike was organized was March 30, 1976 (Center for Educational

¹ The Young Division is a special educational framework in which children in the younger grades are in a setting that recalls the preschool environment. Such an environment allows the children to make a gradual transition to the class and school framework.

Technology, 2006; Sorek, 2015). Over the years, this day became a commemoration of the national identity of the Arab citizens of Israel and of their demand for the equality of rights in the State of Israel. This day is expressed in rallies, demonstrations, and protests throughout the land (Benstein, 2005; Lamberger, 2019).

Main National Days of the Jewish Population in Israel

- Holocaust Remembrance Day. This day is dedicated to the remembrance of the Holocaust that the Nazis and their supporters inflicted on the Jewish people and to the remembrance of the acts of heroism and rebellion in those times (HaKnesset, 2019). On the eve of Holocaust Remembrance Day places of entertainment are closed, and special programs are broadcast on the radio and television during the day, and different ceremonies are held. In addition, the memorial siren is heard all around the country for two minutes (Handelman & Katz, 1995). Moreover, this day is anchored in the Holocaust and Heroism Remembrance Law, 1959.
- Memorial Day for the Fallen Soldiers of Israel and Victims of Terrorism. The purpose of this Memorial Day is the communion of the citizens of Israel with the memory of fallen soldiers from the pre-statehood era until today. This day is always held one day before Independence Day, on the fourth day of the Hebrew month of *Iyar*. In the year 1998 the government of Israel decided to add the commemoration of the victims of terrorism to the Memorial Day for the Fallen Soldiers of Israel and since then it is called Memorial Day for the Fallen Soldiers of Israel and Victims of Terrorism. The Knesset anchored this day in the Memorial Day for the Fallen Soldiers of Israel Law, 1963. This law determines that on Memorial Day a siren of two minutes will be heard, memorials and rallies will be held, ceremonies will be conducted in the military and in the education institutions. In addition, the broadcasts will be special for this day (Memorial Day for the Fallen Soldiers, Book of Laws 393, 1963).

- **Independence Day.** Independence Day is celebrated on the fifth day of the Hebrew month of *Iyar*. It celebrates the declaration of the establishment of the State of Israel (from the Declaration of Independence). This day is an official national holiday, a day of rest (Handelman & Katz, 1995), anchored in the Independence Day Law, 1953. It always is held the day after Memorial Day for the Fallen Soldiers of Israel.

5. The National Days in the Schools in Israel

This part is composed of two sections. The first section presents how Nakba Day and Land Day are expressed in the Arab schools in Israel. The second section presents how Holocaust Remembrance Day, Memorial Day, and Independence Day are expressed in the Jewish schools in Israel.

5.1. Nakba Day and Land Day in the Arab Schools

Different researchers assert that since the founding of the State of Israel there has been the exclusion of the Palestinian culture, national symbols, and collective memory from the public spaces (Agbaria & Jabrin, 2013; Jamal, 2005). The collective memory is composed of formative events such as Nakba Day, Land Day, and so on. According to the law, the schools are forbidden to commemorate Nakba Day or to refer to the disaster, and those who break this law (Ghanem, 2001) may lose their budgetary support (Zohar, 2010). In addition, schools are sent specific guidelines regarding the manner of behavior on Land Day. The research of Arar and Ibraheem (2016) found that the teachers and principals reported that they were compelled to come to the school on Land Day, while the Arab public in Israel (the High Follow-Up Committee) declares on this day a general strike. In addition, the Ministry of Education did not publish any guidelines regarding the commemoration of this

day. Furthermore, both on Nakba Day and on Land Day the study day is held as regular (Haviv-Barak, Beckerman, & Bilu, 2011).

It is possible to see that two contradictory forces influence the functioning of the Arab school on the topic of education for the national identity. The one is the state, which aspires to create a civic identity for Arab students and to define Israel as a Jewish and democratic state and in parallel limits the education for an Arab national identity. The second is Arab society, which asks the school to educate the students in the spirit of the values of Arab society and to emphasize the Palestinian narrative and the Arab national identity (Alhaj, 1995; Lavi, 2016; Osazki-Lazer & Jabrin, 2016; Vated-Huri, 2008).

5.2. Holocaust Remembrance Day, Memorial Day, and Independence Day in the Jewish Schools

The State of Israel is defined as a nation state. A nation state uses strategies of the building of the collective memory, such as the holding of remembrance ceremonies, so as to strengthen the individual's national identity (Connerton, 1989). The memorial ceremonies embody the basic principles of the nation and provide an emotional experience that awakens people's commitment towards the nation to which they belong (Haviv-Barak, Beckerman, & Bilu, 2011; Smith, 1991). The schools in Israel tend to hold ceremonies on Holocaust Remembrance Day and on Memorial Day, and these ceremonies are perceived as main ceremonies. The initiative for holding the ceremonies was that of the Ministry of Education. It appears that holding the memorial ceremonies in the schools is related directly to the perception of the state that sees itself as responsible for the shaping of the collective memory of all of its citizens. This, for example, can be seen in the statements of Dinor (1953). Similarly, Lumsky-Peder (2003) maintains that the state established from its beginning a memorial day ceremony in the education system, and the school is perceived as a main agent of memory on its behalf in the establishment of Israeli nationalism.

Ben Amos and Bat El (1999) maintain that the ceremonies on Holocaust Remembrance Day and Memorial Day in the schools address three dimensions. The first dimension addresses the continuum of the holidays and memorial days that occur every year in the spring, between the Passover holiday and Jerusalem Day. The second dimension speaks about how the ceremonies are a part of a series of educational events that address every memorial day separately. It appears that the first narrative context creates a feeling of continuity - the Jewish nation has existed from the exodus from Egypt until today - and emphasizes the cyclic nature of suffering and revival in its existence. Into this broad framework is woven the context of the second narrative, which is created by frontal teaching and a series of social-educational activities related to this day. The third dimension addresses the ceremony itself, which is held on Holocaust Remembrance Day or on Memorial Day in the school, which creates an independent micro-narrative. The micro-narrative created in the ceremony differs from ceremony to ceremony, because of the composition of the passages of prose and poetry typical of every school. The Ministry of Education enables the schools to choose the passages in the ceremony and their order of appearance. However, a similar "repertoire" of texts has formed in the different schools, since the passages were taken from special materials that were published by governmental and other organizations.

In addition, there is structural similarity between the Holocaust Remembrance Day ceremony and the Memorial Day ceremony in the different ways: the ceremonies begin at the same hour in most schools so that an identical time framework is created in which the ceremonies are held simultaneously. In addition, most of the ceremonies open with the siren. Furthermore, the military and religious influences on the ceremony are visible. The military influences are expressed in the definition of the event as a "formation" - the audience moves to stand "at attention" or "at rest", the trumpets blare, the flag is raised and lowered to half-mast. Moreover, the religious influences are apparent in the ceremony format, which are expressed in the lighting of candles and the reading of the Yizkor

prayers. (These Yizkor prayers are not taken from religious sources but are special versions, composed for Memorial Days). It is important to note that there is a difference in the texts and the prose between Holocaust Remembrance Day and Memorial Day, when for Holocaust Remembrance Day there is greater reference to the different experiences that the Jews suffered and even to personal experiences, while for Memorial Day there is reference to the fallen soldiers and the experience of bereavement emotionally. From these statements, it is possible to say that the ceremonies held in the Jewish schools in Israel on Holocaust Remembrance Day and on Memorial Day address the national identity of Jews and provide an emotional experience that reinforces the national belonging of the individuals (Ben Amos & Bat El, 1999; Lumsky-Peder, 2003).

6. National Days in the Bilingual School

In the bilingual schools, the national days of the Arabs and the national days of the Jews are commemorated. Land Day and Nakba Day commemorate the national identity of the Arabs, and Holocaust Remembrance Day and Memorial Day commemorate the national identity of the Jews. These days are known as challenging days, complex and tense in the school both for the teachers and for the students. This part will address the national days in the bilingual school in the year 2019 in the older grades, in the secondary school, which includes the middle school and the high school. In addition, this part will describe the process regarding these days in the school and will focus on the structure and content of the national days. Furthermore, it will address questions, thoughts, insights, and main topics that arise in these days. The description is based on observations, video films, and photographs undertaken in the course of the national days in the classrooms, in the workshops, in the ceremonies, and in the teacher meetings, including the documentation of school documents, teaching materials, and protocols, as well as the collection of information from the social networks

(which include the WhatsApp group of the teachers, emails, and the internal ICT system of the school).

The process began in the present year in a special teachers' meeting that the school management initiated on the topic of the national days. In this meeting, the teachers were asked to divide into teams, so that each team will be responsible for the management and organization of a certain national day. The team members held meetings among them and thought about the contents, activities, workshops, and daily process. They brought up ideas and discussed questions and thoughts that arose among them. Later, the teams shared with the teachers the program and the goals and even asked for their help in thinking about suitable activities and contents. In the continuation, the staff built the program and presented the agenda to the teachers using the social networks and a group or personal conversation. The teachers prepared the students in the classes ahead of time before the different national days.

6.1. Land Day and Holocaust Remembrance Day

Arab society in Israel tends to commemorate Land Day on March 30 every year. This year (2019) Land Day fell on the Sabbath and since the school is closed on Saturday, it was decided to commemorate Land Day on separate days for the middle school and the high school, because of the schedule of the high school and the planned activities for the high school students. Land Day was commemorated in 2019 in the middle school on Thursday March 28 and in the high school on Sunday March 31.

The structure of Land Day in the middle school. The students begin the day in the first lesson with the homeroom teachers, in the continuation they continue to workshops, and at the end of the day they conclude with a summative conversation and a summative activity with the homeroom teachers. The *content characteristics* of Land Day engage in the event and its historical influence on the Palestinian identity and the importance of remembering it, in addi-

tion to enable the identification with the wrong as Jews and Arabs. The workshops engaged in different topics and aspects of Land Day such as the group of the City Council that promotes the Judaization of Jerusalem, literary passages that refer to Land Day, Jewish solidarity in demonstrations of Land Day, Land Day in numbers, discussion of the topic of whether demonstration and protest are effective, transparent plunder of things, and more.

The structure of Land Day in the high school. The day opens with a shared meeting in the library of the high school students and the teachers who accompany them with two teachers, one Arab and one Jewish. After the meeting there were workshops in the homeroom classes. The content characteristics of Land Day in the high school are identical to the content characteristics of Land Day in the middle school. The meeting in the library engaged in the event and its historical influence on the Palestinian identity and the importance of the remembrance of the events. In addition, it addressed the emotional experience, the pain, the suffering, and the wrong that was done. The meeting spoke also about the aspiration to equality between Arabs and Jews and the shared life between the two. In the meeting Jewish and Arab students participated, as well as teachers who teach in the school who spoke, read texts, addressed events and topics related to Land Day, and presented different pictures of Land Day.

In the bilingual school they tend to commemorate Holocaust Remembrance Day on the official date set by the state, like all the Jewish schools and the events that are held around the country. This year it began on May 2, 2019.

The structure of the Holocaust Remembrance Day. The students begin the day on the first lesson with the homeroom teachers, in the continuation they continue to workshops, then there is a joint ceremony for all the school. The day ends with a summative conversation and summative activity with the homeroom teachers.

The content characteristics of Holocaust Remembrance Day address the remembrance of the Holocaust as a disaster so that such an event will never recur and so as to prevent it in the future, thinking

on how an individual in society can lead society to become a more caring and better society, thinking on how I as an Arab address the Holocaust and how I as a Jew feel on Holocaust Remembrance day in the bilingual school, seeing why it is important for both nations to learn about the Holocaust, understanding what are the lessons that can be learned from the Holocaust, and discussing the question of whether to forgive after such harm. In the workshops they engaged in different topics associated with Holocaust Remembrance Day, for instance, Jews and Arabs fought the Nazi together when they enlisted in the British military (the stories of Arabs who helped Jews in World War II), the denial of the Holocaust (the meetings of Neturei Karta² with Iranians), the problem of the refugees, solidarity in the Holocaust, concentration camps, and ways to commemorate the Holocaust, what a person had to do to survive in the Holocaust, love in the time of the Holocaust, and so on.

The Holocaust Remembrance Day ceremony. From a structural perspective, the ceremony opens with the siren that is heard throughout the country at a regular time and by standing at attention to remember the victims of the Holocaust. The ceremony is held in the school library. During the ceremony there is the use of different means, such as passages of music, the reading of texts, and the presentation of personal stories of children from the period of the Holocaust, in the background there are different pictures from the Holocaust that are shown in a presentation. The texts were read by Jewish and Arab children who read one after the other. In addition, two teachers read texts in Hebrew and Arabic according to their nationality. The text content also addressed the idea of the remembrance of the events of the Holocaust as a disaster, so that they will never happen again and so as to prevent them in the future, as well as to understand why the Holocaust is mentioned.

Questions and topics that arose in the conversation with the students on Holocaust Remembrance Day and Land Day among students in the

² Neturei Karta is a group of Ultra-Orthodox Jews that opposes secular Zionism and calls for the dismantling of the State of Israel.

seventh and eighth grades. The students bring up the following questions. Why is it necessary to commemorate Land Day? Why is it necessary to remember it? Is this day connected to students? Is it relevant also to the Jewish students? The students note that their peers who learn in the Jewish schools do not learn about Land Day. Similarly, the students ask the following questions about Holocaust Remembrance Day. Why is it necessary to remember the Holocaust? Is the Holocaust relevant to the lives of the students in general and to the lives of the Arab students in particular? The Arab students note that their friends who learn in the Arab schools do not learn about Holocaust Remembrance Day. The student A says, "My friends, who learn in the school in the village, do not talk about this at all in the lessons".

The conversations and discussions in the classroom addressed the meaning of the historical events and the importance of remembering them and their relevance to the students' everyday lives in general and to the lives of the other national group in particular. It would seem that the main reason that arises both regarding Land Day and regarding Holocaust Remembrance Day about the need to remember the historical events is so that they will not recur and so that they can be prevented in the future. In addition, the argument regarding the two days arises that it is important to understand the historical events and the pain and considerable suffering they caused, not only to the relevant national group but also to the other group, since these events can happen to every group and because it is necessary to identify the symptoms that led to the occurrence. Moreover, it appears that the memories, stories, and events on Land Day and on Nakba Day awaken a powerful emotional experience both in the relevant national group and in the other group. In addition, it is possible to see that the students and the teachers go from the topics and thoughts that arise on Land Day and on Holocaust Remembrance Day to other topics, related to the reality of their lives, and in this way they become relevant for them. For instance, on Holocaust Remembrance Day the student R, who belongs to the Arab sector, says, "It is sad that there are people like this, who do

bad to people who did nothing to them. Today too there is evil, in other things, and something must be done about it”.

The analysis of the programs, contents, and activities undertaken on Land Day and on Holocaust Remembrance Day shows that both of the national days refer to events, their meaning, and their historical significance regarding the national identity. In addition, the two days address the importance of the remembrance of the events, and they also enable the identification with the wrongs and even with the pain and suffering that these days represents, as Jews and as Arabs. In other words, the two national days focus on the experiences of personal pain and the feelings of suffering, which are in essence are human and even universal experiences and feelings, pertaining to each one of the participants, and thus they in essence strengthen the feeling that the experience of pain and grief are shared by all. This is similar to what is mentioned in the research on the Holocaust Remembrance Day ceremony (Lumsky-Peder, 2003).

Moreover, it appears that the structure of Land Day in the middle school is mostly identical to the structure of Holocaust Remembrance Day, with the exception that on Holocaust Remembrance Day there is a ceremony for the entire school while on Land Day there is a meeting for all the middle school. It is possible to see that on the two days the students begin the day with the first lesson with the homeroom teachers, in the continuation move to workshops, and at the end of the day hold a summative conversation with the homeroom teachers.

The examination of the characteristics of Land Day indicates that the structure of Land Day in the middle school is different from the structure of Land Day in the high school. However, the content characteristics of both are identical. In other words, both in the middle school and in the high school they discussed and engaged in identical topics. The examination of the characteristics of Holocaust Remembrance Day shows that the Holocaust Remembrance Day ceremony in the school is similar in certain elements to the canonical ceremonies held in Israel in general and in the Jewish schools in particular (HaKnesset, 2019). This can be seen for instance in that it

opens with a siren and it is necessary to stand during the siren. Furthermore, it appears that the ceremony was adapted to the nature and perception of the school, which is expressed in the ceremonies, pictures, and music passages and in that the ceremony did not include certain elements customarily found in canonical ceremonies (Ben Amos & Bat El, 2003), such as the conclusion of the ceremony with the state anthem, the recital of the Yizkor prayer, and the lighting of candles.

In addition it is possible to notice that the teachers in the school move from the personal stories and collective events to a more universal and broader approach. This can be seen, for instance, in the workshop held for students on Holocaust Remembrance Day, in which the teacher went from the problem that the Jews were refugees in the Holocaust era to a more universal problem, the global refugee problem. Similarly, on Land Day there was a workshop in which the teacher went from the demonstrations and protests of the Arabs on Land Day to a discussion on a universal topic, the effectiveness of demonstrations and protests.

6.2. Memorial Day and Nakba Day

The bilingual school has tended in recent years to commemorate Memorial Day and Nakba Day on the same day, on the Memorial Day for the Fallen Soldiers of Israel and Victims of Terrorism, although Arab society tends to celebrate the Nakba on another date. This is because, according to the school, many Arab students did not come to the school on Memorial Day, due to the feeling that this day is not connected to them and since Jewish students did not come to the school on Nakba Day in response to the absence of the Arabs on Memorial Day. Memorial Day and Nakba Day are the most challenging, complicated, and tense days in the school, since they address on the one hand both the Jewish national identity and the Arab national identity and on the other hand they speak about the main events at the basis of the dispute between the Jews and the

Arabs. Moreover, the course of this day is different from the other national days commemorated in the school since this is the only day in which the school population is divided into national groups in certain activities, for instance the single national forum and the single national ceremony.

The structure of the day. The day opens when all the students meet with the homeroom teachers in the classroom. Then the students divide into a single national forum for a single national conversation, and in the continuation a bilingual forum is held, in which all the class students hold a shared conversation of the two national groups, with their homeroom educators and the teachers who accompany them. Then, two ceremonies in parallel were held according to the national groups, the Nakba Day ceremony for the Arabs and the Memorial Day ceremony for the Jews. The day ends with a shared ceremony for Jews and Arabs.

6.2.1. Content Characteristics of Nakba Day and Memorial Day

The Single National Forum

In this forum there is a single national conversation. The goal is to allow every individual in the national group to express his statements and thoughts and also to share with the group members the experiences, stories, feelings, and personal pain, from an honest and true place, without being afraid of the harm to the feelings and emotions of their friends, members of the other national group.

This part will describe the Arab single national forum and the Jewish single national forum among the students of the seventh and eighth grades and will address the main things that arose.

Arab single national forum. The activity in the classroom addresses the feelings and emotions of the students on Nakba Day. The teachers hand out to the students pieces of paper and ask them to write their feelings and emotions about this day, and then they ask them to share their feelings with their friends. The students bring up feelings of sadness, anger, and frustration. A number of children

say that they do not know what their feelings are. Main responses that arose in the conversation are as follows.

The student A says, "I am angry that after the Jews went through the Holocaust they came to Israel and took Arab lands and because of this Arabs were killed". In the continuation of her words, the student L presents the word 'sadness' and says that "the Holocaust that the Jews experienced caused them to do the same Holocaust for the Arabs". The student H responds to her words and says to her, "The opposite, the Holocaust that the Jews went through prevents them from behaving in the same way".

The student G raises a question. "Why do we need to repeat every year the same topics and the same repertoire?" The student M responds to his words and notes, "This is boring and routine". A number of students agree.

In response to these statements, the teacher G asks the students. "Why do we commemorate Nakba Day every year?" One student responds, "To remember the pain and suffering". Another student says, "For our children and grandchildren". The teacher H adds and says to the students, "It is important to remember the Nakba for the Arabs who live in other places like Ramallah and Gaza". The teacher G adds, "It is important to remember for your children and grandchildren, It is important to remember the Nakba so that the coming generations will not undergo a similar experience". In the continuation, there is an in-depth discussion on the two topics raised: the relevance of the remembrance of the events of the Nakba to the students' everyday life and the importance of the remembrance of the events of the Nakba and their influence on the Palestinian national identity.

Moreover, in the conversation a main question arises that occupies both the students and the teachers. "Should Nakba Day and Memorial Day be commemorated on the same day or on separate days?" Some of the students want Nakba Day to be commemorated on a different day so as to connect to their personal pain while others want a shared day, since they assert that the joint meeting enables them to see and to hear their story and the other's story and in

addition to see their pain and the other's pain. Similarly, the teacher T shares the students in her thoughts and says, "This is an important question, which I too ask, and there is no unequivocal answer. On the one hand, every nation wants to be with its personal memory and to experience its pain, while on the other hand, the ability to see that both sides are in pain on the same day and that both have emotional and painful memories and personal stories focuses the reference and understanding that the two sides suffer and are in pain, and that the memories and the stories of both sides are real ..."

Jewish single national forum. The homeroom teachers in the classroom brought to the students different passages of information about soldiers who died or people who died in terrorist attacks. The students divided into groups and were asked to address the different questions from a collection of questions. In addition, the group discussed two guiding questions. First, how do they feel in the school on this day in particular? Second, what are the challenges they face on this day in the school?

A number of main responses that surfaced in the conversation are as follows. The student M says "it is hard for me to feel what the Arabs experienced since this happened to them". The teacher L asks the students a question following this statement and she says, "What is the difference between to understand and to identify?" The student M explains, "To identify is like two people are the same thing, equal, like they have the same story, to understand is like to listen to the story of another". The teacher L turns to her student in the continuation and tells her, "You can understand the Nakba but not identify with it".

The student D says "I want to remain on this day with my personal pain and less with the pain of the other". The student A responds and says, "I can hold my pain as a Jew and also understand the other's pain". The student S responds and maintains, "It is important that every side know the story of the other, and will even know the challenge of the other on this day and will understand the other's pain in addition to his pain". Another student continues and

adds, "Every side will see what are the memories, pains, fears, and challenges of the other side, in addition to these experiences, which he also has, and will understand that they both have, perhaps in this way he will calm down and will stop being afraid". In the continuation of these statements, the teacher Y asks, "Do the Arab friends need to know the story of Memorial Day? To know that it is hard for us". The student M says, "It is important to know the story of one another and to understand that it is hard for the other side, since I also know the other side, I expect from my friend to respect that it is hard for me like I respect that it is hard for him".

It is possible to see that the students on the one hand raise the need to deal with their personal pain on this day and on the other hand emphasize the importance of knowing the story of the other side so as to understand his pain in general and on this day in particular. Moreover, it is possible to notice the main question that recurs in this group, "Can they leave the personal pain on this day and see the pain of the other side?" An example of a response to this question can be seen in the statements of student A, who says, "When I am found in a feeling of pain, I think about the personal pain and it is hard to leave this pain". Another example of this question is seen in the responses of teacher M to the words of student A, "This is a difficult question of people who cope with pain in general, whether it is possible to leave the private pain and to see the pain of the other". She shares and adds, "We also, the teachers, ask this question".

Binational Forum

The students of the class hold a shared conversation of both the groups with their homerooms and their teachers. The goal is for every individual to listen to the pain of the other side, members of the other national group, even if this contradicts his personal pain. In addition, the aim is to find a way to reach the other side's pain and to attempt to include the difference between my pain and the other side's pain.

This part will describe the binational forum among seventh and eighth grade students and will address the main things that arose. The forum discussed a main question that also arose in the single national forum in the two groups: "Should Nakba Day and Memorial Day be commemorated on separate days or on the same day?" The main arguments that were posited among the students for commemorating these national days on the same day are as follows. First, the shared day enables the students to be there more for one another, it contributes to the feeling that both sides deal together with their personal pain and their personal story, since they can voice their story and present their pain to their friends and in parallel hear the other's story and understand the other's pain and in addition they can understand that every side has pain. This is in contrast to what happens in the single national schools, in which every side knows its memories and stories and is not exposed to the memories of the other side at all. In other words, each side is exposed to its narrative and not to the narrative of the other nation. Second, the shared day, as it is built this year, enables both single national conversation and binational conversation. It enables every group to identify with the pain and personal story, and it enables a shared meeting between the groups, and in this way it gives both sides the opportunity to attempt to understand the pain and story of one another. This is in contrast to the structure that was accepted in the past, which called for a binational meeting and binational conversation throughout the day. Third, the official argument of the school states that it is necessary to commemorate both national days on the same day since it is relevant to both national groups and prevents the failure to attend on the part of one national group.

Main arguments voiced against the commemoration of Nakba Day and Memorial Day on the same day are as follows. First, the commemoration of the national days on separate days will allow the individual to connect more to his emotions and feelings and to commune with his personal memories and personal pain. Second, separate days will allow the individual to depart from his personal pain and to see the other's pain, while on the shared day, the indi-

vidual is immersed in his personal pain and it is hard for him to leave his pain for the pain of the other. Third, the shared day speaks more about co-existence and less about the memorial day of each people.

It is possible to see that the teachers too address the question of whether to commemorate the national days on the same day or on separate days. For example, the teacher G tells her students, "The ability to hear the stories of others, to listen to the other's pain, and to know him on that day is already the beginning of a conversation, this does not mean that it is necessary to agree with what happened but to hear, to hear, and to continue to believe in your story, to understand that each story is separate and each pain is different". Another example of the reference can be presented from the statements of the teacher M, who maintains that the "arguments and conversations today enable us to speak. Sometimes the statements will be agitating and will be pressuring and we will say painful things, which will cause us to argue, but this will allow us in the end to hear one another and even to leave with a hug". Hence, both of them think that the shared day for the commemoration of the two national days develops a conversation between the groups and even allows the hearing of the other's story and the listening to his pain, despite the difficulty, the pain, and the feelings it causes in each one of those present and although the story of one group contradicts the individual's story.

Moreover, the group discusses the question of whether it is possible to respect the other's story. Is it possible to identify? It appears that most of the students maintain that they can respect the other's story. Some of the students hold that they can also understand the other's story, while some of the students assert that they cannot understand the other's story because of their memories and personal stories, which prevent them from doing so. It is possible to see that the teachers also discuss this question. The teacher M addresses the question and adds, "Although every group has its pain and its stories, it is necessary to think how to embark from the memories and personal stories for a shared path. In other words, to look at the

general picture, from an overall perspective, and to think how to depart from the existing memories to a shared path”.

The Nakba Day ceremony and the Memorial Day ceremony are held in parallel according to the national group.

The Nakba Day ceremony for Arabs. The ceremony is held in the library, and the attendees tend to come in black clothing, as customary on Nakba Day. The teachers hand out to the students and ceremony attendees a sticker for the remembrance of the events of the Nakba. Members of the Hand in Hand community participate in the ceremony. In structural terms, the ceremony opens with a presentation that shows pictures of Arab villages, homes, and communities before the Nakba and pictures of homes and villages after the Nakba. Throughout the ceremony there is the use of different means, such as passages of music, the reading of texts, some of which are read by the children one after the other, in a predetermined order, and personal stories of families are generally related by representatives of the families. In terms of the program, the ceremony addresses the following topics: the historical event and its impact on the Palestinian identity, reference to the personal pain and to the personal story of the families, reference to the Palestinian identity, and aspiration for a better future and co-existence in Israel.

The Memorial Day ceremony for the Jews. The ceremony is held in the amphitheater, and the attendees tend to come with blue pants and a white shirt. The teachers hand out to the students and the ceremony attendees, a sticker with the word Yizkor (remember) on it. Members of the Hand in Hand community participate in the ceremony. From a structural perspective, the ceremony opens with the siren heard all around the country, by standing during the siren, by saying the Yizkor prayer, and by lighting a memorial candle. Throughout the ceremony, there is the use of different means, such as passages of music, singing, and dancing, reading of texts, most of which are read consecutively by students, in a predetermined order, and the statements of the head of the parents' committee. The ceremony closes with shared singing of the participants of the state anthem (HaTikva – the Hope). The content of the ceremony addresses

the topics of the personal pain and the personal grief, the voice of the dead or the voice of the mourners, the personal stories of the soldiers and dead people, the aspiration for hope and a better future and co-existence in Israel.

The joint ceremony for Arabs and Jews. The ceremony is held in the sports hall, and members of the Hand in Hand community come to the ceremony. This ceremony is perceived as the main event in the school in the framework of the national days. In structural terms the ceremony opens with words spoken by two teachers, one Arab and one Jewish, who stand beside one another. Throughout the ceremony there is the use of different media, including film, presentation, passages of singing and music playing, different texts read in Hebrew and Arabic by children, in a set order, when for the most part there is an Arab announcer alongside a Jewish announcer (sometimes there are a number of announcers). In addition, the Christian Arab elementary school principal speaks in Arabic alongside the Jewish high school principal who speaks in Hebrew. The head of the parents committee, a Jew, speaks her words in Hebrew, followed by the head of the parents committee, an Arab, who speaks in his language. The ceremony ends with a new anthem written this year for the school, titled "To the Horizon" (for the celebrations of twenty years of the Hand in hand Association). Jewish and Arab students sing the anthem. In terms of content, the ceremony addresses the aspiration for a better future, for peace, and for a share life between Jews and Arabs in Israel. This ceremony concludes Nakba Day and Memorial Day.

Moreover, it is important to note that the school engaged in and discussed Nakba Day also on its official date, May 15, in a different format from the previous days. In the first two hours there were meetings with the homeroom teachers in the classes that addressed the Nakba in Jerusalem. Then, there were lessons with subject teachers, addressing the different topics connected with the Nakba, such as stories about Palestinian people before 1948. With the end of the national days, the school management initiated a meeting of all the teachers in the school to conclude the national days, which dis-

cussed experiences, feelings, impressions, conclusions, and recommendations.

The aforementioned statements indicate that the bilingual school attempts to develop a shared society for Arabs and Jews and to create a bilingual educational environment based on equal relations of cooperation and education for peace (Hand in Hand, 2019). In addition, the school allows for a meeting between two different national groups, which are found in a continuous conflict in the same country (Fraser, 2015; Kelman, 2018). In other words, the school enables the expression of the Arab narrative and the Jewish narrative, which are different narratives, which barely are expressed in a joint manner outside of the school walls in light of the Jewish Arab conflict (Bar On, 2011). Moreover, it creates a meeting and exceptional conversation between the two groups in the national days, which are complex days, difficult and tense for each one of the groups.

It is possible to see that both the teachers and the students from the two national groups hold onto the collective memories and collective perceptions that express their feelings and anxieties because of the historical events and experiences unique to their nationality, as expressed in the words of the student A from the Arab sector in the single national conversation. "I am angry that after the Jews went through the Holocaust they came to Israel and took Arab lands and because of this Arabs were killed". It is possible to see the holding onto the memories and fears and concerns also in the statements of the teacher G. "It is important to remember for your children and grandchildren. It is important to remember the Nakba so that the coming generations will not undergo a similar experience". However, the two national days, like Holocaust Remembrance Day and Land Day, emphasize the experiences of pain and the feelings of grief, which are universal and human experiences that pertain to all the participants and thus create convergence and cohesion of the participants around these experiences and feelings. This is similar to what is said in the article of Lumsky-Peder (2003).

In addition, the shared conversation enables the students and teachers from the two groups to express their personal story and

their pain regarding the events and their collective memories related to the Jewish-Arab conflict and in parallel to hear the story of the other and even to understand that the other has fears, which are enrooted in the events and collective memories associated with the conflict and in this way to go to a stronger and more balanced approach. An example can be seen in the following statements said in the Jewish single national forum by a student, B, from the Jewish sector. "It is important that every side know the story of the other side and even know the challenge of the other side on this day and will understand the other's pain in addition to his own". Another student adds in this context, "Every side will show what are the memories, pains, fears, and challenges of the other in addition to these experiences, which he has too, and will understand that both of them have, perhaps this way he will be calm and will stop being afraid".

In addition, it appears that the approach that exists in the school is to address every event, every story, and every pain separately, as standing in its own right. The individual can understand the other's pain and to respect the other's story, despite the individual's identification with his story. It is possible to see this, for example, in the statements of the teacher G in the shared conversation on Nakba Day and Memorial Day. "The ability to hear the others' stories on this day, to listen to the pain of the other and to know the other, this is already the beginning of the conversation, this does not mean that it is necessary to agree with what happened, but to hear, to hear, and to continue to believe in your story, to understand that every story is separate and every pain is different".

It should be noted that every national group sees the other national group as another group, separate, standing in its own right. This is seen in the words that the teachers and the students use, such as "the other" and "the second side". Additional terms that arose are "my story/our story/their story" as opposed to "the other story". This is in contrast to the declared goal of the school that aspires to equality and cooperation (Hand in Hand, 2019).

It is further seen that the school emphasizes the principle of symmetry as a part of the school perception (Hand in Hand, 2019).

This principle is expressed in the shared ceremony in the following ways: the school principals, a Christian Arab and a Jew, stand beside one another and say things in their native language, the Arab students read texts alongside the Jewish students, an Arab teacher reads alongside a Jewish teacher, the heads of the parents' committee, Jewish and Arab, speak, a presentation that is built from an Arab teacher and a Jewish teacher, and Jewish and Arab students sing together the school anthem that combines between the Arabic and Hebrew languages. Moreover, it is possible to see this symmetry in the binational forum, which was directed by Arab and Jewish teachers and in different ways. This is in contrast to the lack of symmetry that exists in the State of Israel between Jews and Arabs and even in the power relations between the two (Haviv, Beckerman, & Bilu, 2011) that derive from the very definition of the state as a Jewish state (Declaration of Independence).

Moreover, according to Beckerman and Bilu (2011), it appears that the Nakba Day ceremony and the joint ceremony underwent a process of structuring and formalization, and in them elements from the Jewish ceremony were adopted, such as the use of passages of music and song, different texts that address both the personal stories and the collective events, uniform clothing, a sticker to remember the events of the Nakba, and so on. Moreover, it can be said that like the Holocaust Remembrance Day ceremony, the Memorial Day ceremony is similar in structure and components to the canonical ceremonies in Israel, while its content is adjusted to the school approach. This is similar to the data that arise from the research literature, which indicates that ceremonies combine between the canonical perception and the perception of the school in Israel (Ben Amos & Bat El, 2003; Lumsky-Peder, 2003).

It is possible to see that Memorial Day and Nakba Day are the only days in the year in the school in which the school population divides according to national groups in certain activities, such as the single national forum and the single national ceremony, since this division contradicts the school perception (Hand in Hand, 2019). In addition, the change that occurred in the structure of the day en-

bles the integration between single national meetings and binational meetings, when on the one hand every national group is allowed to express freely its emotions and thoughts as well as its personal pain and on the other hand opportunities are created for a shared conversation and a shared meeting so that every individual will recognize the story and pain of the other side. This is in contrast to another format of the day, which was customary in the past in the school, in which shared activities and encounters for all the class students were held throughout the day, aside from the time of the ceremony, in which all the students divided into groups according to their nationality.

The analysis of the responses and statements of the teachers in the single-national forums and binational forums indicates that the teachers adopt a moderate and balanced approach in the guidance of the forums, which suits the school perception. Their statements and responses express the school thinking, which calls for cooperation between the nations. It is observed that they respond with restraint and balance, tolerantly and attentively to the students' words and to the mentioned events. They emphasize the importance of the listening to and the seeing of the two narratives and the pain of each side, without voicing extreme or contradictory opinions on the matter. For example, on the Arab single-national forum, when the group discusses the question of whether to commemorate Nakba Day and Memorial Day on the same day or on separate days, the teacher T shares her thoughts with the students and told them, "This is an important question, which I too ask, and there is no unequivocal answer. On the one hand, every nation wants to be with its personal memory and to experience its pain, while on the other hand, the ability to see that both sides are in pain on the same day and that both have emotional and painful memories and personal stories focuses the reference and understanding that the two sides suffer and are in pain, and that the memories and the stories of both sides are real ..." It is further seen that the teachers share with the students their questions, deliberations, thoughts, and emotions in an open and clear manner, and this can be seen, for instance, in both

the response of teacher T, as presented above, and in the response of teacher M, in the bilingual forum for the question of whether it is possible to leave from the private pain on this day and to see the pain of the other. She says, "This is a difficult question of people who deal with pain in general, whether it is possible to leave from the personal painful and see the pain of the other". She adds and shares, "Even we, the teachers, ask this question".

The question asked following this analysis is whether their responses and statements derive from their personal belief in the school's approach or whether because they work in the school they are required to align with the school perception. It appears that to answer this question it is necessary to conduct a more focused research study that will examine this question.

It is possible to see that the question "Should Nakba Day and Memorial Day be commemorated on the same day, on the Memorial Day of the Jews?" is addressed both by the students and by the teachers. There are a number of main explanations for commemorating Nakba Day and Memorial Day on the same day. First, the official reason is that the commemoration of the national days on the same day prevents one national group from not coming to school since this day is relevant to both national groups. Second, the shared meeting of the two national groups, in which each national group can voice its story and present its pain and in parallel hear the story of the other group and understand its pain, contributes to the feeling that the groups cope together with their personal story and with their personal pain and in addition allows them to see that the pain is felt by both groups. The main explanations against commemorating these two days on the same day are that each group wants to commune with its personal story and its personal pain, and in addition the individual is immersed in his personal story and his personal pain and it is hard for him to leave his pain for the pain of another.

However, it is possible to argue that the very meeting and conversation between the two national groups, between which there is ongoing conflict and tension in Israel, when they can talk with

one another and listen to one another, especially on complicated days such as the national days and in the period when the relations between Arabs and Jews in Israel are tense (Fraser, 2015; Kelman, 2018), and can embark on a shared path (which is expressed in the everyday life in general and in the national days in particular), gives hope for a better future and aspiration for a new reality and a different narrative, which may be built on collaboration and even on peace. The teacher M expresses this well: "Although every group has its pain and its stories, it is necessary to think how to embark from the memories and personal stories for a shared path. In other words, to look at the general picture, from an overall perspective, and to think how to depart from the existing memories to a shared path".

7. Conclusion

To conclude, it is possible to say that the bilingual school addresses the national identity of both groups, Arabs and Jews, and customarily commemorates the main national days of both groups. The bilingual school addresses both narratives, the Arab narrative and the Jewish narrative, as a part of its perception, with reference to the values of Arab and Jewish cooperation, the shared emphasis between the cultures, and the aspiration for co-existence and peace. Moreover, it is possible to see that on the one hand while the two groups hold their memories and collective events, their personal stories and personal pain, on the other hand they listen to the story of the other group and respect the pain of the other group, through the meeting and conversation between the two groups on the national days, which are known to be complicated and emotionally charged days for both. In addition, it appears that the school goes from the personal experiences and feelings to universal and human experiences and from the collective events and the personal stories to broader and more universal approaches, which pertain to both groups and are relevant to both of them, with the aim of strengthen-

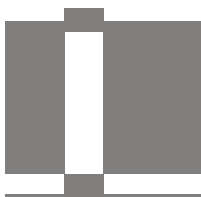
ing the common denominator of the groups. Furthermore, the perception of the school, which calls for an equal and shared life between Jews and Arabs, is expressed in the national days in different ways, such as in the preservation of the principle of symmetry between Arabs and Jews, in the perceptions, thoughts, and assertions of the students and the teachers, in activities, in workshops, in ceremonies, and in the teaching materials. Hence, it can be concluded that the school addresses both cultures, Arab culture and Jewish culture, with the recognition of the difference and uniqueness of each culture, and with the reinforcement of the shared values through meeting and conversation between the groups, which barely is expressed in the reality of life in Israel in light of the tense relationships between the Arabs and the Jews and the Jewish Arab conflict (Bar Or, 2011; Fraser, 2015; Kelman, 2018), and gives hope for a shared life between Jews and Arabs.

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Requirements for the teacher-therapist of persons with autism spectrum disorder – challenges for the new specialisation

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The text concerns the introduced standards for educating teachers-therapists of persons with autism spectrum disorder. This new specialisation in special pedagogy is meant to respond to the needs of autistic people, but its form is not fully responsive to real needs in this area.

KEY WORDS: autism spectrum disorder, teacher-therapist of autistic people

Introduction

This text was inspired by the Ordinance announced on 2 August 2019 on Education Standards in Preparation for Work as a Teacher¹ introducing a long awaited specialisation in education of special

¹ The Ordinance of the Minister of Science and Higher Education of 2019 on Education Standards in Preparation for Work as a Teacher, Journal of Laws 2019, item 1450, <prawo.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/DocDetails.xsp?id=WDU20190001450> [14.08.2019].

pedagogues concerning education and therapy of persons with autism spectrum disorder. The article is aimed at drawing attention to the need of thinking over the manner of developing professionalism of this group; it is intended to inspire reflection on the conception of not primarily education, but rather development of a teacher-therapist of persons with autism spectrum disorder, and the requirements will be high, since such special pedagogue is expected to, apart from substantive and theoretical interdisciplinary background, have many practical skills and internal predispositions.²

It is worth noticing that the term “autism spectrum disorder” – ASD; from the group of neurodevelopmental disorders has been introduced in the Act³ from the ICD-11⁴ classification not yet binding in Poland. It is a good step, since the standard does not become outdated upon implementation. Whereas, using by the legislator plural in “autism spectrum disorders” instead of “disorder”⁵ constitutes negligence; perhaps it results from being used to the previously used term “pervasive development disorders”.

The process of creating a specialisation in pedagogy aimed at autistic persons’ needs was very long. In 2012 educational standards

² M. Zaorska, *The Role and Place of a Special Pedagogue in Creating the Educational-Therapeutic Activity (Rola i miejsce pedagoga specjalnego w kreowaniu działalności edukacyjno-terapeutycznej)*, [in:] “Acta Universitatis Nicolai Copernici. Pedagogia XXVIII/2012. Humanities and Social Science” (“Acta Universitatis Nicolai Copernici. Pedagogika XXVIII/2012. Nauki Humanistyczno-Społeczne”) 2012, journal 405. Torun: Nicolaus Copernicus University in Toruń, <https://repozytorium.umk.pl/bitstream/handle/item/640/AUNC_PED.2012.001,Zaorska.pdf?sequence=1> [5.04.2019], p. 15.

³ ICD-11: <<https://icd.who.int/browse11/l-m/en#/http://id.who.int/icd/enty/437815624>> [15.05.2019].

⁴ WHO: <<https://www.who.int/classifications/icd/en/>> [15.05.2019]; implementation is planned for 2022; cf.: ICD-10. (2008). International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems. (Międzynarodowa Statystyczna Klasyfikacja Chorób i Problemów Zdrowotnych.) Tenth Revision. Volume I. World Health Organization. Centre of Health Information Systems, <https://www.csioz.gov.pl/fileadmin/user_upload/Wytyczne/statystyka/icd10tomi_56a8f5a554a18.pdf> [14.10.2019].

⁵ The “disorder” term will be used herein.

preparing for work as a teacher were introduced in the following specialisations: 1. Education and rehabilitation of persons with intellectual disability; 2. Typhlopedagogy; 3. Surdopedagogy; 4. Medical Pedagogy; 5. Resocialization and sociotherapy.⁶ However, a specialisation concerning education of teachers aimed at working with an autistic person was missing and it was introduced only after nine years as of recognising autism as a disability.

The aforementioned ordinance of 2019 stipulates that key areas on which the teacher's professionalism is constructed include: substantive and didactic-methodological background and internship, as well as support for the special pedagogue workshop (including voice emission, language culture, first aid, ICT technologies) and scientific research methodology. The first three included detailed description of requirements from a graduate consisting in knowledge, skills and social competences.⁷ The latter, in order to underline their importance, will be discussed as a separate part. Support for the workshop and methodology will be omitted, since they are universal for all addressees of the ordinance, not only teachers-therapists of autistic persons.

Substantive preparation of a teacher-therapist of persons with autism spectrum disorder

The substantive preparation concerns medical and psychological-pedagogical aspects. During studies, a candidate for a teacher of persons with ASD should gain knowledge and skills in the scope of medical basis of the disorder, anatomy and physiology of the nervous system in the context of developmental deficits and irregularities in autism, genetic disorders and multiple disabilities, psy-

⁶ The Ordinance of the Minister of Science and Higher Education of 17 January 2012 on Education Standards in Preparation for Work as a Teacher, Journal of Laws 2012, item 131.

⁷ The Ordinance of the Minister of Science and Higher Education of 25 July 2019 ..., op. cit.

chiatry and psychopathology and neurology, childhood diseases and selected medical problems concerning persons with ASD: diet, supplementation, pharmacotherapy. A student should also learn about tools to monitor health condition of children, diagnostic criteria, conditions and epidemiology of ASD, description of disorders in medical nosology classifications (ICD, DSM) and functional classification (ICF), as well as know the principles of differential diagnosis from hearing damage, intellectual development disorders and other disorders and disabilities.⁸ This part includes components of knowledge and skills, which each teacher-therapist of autistic persons should be equipped with sufficiently.

The knowledge and skills in the scope of the psychological-pedagogical basis and preventative-supportive measures constitute the grounds of neuropsychology, knowledge of other neurodevelopmental disorders. A student should learn about the psychological characteristics of persons with ASD at various development stages, as well as master the knowledge and skills in the scope of recognising early symptoms of autism and the meaning of physical environment, stimulation and sensor integration in autism. Furthermore, the knowledge on the characteristics of cognitive, emotional and social functioning in ASD, as well as regularity in speech, language and communication is extremely important. Moreover, the legislator stipulates that it is important to learn about the psychopedagogical diagnosis of autism spectrum students, in particular, functional profiles, as well as to learn about diagnostic methods and tools with a special consideration of the international "gold standard of diagnosis" ADI-R (*Autism Diagnostic Interview-Revised*) and ADOS (*Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule*). In the case of autistic persons, it is crucial to have knowledge and skills in the scope of the augmentative and alternative communication (AAC). Furthermore, the role of a computer, media and new technologies in therapy of persons with ASD is also indicated. Moreover, the legislator indicates the contents in the scope of psychological-pedagogical

⁸ Ibidem.

methods used in autism therapy with reference to the evidence base practice, including ESDM (the Early Start Denver Model). The need to acquire knowledge and skills regarding the principles of behaviour correction and solving educational problems is presented. Furthermore, a student should know various approaches to education and forms of work and therapy, including educational-therapeutic models and selected methods. Preparation to work with parents/carers of a person with ASD, including providing therapeutic support and psycho-social support to the family and person with ASD also in their adult lives and, therefore, knowledge on the employment-related problems is important as well.⁹

The contents included by the legislator in this part of the ordinance should be analysed critically. A question may be asked about the manner of awarding qualifications during studies to use ADI-R and ADOS tools by graduates. The guidelines explicitly state who can be deemed as a competent user of the discussed tools; those are solely the persons, who attended a relevant training authorising the results of their studies to be deemed as reliable and trustworthy.¹⁰

It is also not justified to specify any single therapeutic method in the ordinance (in this particular one – ESDM). There are many various interventions aimed at helping autistic persons¹¹, and a selec-

⁹ Ibidem.

¹⁰ A. Rynkiewicz, B. King, K. Kalisz, A. Słopień, M. Janas-Kozik, I. Łucka, *Competent Users and Standards of Using the Autism Diagnostic Interview – Revised ADI-R and the Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule Second Edition ADOS-2 (Kompetentni użytkownicy i standardy użytkowania wywiadu do diagnozowania autyzmu ADI-R (Autism Diagnostic Interview – Revised) oraz protokołu obserwacji do diagnozowania zaburzeń ze spektrum autyzmu ADOS-2 (Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule, Second Edition))*, [in:] “Clinical Psychiatry and Psychology” („Psychiatria i Psychologia Kliniczna”) 2018, no. 18(4), pp. 400–401, <<http://www.psychiatria.com.pl/index.php/wydawnictwa/2018-vol-18-no-4/kompetentni-uzytkownicy-i-standardy-uzytkowania-wywiadu-do-diagnozowania-autyzmu-adi-r-autism-diagnostic-interview-revised-oraz-protokolu-obserwacji-do-diagnozowania-zaburzen-ze-spektrum-autyzmu-ados-2-autism-diagnostic-observ?aid=795>> [14.08.2019].

¹¹ <<http://www.researchautism.net/autism-interventions/introduction-autism-interventions>> [14.08.2019].

tion thereof depends on the individual needs of a person with ASD. Such selection is extremely difficult for several reasons. It may rarely be determined exactly, what are the sources of changes in development. Effectiveness of various impacts in the case of particular persons is varied; symptoms may spontaneously improve. Creating properly controlled scientific studies may be difficult and sometimes even impossible. Scientists may have commercial interests in proving success of the intervention and persons engaged in the intervention may want it to work so much that they see a significant change where it is missing.¹² Significant problems are also connected with stipulating effectiveness indicators of the influences and measurement thereof.¹³ Nevertheless, all of the above factors do not mean that teachers-therapists do not have tools with which they can try to find a proper approach – before using in practice, each intervention should be assessed on the grounds of the quantity and quality of scientific evidence published in reviewed magazines or scientific publications. Unfortunately, knowledge and skills in this scope are not developed during pedagogical studies, which may be proved by the common use of the “Educational Kinesiology” method by Paul Dennison despite the scientific evidence proving its ineffectiveness.¹⁴

It is only a fragment of the problem, which is very complex and which concerns the relation between academic and non-academic education together with the commercial training market. It is a broad

¹² Ibidem.

¹³ E. Pisula, *Effectiveness of Therapy and Education in Persons with Autism Spectrum Disorder (Efektywność terapii i edukacji osób z zaburzeniami należącymi do autystycznego spectrum)*, <<https://www.slideshare.net/crisma61/efektywno-terapii-i-edukacji-osob-z-zaburzeniami-nalezacymi-do-autystycznego-spektrum-14291559>> [14.08.2019].

¹⁴ Neurobiology Committee of the Polish Academy of Science (Komitet Neurobiologii Polskiej Akademii Nauk), *Opinion on the Scientific Bases for the “Educational Kinesiology” Method and Consequences of Using it (Opinia dotycząca podstaw naukowych metody „Kinezylogii Edukacyjnej” oraz konsekwencji jej stosowania)*, Warsaw 2006, <<http://www.kneurobiologii.pan.pl/images/stories/opinia%20dotyczaca%20podstaw%20naukowych%20metody%20kinezylogii%20edukacyjnej%20oraz%20konsekwencji%20ich%20stosowania.pdf>> [15.08.2019].

issue – too broad to be sufficiently described in a short form of an article. However, it is worth paying attention to it, since it may constitute a barrier in meeting expectations of the standard’s creators. A special emphasis should be put on developing the skill of assessing methods critically by teachers-therapists.

Didactic-methodological preparation of a teacher-therapist of persons with autism spectrum disorder

In the part devoted to the didactic-substantive preparation of the ordinance, the meaning of knowledge and skills in the scope of the methodology of early support of development of a child with ASD and a multidisciplinary assessment of the level of their functioning, as well as planning the didactic-educational and therapeutic works with children and youth, as well as adjusting educational requirements to the needs of students with ASD, is underlined. It is indicated that knowledge and skills in the scope of co-organising didactic classes by a teacher supporting a student with ASD and other neurodevelopmental disorder, as well as specialist classes, comprehensive and interdisciplinary rehabilitation and methodology of individual rehabilitation classes, are important. During studies, a student is supposed to learn about the methodology of social skills’ trainings and activating classes in a school group, as well as learn to develop their interests and passions regarding counselling and supporting professional development of autistic persons.¹⁵

What may be above all noticed in the aforementioned part, is the “negligence” of adult autistic persons in the process of “planning didactic-educational and therapeutic work”, whereas, education of students with disabilities can be carried out until 20 years of age in an elementary school or until 24 years of age in a secondary school.¹⁶

¹⁵ The Ordinance of the Minister of Science and Higher Education of 25 July 2019 ..., op. cit.

¹⁶ The Ordinance of the Minister of National Education of 9 August 2017 on the Rules of Organising Education, Upbringing and Care for Children and Youth with

In accordance with the ordinance, passions and interests of autistic persons can be developed only in the aspect of occupational preparation. Taking into account the rigid and limited assortment of interests and behaviours of autistic persons, it would be appropriate to develop them, limit stereotypes, auto-stimulations or fixations, develop social skills or simply teach how to spend free time.¹⁷

Internship of a teacher-therapist of persons with autism spectrum disorder

The legislator stipulated that in the scope of knowledge, during internship a student should learn about and understand tasks' characteristics for a kindergarten, a school or an education system facility, as well as environment in which they operate, learn about their organisation, statute, plan of work and educational-preventative programme, as well as learn about the principles of providing children and students with safety at the aforementioned places and outside of them. A student should draw conclusions from observing teachers' work, their interactions with children and students and the manner in which they plan and carry out didactic, educational and care classes, as well as from observing the manner of integrating care and educational activities with didactic activities and from directly observing extracurricular care and educational activities of teachers, including, at duty hours during breaks between classes and organised trips of student groups. Then, the student should plan and conduct classes themselves under supervision of an in-

Disabilities, Socially Maladjusted and at a Risk of Social Maladjustment, *Journal of Laws* 2017, item 1578, Article 4, <<http://prawo.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/download.xsp/WDU20170001578/O/D20171578.pdf>> [15.08.2019].

¹⁷ For more information on this topic see: J. Buława-Halasz, *Social and Professional Rehabilitation of Autistic Adults. Phenomenographic Case with the Use of Social Theory by Pierre Bourdieu (Rehabilitacja społeczna i zawodowa dorosłych osób autystycznych. Studium fenomenograficzne z zastosowaniem teorii społecznej Pierre'a Bourdieu)*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2017.

ternship supervisor, as well as analyse, with the support of the internship supervisor and academic teachers, conducted classes in the scope of the psychological-pedagogical preparation, pedagogical situations and events observed or experienced during internship. In the scope of social competences, the student should be ready to effectively cooperate with the internship supervisor and teachers in order to extend their knowledge.¹⁸

If a student is referred to a facility, where the staff suffer from burnout, are tired, their activities are routine, not creative and stimulating the development of wards enough, then, a student might experience a reality shock, that is, disappointment related to the clash of expectations with reality.¹⁹ A student will not, in fact, be challenged with a statute or a plan of work, but with school culture, unwritten principles, a system of interdependencies and interrelations, working conditions, atmosphere, everyday life problems concerning didactics etc.²⁰ In order not to waste students' potential, it is worth sending them to undergo internship at facilities accredited by relevant authorities, which becomes a standard in European countries²¹, or where a professional supervision is carried out, aimed at increasing effectiveness of individual work, professional development, improving the quality of the facility's operations²², or which

¹⁸ The Ordinance of the Minister of Science and Higher Education of 25 July 2019 ..., op. cit.

¹⁹ C. Cherniss, *Professional burnout in human service organizations*. Westport, CT: Praeger, 1980; as quoted in: T. Chmiel, *Visions and (re)visions of Preparation for a Teacher Profession (Wizje i (re)wizje przygotowania do zawodu nauczyciela)*, Dolnośląska Szkoła Wyższa, Wrocław 2014, p. 78.

²⁰ T. Chmiel, *Visions and (re)visions of Preparation for a Teacher Profession (Wizje i (re)wizje przygotowania do zawodu nauczyciela)*, Dolnośląska Szkoła Wyższa, Wrocław 2014, p. 78.

²¹ H. Morgan, *Adults with Autism. Theory and Practice (Dorośli z autyzmem. Teoria i praktyka)*, Fundacja Wspólnota Nadziei, Krakow 2004, pp. 69-89.

²² D. Kohut, *A Therapist and His Personality in the Context of Occupational Burnout Syndrome (Terapeuta i jego osobowość w kontekście syndromu wypalenia zawodowego)*, [w:] *A Child with Special Needs in the Interdisciplinary Therapy (Dziecko o specjalnych potrzebach w kręgu interdyscyplinarnej terapii)*, ed. D. Kohut, Krakow 2013, p. 315.

at least uses other forms of development: mentoring, playing a role of a critical friend, colleague visitations, job rotation, analysis of critical events or keeping a professional journal.²³

Social competences of a teacher-therapist of persons with autism spectrum disorder – expectations vs. reality

According to the legislator, social competences of a graduate in the scope of substantive preparation can include readiness to auto-reflection on professional development and use of acquired knowledge to analyse pedagogical events; in the didactic-methodological scope include the ability to show empathy to children and students in need of support and assistance, professional resolution of conflicts in a class or peer group, explore pedagogical knowledge independently and cooperate with teachers in order to improve own skills and tools.²⁴

Therapists of autistic persons should have the following features: extensive knowledge, a high level of intelligence, good creative skills, high self-assessment, no tendency to authoritarianism and dogmatism, flexibility, a low level of neuroticism and fear, calmness, ability to empathy, internal feeling of control, significant professional experience, an extensive scope of contacts with autistic persons, appropriate perception of own assistance skills.²⁵ The profession of a teacher-therapist belongs to a group of assistance professions²⁶ and as such should be also characterised with joy of living,

²³ C. Plewka, *Conditions of Professional Development of Teachers (Uwarunkowania zawodowego rozwoju nauczycieli)*, Wydawnictwo Instytutu Badań Edukacyjnych, Warsaw 2009.

²⁴ The Ordinance of the Minister of Science and Higher Education of 25 July 2019 ..., op. cit.

²⁵ J. Buława-Halasz, op. cit., p. 292.

²⁶ Expert opinion *Psychophysical Burdens in Teaching Profession and Their Impact on Health (Obciążenia psychofizyczne w zawodzie nauczyciela i ich wpływ na zdrowie*, compiled under supervision of Professor Mariola Śliwińska-Kowalska, MD, PhD, Lodz 2004, <http://old.pomorskie.znp.edu.pl/nowe_pliki/ekspertyza.doc> [19.05.2019].

acceptance of change, a lack of conformism, openness, absorption of mind, self-awareness, authenticity, self-knowledge.²⁷ Unfortunately, the reality is different: "in a traditional public, state school employed persons are to a large extent tired with their work, resistant to changes, imitative, thoughtless, treating their role in a narrow manner, as a duty, achieving professional promotion levels only *to rest on their laurels* after obtaining the title of a chartered teacher. They fall into a routine, are attached to patterns and transmissive function of an educational institution, searching for the genesis of their limitations, but also hope for a change in external factors (changing the organisation of the school, educational law, provisions, curricula, requirements and duties), but not in themselves".²⁸ Answers to the question what it is like this is given in the next part.

Conclusion

Donald A. Schön states that some observers of social life noticed a tendency for de-professionalisation and among diversified professional groups such as: engineers, teachers, musicians, scientists, doctors or statisticians, the labour market weakened and the economic status and working conditions decreased. Furthermore, the author notices that the crisis in trust to professions and perhaps also the decrease in the professional image of self seems to be rooted in the growing scepticism regarding the professional effectiveness in broad understanding, a sceptical assessment of the actual contribution of professions in the prosperity of a society by providing competent services on the grounds of a special knowledge.²⁹ In this con-

²⁷ M. Davies, *Using the Resources of Own "Ego" by a Social Worker. (Czerpanie przez pracownika socjalnego z zasobów własnego „Ja”)*. Fragments of tenth chapter of the book by M. Davies entitled "The Essential Social Worker. A Guide to Positive Practice", Wildwood House, Gower House, 1985, [in:] *Social Work. Social Aid (Praca socjalna. Pomoc społeczna)*, selection and compilation by J. Kwaśniewski, Interart, Warsaw 1998, p. 111.

²⁸ T. Chmiel, op. cit., p. 78.

²⁹ Schön D.A., *The reflective practitioner. How professionals think in action*, Basic Books, London and New York 1983, p. 13.

text, it is worth mentioning the text written by Amadeusz Krause published in 2014 in *Rocznik Pedagogiczny* "About Deterioration of Pedagogy - Deliberations on the Grounds of Experience of PKA Member" („O psuciu pedagogiki - rozważania na kanwie doświadczeń członka PKA") and his deliberations as a Member of the Polish Accreditation Committee³⁰ regarding the quality of exercising this scientific discipline. Both, after over 35 years of writing the book by Schön and after several years of writing the text by Krause, both works remain valid, which is confirmed with the report of the Supreme Audit Committee (NIK) entitled "NIK about the preparation to the work as a teacher" from March 2017.³¹

NIK underlines the lack of mechanisms and tools to select candidates to work as a teacher and, in particular, a lack of universities' recruitment criteria, not monitoring usefulness of candidates to the profession during their education and the professional promotion procedures not fulfilling the screening role. Negative selection to the profession of a teacher is more and more visible - over nine percent of the total number of persons accepted at faculties with teacher specialisations are persons with the lowest results obtained at the secondary school final exam (between 30 and 49 points). The number of persons who fail to defend their dissertations and Master's theses on time is gradually growing (an increase by 10 percent in the years 2012-2015). Education of future teachers is also conducted by many various institutions which generates a risk of insufficient quality of education. To a certain extent it can be prevented with the provision in the ordinance on the educational standards of teachers that "education at postgraduate studies is undergone solely by persons participating in the education preparing to work as a teacher conducted by a university at first or second degree of studies or long-cycle Master's degree programme, at a faculty correspondent

³⁰ The Polish Accreditation Committee (PKA) - an independent institution acting to the benefit of providing and improving the quality of education at Polish universities, <<http://www.pka.edu.pl/misja/>> [05.05.2019].

³¹ The Supreme Audit Committee: <<https://www.nik.gov.pl/aktualnosci/niko-przygotowaniu-do-zawodu-nauczyciela.html>> [11.04.2019].

to the scope of education at postgraduate studies".³² Until now, it was a standard to conduct postgraduate studies with various specialisations of special pedagogy by universities which, at the same time, did not have first and second degree of studies in special pedagogy in their offer (and thus, relevant staff etc.). In the NIK's opinion, it would be also necessary to consider introducing an external state exam that would verify acquired teachers' competences in an objective manner. This type of solution is used in, among others, Germany.³³

It is obvious that one should be content with creating a new specialisation in special pedagogy aimed at special needs of persons with autism spectrum disorder, however, the issue of requirements from a teacher-therapist – formulation and procedure of enforcement thereof – remains open.

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³² The Ordinance of the Minister of Science and Higher Education of 25 July 2019..., op. cit., p. 70.

³³ T. Chmiel, op. cit., p. 106.

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Child with Down Syndrome in a peer group

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The attitude towards people with disabilities has changed over the last century. Both deinstitutionalisation as well as integration and normalisation allowed many people with intellectual disabilities to improve their social situation. An example of such a systemic solution supporting the development of disabled persons are integration groups. The subject of this article is a report from a pilot study on the functioning of a group of children with Down syndrome within an integration group. The objective of this study was the presentation of the reasonability of inclusion within the integration group of children with Down's Syndrome (with the homogeneous dysfunction). Observation and sociometric tests covered children with Down syndrome from two integration groups from kindergarten no. 109 in Wrocław, Poland. I consider the essence of integration, following A. Maciarz, to be the feeling of social bonds experienced by a disabled individual, a sense of belonging to a group, as well as the conviction that one is accepted by it, despite the fact that the standards adopted by their community are not always and not fully met by them. The research was carried out for six months in a kindergarten where I was a special educator.

KEY WORDS: peer group, Down syndrome, integration

Inclusive education is presently one of the most frequently used forms of education implemented in case of disabled children (as well as other children with special education needs). Inclusive edu-

education is the execution of children's education at a public school, however with the assumption that the school system adapts itself to the individual tempo of studying, the skills and the capabilities of the child, as opposed to integration education that assumes the adaptation of the capacities of the disabled child to the challenges of the education system, similar for all children. Inclusive education stresses diversity and flexibility related to responding to the needs and capacities of the individual pupils. Inclusive education requires a departure from the medical model of disability that assumes perceiving disability as a problem, a lack of standard, and undertaking efforts for the disabled person to function in a manner similar to „normal”, understood as the functioning of fully-able persons. This concept is based on the social model referring to disability as the effect of functioning of barriers created by society (e. g. legal, economic, architectural ones). The assumption of this model shifts the gravity of responsibility for the reduction of the effects of functioning of barriers on to society, as opposed to expecting disabled persons to adapt and learn how to function in a world of barriers¹. In the process of social integration of children, a significant role is played by the establishment of emotional ties between them that result in positive attitudes and positive behaviour. The inclusion of a specific person is effected by members of a group and not by any person from the outside that would make an effort to achieve this. Of importance are ties between the members of the group. The experience of Another takes place, in case of children, through fun and joint activities. Phenomenographers treat experience as being part of what it is to be human in the world. In their opinion, man is a part of reality within which they function and which they at the same time create². Play activity or doing common tasks support development that takes place within the scope of human interac-

¹ M. Jonczy-Adamska, *Edukacja włączająca/inkluzyjna*, <<https://rownosc.info/dictionary/edukacja-waczajaca-inkluzyjna/>> [19.08.2019].

² A. Jurgiel-Aleksander, *Fenomenografia i jej poznawcze konsekwencje w świetle projektu na temat doświadczeń edukacyjnych dorosłych. Refleksja badacza*, „Rocznik Andragogiczny” 2016, no. 23, p. 270.

tion. B. Kaja suggests such a concept, explaining that making a special kind of interaction is superordinate within the process of supporting development: an interaction between two individuals, between an individual and a group or between groups³.

The article analyses the experiences of children within the context of how they enter the functioning of a group, including playing together (the most fundamental form of activity and cognition of the world by a child at preschool age), task-based situations and guided activities. The selection of the topic and direction of research was based on the experience of difficulties and capacities of functioning of children with Down syndrome in a peer group. The role of special educator, hence, daily accompanying of children, gave rise to conclusions that support for development is only possible through ties between children and significant persons, meaning, peers with Down syndrome and fully able peers as well as teachers, and through the choice of appropriate methods of work (adapted to the specific properties of development and individual capacities, and not used on the basis of commonly accepted efficiency).

The functioning of persons with intellectual disabilities is very diverse. It may be determined by several factors: in children with the same intelligence quotient, a developmental delay can have a different gravity; differences between children from the upper and lower limits of ranges are significant due to the dynamics of development and maximum capacities; the image of functioning of a child is additionally modified by disturbances to the dynamics of nervous system processes characterised by diverse characters and intensities. The enormous differences in the functioning and susceptibility to the applied methods of therapeutic work stem from the diverse, frequently multi-factorial etiology of intellectual disability. In case of the moderate, grave and deep levels one should additionally consider the presence of specific clinical forms of disability, whereby the clinical image is frequently complicated, as disabilities may be

³ B. Kaja, *Psychologia wspomagania rozwoju. Zrozumieć świat życia człowieka*, Gdańskie Wydawnictwo Psychologiczne, Sopot 2010, p. 28.

accompanied by additional burdens in terms of illnesses and compounded dysfunctions⁴.

Children with Down syndrome are characterised by a certain specific profile of development that significantly influences the participation of children in the life of the peer group, in their engagement in play or task-based situations. Characteristic traits of this profile are hypotonia (weak muscle tension influencing manual and motor skills as well as articulation), sensory deficits (in terms of sight and hearing), deficits in short-term auditory memory, difficulties in terms of speech and language, slower expressive vocabulary development pace, lexical and syntactic shortcomings, shorter attention span, cognitive deficiencies, difficulty making generalisations, tying knowledge with that gained formerly as well as its storage and understanding. Specific positive properties of the development profile include the skill to learn based on the usage of the visual canal, the ability to use and learn signs, gestures, visual cues and writing⁵.

Correct social functioning is related to the fulfilment of many significant needs that may only be satisfied within a social group. These needs include: the need of affiliation (connection with others), security, emotional contact, activity, approval and acknowledgement, self-achievement, subordination and domination. The failure to satisfy these needs gives rise to behaviour disturbances, threatens mental health, brings about very grave effects not only for individuals but also for their social environment⁶.

Reflections of parents of children with Down syndrome frequently show, on the one hand, fear and pain due to these children

⁴ K. Kaczorowska-Bray, *Zaburzenia komunikacji językowej w grupie osób z niepełno-sprawnością intelektualną*, [in:] *Diagnoza i terapia logopedyczna osób z niepełno-sprawnością intelektualną. Teoretyczne determinanty problemu*, ed. by J.J. Bleszyński, K. Kaczorowska-Bray, Wydawnictwo Harmonia Universalis, Gdańsk 2012, p. 38.

⁵ A. Żyta, *Życie z zespołem Downa. Narracja biograficzne rodziców, rodzeństwa i dorosłych osób z zespołem Downa*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2011, p. 38.

⁶ A. Strzelecka, *Korygowanie zaburzeń rozwoju społecznego w klasie szkolnej*, Ośrodek Doskonalenia Nauczycieli, Katowice 1987, p. 26.

being threatened by rejection by peers and by isolation, but on the one hand, the will to release the child to function among fully able children⁷.

The dictionary of sociology and social sciences by M. Tabin defines a peer group as „a group of people sharing specific common traits such as age, ethnic background or profession, who perceive themselves and are perceived by others as a separate social group. A peer group has its own culture, symbols, sanctions and rituals. Every new member must get to know them and accept them in the socialisation process, whoever would not adapt to the standards of the group may be excluded from it”⁸. T. Pilch and I. Lepalczyk in turn describe a peer group as a social body distinct from others not only due to the demographic property of age, but also due to the type of bond, close participation characterised by mutual approval. This is most commonly a primary group, however, there exist rich institutional forms of peer groups⁹. Among other definitions of peer groups included in the psychological category, in which the existence of the group is conditioned upon psychological aspects – such as a bond, interaction, values, one can provide the definition by J. Turowski. He believes that “the most significant constitutive component of a social group are common values that the members of the group achieve or aim to achieve through their cooperation”¹⁰.

C.H. Cooley defines a peer group as a primary group: „As primary groups I consider groups characterised by cooperation and direct ‘face-to-face’ contact. They are primary in many respects, foremost, however, due to their fundamental role in the shaping of the social nature and the ideals of an individual. The psychological

⁷ K. Ćwirynkało, A. Żyta, *Dlaczego edukacja włączająca nie zawsze jest najlepszym rozwiązaniem? Doświadczenia i plany edukacyjne wobec dzieci z zespołem Downa w relacjach matek*, „Szkoła Specjalna” 2014, no. 3, p. 194.

⁸ Term: peer group, [in:] *Słownik socjologii i nauk społecznych*, ed. by M. Tabin, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2004, p. 110.

⁹ T. Pilch, *Grupa rówieśnicza jako środowisko wychowawcze*, [in:] *Pedagogika społeczna*, ed. by T. Pilch, I. Lepalczyk, Wydawnictwo Żak, Warszawa 1995, p. 85.

¹⁰ J. Turowski, *Socjologia. Małe struktury społeczne*, Towarzystwo Naukowe Katolickiego Uniwersytetu Lubelskiego, Lublin 1999, p. 83.

result of direct contact is a sort of unity of individuality into a complete whole, whereby the common life and common objectives of the group become, at least to a certain extent, become the content of an individual. This whole may most likely be simply defined by the pronoun *we*; it assumes a level of affinity and mutual identification, the natural expression of which is the phrase “we”. One lives in a feeling of bond with the whole and this feeling describes their main effort¹¹.

Methodological assumptions of the study

One cannot understand another without understanding the world in which they live¹². Watching integration peer groups, I described for myself the objective of getting to know the role of the group, the value of another, mutual references for the purpose of support for social development of children with Down syndrome. The concept of social competences covers many diverse forms of behaviour and skills. H.R. Schaffer assumes that social competences are “efficiency in interaction”, assessed depending on the age of the child, the culture in which they live, their situation and objectives¹³. A. Matczak defines social competences similarly; she writes that it is a disposition conditioning the efficiency of functioning in social situations, with assessment criteria that could on the one hand be the achievement by the individual of their own objectives, on the other hand – the conformity of their expectations with social expectations. In such a perspective, it is assumed that the core of social competences entails the reconciliation of one’s own interests with

¹¹ T. Pilch, *Grupa rówieśnicza rówieśnicza jako środowisko wychowawcze*, [in:] Pedagogika społeczna, ed. by T. Pilch, I. Lepalczyk, Wydawnictwo Żak, Warszawa 1995, p. 85.

¹² B. Kaja, *Psychologia wspomagania rozwoju. Zrozumieć świat życia człowieka*, Gdańskie Wydawnictwo Psychologiczne, Sopot 2010, p. 13.

¹³ R.H. Schaffer, *Psychologia rozwojowa. Podstawowe pojęcia*, transl. by R. Andrzejko, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, Kraków 2010, p. 181.

social interests. Social competences are “complex skills conditioning the efficiency of coping in specific social situations, acquired by an individual in course of social training”¹⁴. The concept of “coping” covers the transmission and reception of messages through verbal and non-verbal behaviour¹⁵.

As for the conditions for development of social competences, A. Matczak indicates that training social skills is key. Its “intensity depends on personal and temperamental factors”, and efficiency – on intelligence, in particular social intelligence that constitutes a component of emotional intelligence¹⁶. Kielar-Turska states that pre-school age is particularly significant for the development of social competences, and children who have during this age problems with communicating their needs, recognising fundamental emotions and finding solutions to interpersonal conflicts will also, at a later point, have greater difficulty making relations with others and will utilise the conditions for education created by the school to a lesser extent¹⁷. Participation in the life of a group is fundamental for social development; no therapist or private caretaker will compensate for the significance of a group.

My objective is not any sort of analysis of all skills making up social competences. The functioning of children with Down syndrome will be analysed on the plane of their co-operation with peers during play and task activities.

Following J. Apanowicz¹⁸, who believes that social sciences utilise teleological (objective-related) explanations, I also assume such

¹⁴ A. Matczak, *Kwestionariusz Kompetencji Społecznych. Podręcznik*, Pracownia Testów Psychologicznych, Warszawa 2001, pp. 5–7.

¹⁵ U. Jakubowska, *Wokół pojęcia kompetencja społeczna – ujęcie komunikacyjne*, „Przegląd Psychologiczny”, vol. 39(3–4), 1996, p. 39.

¹⁶ A. Matczak, *Kwestionariusz Kompetencji Społecznych. Podręcznik*, Pracownia Testów Psychologicznych, Warszawa 2001, p. 7.

¹⁷ M. Kielar-Turska, *Średnie dzieciństwo – wiek przedszkolny*, [in:] *Psychologia rozwoju człowieka*, ed. by J. Trempała, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa, p. 221.

¹⁸ J. Apanowicz, *Metodologia ogólna*, Wydawnictwo Diecezji Pelplińskiej BERNARDINUM, Gdynia 2002, p. 32.

an explanation in my research. The author stresses that the teleological explanation entails the indication of an objective, to which an event or a process would or should lead. An auxiliary question for an attempt at a teleological explanation is "Why?". With respect to my own design of research, I would like to find an answer to the question, what conditions facilitate cooperation between children and what particularly simplifies or could simplify contacts between children with disabilities and children within the developmental norm.

Research organisation and area

A pilot project of inclusive education for children with Down syndrome has been ongoing in Wrocław, Poland, since September of 2009. The idea was initiated by parents from the Lower Silesian Association for Persons with Down syndrome *Razem* (Together). The project was approved as a systemic solution in the year 2010 (one group sees the participation of 3–5 children with a homogeneous disability – Down syndrome). The implementation of the inclusive education programme at selected facilities in Wrocław stemmed from knowledge about historic difficult education paths of children with Down syndrome at integration facilities¹⁹. Studies on the capacities of children with Down syndrome and occasional observa-

¹⁹ One may conclude, on the basis of discussions with parents of children with Down syndrome active with the Association for Persons with Down Syndrome that the children who remained in a peer group since preschool were the only disabled children to lose the bonds that could be formed between group members (parents of children as well as their fully able peers) with them moving on to a further stage in education. These children felt very lonely, with age they felt ever more strongly the rejection by the peer group. There are known cases of children who experienced depression in their teenage years and continued individual learning at home. A. Żyta discusses this problem in their research on the memories and experiences of adults with Down syndrome, [in:] *Życie z zespołem Downa. Narracje biograficzne rodziców, rodzeństwa i dorosłych osób z zespołem Downa*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2011.

tion of the functioning of children in peer groups led to conclusions that social skills of children with intellectual disabilities expand through mimicking peer behaviour (diverse studies on this topic are described by Andrzej Twardowski²⁰).

Mr Jarosław Pieniak became the project coordinator (a parent of a child with Down syndrome). It is worth noting that he was the sole Pole to receive in the year 2010 the World parent of the year 2010 award from Down Syndrome International affiliated with the UN, for creating in kindergartens in Poznań of integration groups for children with Down syndrome. Integration groups with homogeneous disability (Down syndrome) were established at two public preschools: Preschool no. 8, address Suwalska 5, and preschool no. 109 at Nowowiejska 80a (facilities picked by parents and the Wrocław Department of Education). The 2009/2010 academic year saw meetings (in which I participated as well) of teaching personnel of preschools and headmasters in the project, parents and representatives of the Department of Education, during which conclusions were discussed from observations of the functioning of children within their peer group. I conducted my studies at preschool no. 109 (May 2011 – July 2012), where I was special educator. The data presented in this article apply to research conducted between May and June of 2011 (90 observations described in sociograms).

The selection criteria for children on the basis of the level of functioning were as follows:

The study included children that fulfilled the following criteria:

- age: four to seven years (data taken from the children's documentation);
- ability to communicate verbally (using words or simple sentences) or the ability to use non-verbal communication (gestures, facial expressions) (data taken from the children's documentation);

²⁰ A. Twardowski, *Kształcenie dialogowej kompetencji komunikacyjnej u uczniów niepełnosprawnych intelektualnie*, Wydawnictwo Instytut Pedagogiczno-Artystyczny, Kalisz 2002, pp. 11–40.

- intellectual development level: minor or moderate intellectual disability or an undefined intelligence level (data taken from the children's documentation);
- child diagnosis: Down syndrome (data taken from the children's documentation: medical certificates, psychological and paedagogical consultation facilities);
- participation in specialist activities as part of early interventions and development support (The Wrocław Facilitation Model Programme).

Selection criteria for children on the basis of the organisational framework they are a part of:

- similar housing conditions of the pre-schools,
- pre-school teachers supported by special educators,
- training offer spanning the specifics of development and work with disabled persons for teachers and special educators,
- financial support provided by the Lower Silesian Association for Persons with Down syndrome (purchase of aids to work with children suffering from Down syndrome).

For two months (May–June 2011) I observed daily nine children with Down syndrome (selected in line with the criteria above), during free play and organised activities. In order to assess their psycho-social functioning I used the "Progress Assessment Chart" (PAC) survey by H.C. Gunzburg to assess the social development progress²¹.

The analysed children were five years of age (three girls, six boys). In terms of independence, they exhibited a low level. Half of them needed help to use utensils. All children had mastered the ability to move about. Some of them required holding onto a hand rail or the hand of an adult when moving along stairs or covering larger distances, e. g. during a walk. There were also children that reacted with resistance to the necessity of covering a longer distance

²¹ T. Witkowski, *Metody PAC i PAS w społecznej rewalidacji upośledzonych umysłowo*, Centralny Ośrodek Metodyczny Poradnictwa Wychowawczo-Zawodowego Ministerstwa Edukacji Narodowej, Warszawa 1988.

on foot (due to limited motor development, being accustomed to travelling in a trolley/ pram/ car, being carried by parents). A second extreme situation was moving away or running from the teacher, a peer and treating this as play. Toilet help in the area of verbal indications of the need to go and being able to take care of it themselves were exhibited by four children. The remaining children used nappies, they exhibited no set regularity in terms of their natural needs, and needed help when taking care of themselves at the toilet.

In the area of communication, I was able to make eye contact with all children, and it also constituted a communication channel (all children communicated their needs or emotions with looks). Almost all children exhibited an exchanging, co-existing mimic dialogue. At different times, the children were able to share a common field of attention. All children utilised their own vocalisations. The verbal channel (individual words) conditioned better openness to interaction with peers in half of the children. All children reacted with invigoration when hearing their names, utilising complex reactions depending on their psychological and physical capacities: They repeated their names, they pointed to themselves, they smiled, directed their look towards the person calling them. They did not provide their name when asked to do this, they did not use personal pronouns. The majority was able to request activities (e. g. jumping on the ball), request items, e. g. toys that were placed higher (some of them used gestures to indicate, some called out "give" and some children only - or even - directed their gaze onto the item that they wanted to acquire), or alternatively they used gestures. If they did not understand something, they would communicate this with a questioning look. They did not have orientation in terms of relations of space and time. When listening to longer and more complex stories they would defocus quite quickly; they needed images to stay attentive to the story, to understand it and to recall it later.

In terms of social skills, one could observe diverse levels of functioning. All of them had in common the ability to focus their attention on the partner. The children reached out their hands towards the other person if they had the need to attract attention to some-

thing or themselves; they smiled. The children reacted with facial expressions to suit the observed, experienced events (with clear emotionality, e. g. joy, sadness). Responding, the children waved good-bye and in greeting. During play, dominant were forms of parallel play; beside other children, without interaction. The children would frequently stray away from the group to organise their fun alone, e. g. in a corner – the kitchen corner or the book corner. There were also children who would stand beside other children and just watch. Association play emerged (with outside support), when children would play with other children together, however, without subdivision into tasks. Simple home activities, such as e. g. cleaning up toys, throwing trash to the bin, usually took place by way of mimicking a model. All of them also had in common the express expectation of approval for good behaviour. The majority of children expressed satisfaction and invigoration with music (singing and dancing), some mimicked the gestures of their peers or the teacher that accompanied musical and motor play, others sang with their own vocalisations or individual syllables. All would participate in simple play with a ball (rolling it in alternate). Tabletop games, e. g. tiddlywinks, Ludo, were only objects of observation.

During activities, most children exhibited understanding of simple commands, however, their fulfilment can be described as selective. The children were significantly intensely engaged when browsing children's books with a peer or a teacher; at that time, the children used numerous vocalisations and responded to new images emerging on the pages through facial expressions. They reacted with much invigoration to images they knew particularly well (e. g. of animals). Their manual dexterity and motor skills were weakly developed areas. The children weren't eager to reach for crayons or coloured pencils (drawings in the scribbling stage). They preferred painting on large sheets of paper. The children required much more time and many more attempts to start and execute a task than their peers did. Their spontaneous activity was dominated by schematic play with objects, playing with the same vehicle, with the same doll, browsing the same book.

Participatory observation was my primary research method. The observation of social behaviour, in particular co-operation, was transferred to unordered sociograms. Such sociograms are created for small groups; they help the researcher to fairly quickly find their way within a set of choices²². When constructing a sociogram, I place the child I am observing, marked as X, in the centre of a sheet of paper. Then I draw symbols of persons chosen, neglected or rejected by the person X and vice-versa – persons who had chosen or neglected or otherwise rejected child X when the latter would express initiative. An analysis of this data allowed me to find popular persons who receive the most positive and the least negative choices, rejected persons (the most negative choices), neglected persons (the least positive choices and the least negative choices). The objective of the use of sociograms was to delineate the area of contacts of children with Down syndrome with other children, and to show what it looks like.

Analysis and interpretation of study results

Children with Down syndrome strive to achieve contact with others, in particular with children, just like others, in a manner that is more or less clear for their environment.

The observations and records that were made confirmed the fact that deficits in terms of motor skills and dexterity, emotions and motivations as well as intellectual deficits influenced the functioning within the peer group. In task-based situations, delayed psychomotor development precluded full participation in activities foreseen by the programme for the entire group. Dysfunctions of physical processes such as perception, memory, thinking, associating, speech, decidedly influenced the level of engagement. It was noticeable that children had difficulty understanding the require-

²² A.I. Brzezińska, *Socjometria*, [in:] *Metodologia badań społecznych. Wybór tekstów*, ed. by J.M. Brzeziński Wydawnictwo Zysk i S-ka, Poznań 2011, p. 277.

ments formulated only through verbal messages. Those children who understood the tasks frequently had difficulty executing them due to delayed motor development. This translated to the experience of contacts with their peers (be it in a task-based situation or during free play). If speech (reception and expression) and motor skills were sufficiently developed to allow the children to participate in activities suggested by their peers, then Down syndrome children were attractive partners during play. There were also children who frequently experienced neglect and rejection due to their improper participation during play, e. g. moving too slowly or not reacting correctly in group games (e. g. throwing the ball in the wrong direction or holding onto it tightly, not letting it go). Much behaviour was assessed by the environment of fully-able children as being malicious. And the behaviour of children with Down syndrome was most frequently caused by their specific properties of development: hypotonia (weak muscle tension influencing manual and motor skills as well as articulation), sensory deficits (visual and auditory), deficits in short-term hearing memory, difficulties with speech and language, a shorter attention span, cognitive delays, difficulty making generalisations, storing and understanding knowledge and delayed reaction times²³. Fully able children frequently reacted with emotional stimulation: anger, verbal and instrumental aggression, asking the teacher for help, crying. There were also play activities, to which disabled children were not invited any more, and even if they wanted to participate, they were rejected by fully able children: "no, you can't play with us; no, we don't want you on our team". Spontaneous messages by fully able children towards the observed Down syndrome children were uniquely rare and usually orchestrated by adults. The lack of mutual understanding caused them not to be attractive partners during play and agents in common activities. Interactions concerned mainly situations of care, when the child with Down syndrome took the role of the weaker party. Disabled children usually accepted such

²³ A. Żyła, *Życie z zespołem Downa. Narracje biograficzne rodziców, rodzeństwa i dorosłych osób z zespołem Downa*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”, Kraków 2011, p. 38.

aid, smiling, stroking, hugging, looking into the eyes of fully able children. It would seem that through this form of contact they desired, even for a moment, to satisfy the primary longing for another. Properties typical for the character of the undertaken interactions of fully able children towards disabled children were: instability of relations, superficiality, frequent contacts made due to a reward, some sort of interest (e.g. praise or a smile by the paedagogue). Disabled children made more frequent attempts at contact with fully able children. Usually, however, they did this in a manner that is not accepted socially, e. g. snorting or crackling at the peer, pushing them, taking their toy – which brought about the reverse reaction. Social competences in children with Down syndrome, as not fully developed, influenced their sociometric status (the children are rejected or neglected). Such conclusions from research may be found in the study presented in the table 1.

The observation of emotions experienced by the children suggested a comparison with emotions accompanying a person who just missed their bus (despite their best effort, the person running to the bus stop, where a bus had just stopped, is limited by their skills: they cannot accelerate or stop the driver; the emotions accompanying one when the bus departs, are anger, regret, frustration, depression, withdrawal). Such emotions accompanied each child several times throughout the day, e. g. when a peer was faster to get a ball from a shelf to play with it, when they built a higher tower, when they were able to get dressed quickly and without difficulty or respond to a question by the teacher during activity, for which they were later praised by the teacher.

If there would only be one disabled child in a group or more children with various disabilities (e. g. autism and Down syndrome), the musings would stop at the reflection that one can doubt the reasonability and effectiveness of integration groups, with the sceptical variant of integration being the case. W. Dykcik²⁴ described

²⁴ W. Dykcik, *Problemy autonomii, integracji społecznej i normalizacji życia osób niepełnosprawnych w środowisku*, [in:] *Pedagogika specjalna*, ed. by W. Dykcik, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytet im. A. Mickiewicza, Poznań 2001, p. 29.

Table 1. Social functioning of children with various sociometric status levels

Group properties	Popular children	Rejected children	Neglected children	Controversial children
Sociometric choice pattern	– many positive selections – few negative selections	– few positive selections – many negative selections	– few positive selections – few negative selections	– many positive selections – many negative selections
Aggression	low	high	low	high
Withdrawal	low	high	high	low
Social competences	high	low	low	high
Cognitive competences	high	low	low	high
Characteristic properties	– ability to cooperate, mutuality of contact – high readiness to learn and ease of learning – as a result, high level of diverse competences ensuring achievement of successes – very limited destructive behaviour – very limited tendency to seek solitude	– conflict between a strong tendency towards aggression and a similarly strong tendency towards withdrawal – much aggressive, destructive behaviour, causing the child to be isolated by peers – as a result, few opportunities to gain social competences – strong vicious cycle mechanism in social interactions causing ever more intense rejection of the child by peers	– low level of engagement in social interactions – few opportunities to learn – as a result, low social and cognitive competences – children not known by peers, causing them to neither be selected nor rejected – high-risk group for various behaviour disturbances	– aggressive behaviour is seldom destructive, frequently a clear expression of the child's will – tendency towards aggression compensated by high level of cognitive and social competences – extensive contacts with adults are protection against rejection and exclusion from the peer group

Source: A. I. Brzezińska, *Sociometria*, [in:] *Metodologia badań społecznych. Wybór tekstów*, ed. by J.M. Brzeziński, Wydawnictwo Zysk i S-ka, Poznań 2011, pp. 253–254.

bed such attempts at the process of integration as too difficult, belittling, frustrating and degrading. In this variant, they show that full overcoming of psychological barriers and the understanding by others may take place in groups composed of people with similar experiences and life problems (hence the idea of special facilities, hostels, work cooperatives, protected employment facilities, social aid houses, etc.).

So, is the idea of integration groups with a homogeneous disability (inclusive education programme) a good solution? The assumption is that the integration group is supposed to function primarily based on bonds between its members. This is difficult between fully able children and disabled children, the more so that bonds cannot be imposed from the outside, and that inclusion must be effected by the group members themselves. The relations should be borne as a result of common and shared experiences, mutual aid. Development is only possible beside another, development can only be supported by another, by a relation, a bond. No therapeutic programme or systemic solution will replace meeting another, beside whom the child will feel themselves, will feel as a subject.

Participatory observation and the execution of group research, where beside fully able children, children with a homogeneous dysfunction were present, have shown that this may be a key solution for the support of social development of children with developmental difficulties. Within the group that presented patterns of correct social behaviour, a group of children with Down syndrome began to function. Everyday experiences of interactions between children with Down syndrome and their peers with the same dysfunction led me to the conclusion that the developmental potential for these children hides in the fact that they have their colleagues beside them who are similar to them. In their behaviour, the children let [others] feel that they are aware of their similarities. Children with Down syndrome clearly exhibited high levels of openness, made verbal and nonverbal messages. The children noticed that they are similar in many respects. They noticed and indicated between them mutual physical similarities - they indicated common items of

looks, e. g. glasses, if a child had their glasses cleaned by a paedagogue, they would immediately go and take glasses from another child with Down syndrome, bringing them to the teacher to have them cleaned. The children also indicated the same colour of clothing of their peers with Down syndrome. Children with Down syndrome frequently mimicked the behaviour of their peers with Down syndrome, often uncritically, as if like a domino effect: "I want to behave just like my friend does" (even though this had no substantiation in context). They presented similarities in behaviour, in particular when mimicking stubbornness or hugging - perhaps due to similar emotional development levels.

The attitude of paedagogues or therapists in the form of making play or task groups with children with Down syndrome facilitated the establishment of bonds between them. The lower level of physical, psycho-emotional (less developed theory of mind) or social development hindered the establishment of satisfactory relations with fully able peers. At times, fully able children who functioned worse in the group would join the play or tasks of children with Down syndrome.

Children with Down syndrome also performed categorisations. Children with Down syndrome would more frequently pick other children with Down syndrome to play with than their fully able peers. For 40 sociograms created during free play, one can see that for the first choice, five selections are made towards a fully able peer, ten towards a peer with Down syndrome, 12 selections are invitations for a teacher or paedagogue to play, and 13 choices are solitary forms of play (selection of a toy or building blocks). One could say that a certain culture of play in children with Down syndrome developed. It was dominated by clear, simple rules that could be explained by gestures. The rules of play can also be understood with the help of the aids prepared, e. g. topical play - birthday: the children would prepare a table, set it, draw a cake on a sheet of paper, pretend to be playing "Happy Birthday" on the guitar (when a birthday was celebrated in the group, the teacher would usually play "Happy Birthday" on the guitar - the children

would replay this scene during play very faithfully). Another form were theatre scenes, whereby they would re-enact situations that they once saw, or used puppets for this purpose. And despite the fact that there were no verbal roles, the children attempted as best they could to convey the meaning of the show by facial expressions, vocalisations, proxemics and gestures. They were very emotional in this and could replay the emotions of the protagonists. They also prepared a place for an audience, and invited to watch, and then applaud, through gestures.

During organised activities progressing under specific rules (90 observations transferred to sociograms) one could also noticed that 30 interactions took place with a fully able peer (however, in 19 cases, the selection was made because the child did not engage and the teacher selected their partner for the task or play). Despite the fact that the organised activity was common activity in the group, there were 16 children who modified the play to suit their needs and played alone, and 16 children selected a peer with Down syndrome as their partner. I noticed that the level of engagement in activity organised in the group influenced the understanding (or lack thereof) of the rules of the task or play, the ability to focus and to communicate.

Children with Down syndrome who had difficulty with verbal speech, communicated during free and organised play with their peers with Down syndrome using paraphonic sounds, vocalisations, gestures or images. And these were messages that were used spontaneously. This observation led to the conclusion that an integration group, beside the preschool curriculum implemented by the teacher with the entire group²⁵, needs a programme/ project of additional tasks/ modes of play modified in terms of 1) adaptation of the level of requirements to the capacities of every child with Down syndrome, 2) the use of alternative and supporting communication methods.

²⁵ Cz. Cyrański, M. Kwaśniewska, *Program wychowania przedszkolnego MOJE PRZEDSZKOLE*, permit no: DKW-4013-3/01, Wydawnictwo MAC EDUKACJA, Kielce 2003.

Summary and conclusions

Making friends with other children, participating in group play, common activities, preparing shows, works of art, the children learn to respect their own and others' work in a group, and learn to negotiate. Gradually, the children move from child egocentrism to activities requiring effort, discomfort and forgoing their own needs for the general good. Irrespective of whether these are children in the so-called intellectual norm or intellectually disabled children, preschool age is a time of transition from alienation to participation in a peer group. Preschool age is a time of formation of personality, creativity, a time of establishment of faith in one's own strength, a time of recognition and trying out one's capacities, finally - a time of getting to know oneself as a member of society. Every child, including a disabled one, should have the opportunity of contact of peers in a group. It is during relations with peers, and not in relations with adults, that the child learns to make social contacts, cooperate, voice their ideas, defend their interests, negotiate, arrive at compromises, take on the role of leader and subordinate themselves to the leadership of others. Hence, it is so important to redefine the term of peer group with respect to children with development dysfunctions. This is not a group, in which the dominant criterion is the age of the children, but equal access of every child to this group, expressed by the engagement of every child in the life of another. The peer group is a space for growth through mutual sharing and gaining, but also through mutual acknowledgement and acceptance of weaknesses.

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Who Is a Creative Person? Conceptualisation of creativity by people with autism spectrum disorder

ABSTRACT: Arkadiusz Gut, Małgorzata Moszyńska, Natalia Reszuta, *Who Is a Creative Person? Conceptualisation of creativity by people with autism spectrum disorder*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, no. 27, Poznań 2019. Pp. 373-387. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. e-ISSN 2658-283X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2019.27.17>

A growing body of literature has focused on individuals with autism spectrum disorder who are entering adulthood. Thus, one of the main topics is social interactions and the issue of their functioning in professional contexts. Researchers focus their attention on those individuals' folk theories that are also crucial in the lives of the normative sample. One of the key folk theories that guide our professional lives is a folk image of the creative person. The folk theory is nothing more than tacit knowledge held by a group of people. It is a system of beliefs and an inner standard of assessment that serves us to explain, for example, why we believe that someone is creative or when we assess the effects of their work.

The aim of this paper is to present chosen findings from our study of the folk theory of creativity and creative person using a sample of persons with an autism spectrum disorder. We used a reversed version of Klaus Urban's and Hans Jellen's Test for Creative Thinking - Drawing Production (TCT-DP) where respondents selected previously prepared drawings, instead of making them. Their task was to

select the most and least creative drawings and rank all the drawings according to their level of creativity. We also measured respondents' levels of creative efficiency and creative identity.

KEY WORDS: autism, creativity, implicit knowledge, ways of thinking, folk psychology, creative mindset

1. Introduction

For some time now, we have been observing that the main topic in discussions on a group of people from the autism spectrum is the issue of their functioning in the conditions of professional activity and within the social interactions taking place in this context. Researchers realise that this requires undertaking a slightly different kind of research, the aim of which must be to reveal and show the ways of thinking or so-called folk theories, which autistic people are guided by and which are important in the professional and social life of these people (as well as neurotypical people). Certainly such a key folk theory, which we all follow in our professional lives, is the image of the creative person we possess or, to put it more broadly, the idea of what it means to be a creative person. The folk theory we are talking about here is nothing more than the kind of tacit knowledge always held by a group of people. It is a system of beliefs and an internal standard of evaluation that forms a network of folk views that is used spontaneously to explain why we consider someone to be a creative person or in the course of making choices and evaluating a person's performance. To clarify the understanding of implicit theories, we propose to assume that they are a kind of folk conceptualisation and a kind of tacit knowledge always possessed by a group of people. They are also a rather unconscious system of beliefs that functions as an internal standard of evaluation in a particular field. In other words, implicit theories form a network of folk views, which are used spontaneously during explanations or in the decision-making process. The literature says that the

human mind is equipped with a whole range of such folk theories which, in various situations, influence our interpretations of encountered facts, behaviours or social situations, and also on the basis of which the mind formulates expectations, how something or someone should behave. For example, we are guided by an implicit image of the physical world, which builds up in us a system of expectations, such as that a pool ball in the middle of the table will only move if it is put in motion by another ball, or that physical objects do not permeate each other. It is emphasised that such folk theories often depend on the environment, culture, age, as well as psychophysical conditions and many other mental and environmental variables.

Our main task is to show a certain section of research on the folk theory of creativity and the creative person, carried out on a group of people on the autism spectrum. The study used the Test for Creative Thinking - Drawing Production (TCT-DP) model by Klaus Urban and Hans Jellen, but in an inverted version, in which the subjects did not draw, but chose the finished drawings. Their task was to select the drawings made by the most creative and least creative people and arrange them. The study also used a series of questionnaires to explore the sense of creative effectiveness and creative identity.

2. About autism socially

The Autistic Spectrum Disorder is developmental disorder increasingly recognised around the world, which seems to be independent of such conditions as latitude, race or socio-economic status. An increasingly important issue is not only to determine the aetiological and epidemiological extent of autism, but also to undertake parallel research activities aimed at establishing targeted assistance to people with ASD. The modern world has not yet developed a uniform diagnostic system of the Autistic Spectrum Disorder. This fact explains the large discrepancies in the epidemiology of the neu-

rootypical phenomenon cited by individual countries. This difficult situation in the field of epidemiology is accompanied by diagnostic difficulties resulting from the hitherto unknown aetiology of autism. Today, there are two parallel classifications available to define this disorder. They even differ in the name of the disorder. The Diagnostic Criteria from DSM-5 define the phenomenon of autism as an Autistic Spectrum Disorder, eliminating Asperger's syndrome as a separate nosologic unit.¹ The classification of mental and behavioural disorders in the ICD-10 defines autism as a Pervasive Developmental Disorder, differentiating between Autism, Atypical Autism and Asperger's syndrome among others.² Other European countries use additional criteria, scales and tests, standardised in a given area, to help diagnose ASD. Diagnosis of ASD in Poland is burdened by the lack of any uniformity: both classifications apply, as well as non-standardised diagnostic tools. Currently, the Polish adaptation of the American ADOS2 diagnostic test gives some hope.

Creating favourable conditions for functioning in everyday life for people with Autistic Spectrum Disorder, both in terms of social interaction and the possibility of being a full-fledged student in the public education system, as well as an employee in the free labour market, is currently the most urgent need for normalisation of everyday life. The development of the modern world makes us face more and more challenges. What matters is not only whether we can handle it, but also how we handle it. Creativity is a feature that makes it much easier to cope with the rapidly changing challenges of today. It is a welcome feature both socially and professionally – at work and at school. Creativity enables society to develop, allowing it to achieve new and effective solutions. It is therefore a feature expected from all members of society, including from people on the

¹ *Kryteria Diagnostyczne z DSM-5*, Edra Urban and Partner, Wrocław 2015, p. 24.

² *Klasyfikacja zaburzeń psychicznych i zaburzeń zachowania w ICD-10, opisy kliniczne i wskazówki diagnostyczne*, Uniwersyteckie Wydawnictwo Medyczne Vesalius, Kraków – Warsaw 1997, p. 209.

autism spectrum. It is known that the functioning of neuroatypical people is different from that of neurotypical people, which is why researchers wanted to learn about the creative abilities of people with ASD. This knowledge will enable people with ASD, as well as their teachers, carers and employers, to work and function more effectively in their educational and professional lives.

3. Studies on creativity among children with autism

The first study on creativity in a group of people with ASD was carried out in 1972 by Utha Frith. In her study on creativity, she analysed the creative work of children with autism and children developing correctly. She concluded that there is a creativity deficit in children with autism.³ Further research on the creative potential of people on the autism spectrum was conducted in 1999 by Jaime Craig and Simon Baron-Cohen.⁴ The authors based their study on the definition of creativity formulated by John Flowers and Calvin Garbin. According to them, creativity involves generating, manipulating and transforming images to generate new representations. Using definition, a test procedure was created. Four groups took part in the study: children with autism, children with Asperger's syndrome, children attending a special school and showing learning difficulties, and children developing properly. The study showed that children with autism and Asperger's syndrome had lower results compared to the other two groups. The comparison of groups from the spectrum showed that children with Asperger's syndrome had higher results than children with autism. In the justification of the results obtained, the researchers put forward a hypothesis that deficits of executive functions are the cause of creativity deficits.

³ U. Frith, "Cognitive mechanisms In autism: Experiments with color and tone sequence production", *Journal of Autism and Childhood Schizophrenia* 1972, no. 2(2), pp. 160-173.

⁴ J. Craig, S. Baron-Cohen, "Creativity and imagination in autism and Asperger syndrome", *Journal of autism and developmental disorders* 1999, no. 29(4), pp. 319-323.

Their role is to supervise the process, which plays an overriding role in creating new creations. According to the researchers, this does not apply to children with Asperger's syndrome, because the results obtained do not differ from those of neurotypical individuals. This indicates a differentiation of the levels of creativity in the group of disorders on the autism spectrum, which would be contrary to the literature. "The Executive Function Deficiency Theory, developed by Sally Ozonoff, Bruce Pennington and Sally J. Rogers (ibid.), illustrates and explains the profiles of cognitive deficits in autism, especially the problems of planning, organisation, focus, working memory, impulse control, initiation, spontaneity and abstract thinking. Research by these authors has shown that executive function deficits are common to HFA and AS, and thus may be a cognitive deficit in all autism spectrum disorders".⁵ The second part of the study was aimed at empirical verification of the conclusion reached on the basis of the results obtained in part one. This proposal concerned the deficits in the executive functions that children with autism displayed. The researchers wanted to know their relationship with creativity. The theoretical basis for this study was to distinguish creativity between its two types, real and imaginative. They understood real creativity as the ability to create new products, but real ones. As an example they gave an original dress design or a new chess move. By imaginative creativity, on the other hand, they meant the ability to produce creations, but based on the author's imagination, and not on the reality that surrounds them. An example can be an interesting story describing fictional events or a picture presenting unreal, abstract content. Based on studies by Utha Frith and Annett Karmiloff-Smith⁶, Craig and Baron-Cohen

⁵ D. Dziedziewicz, A. Gajda, A. Wołowicz-Ruszkowska, „Myślenie twórcze dzieci z zaburzeniami ze spektrum autyzmu”, *Człowiek – Niepełnosprawność – Społeczeństwo*, Wydawnictwo Akademii Pedagogiki Specjalnej im. Marii Grzegorzewskiej, 2013, no. 4(22), p. 87.

⁶ Cited in: J. Craig, S. Baron-Cohen, "Creativity and imagination in autism and Asperger syndrome", *Journal of autism and developmental disorders* 1999, no. 29(4), p. 322.

hypothesised that children with autism have a deficit in both types of creativity. This was also proved by the results of neuropsychological tests, which showed that the frontal lobes were damaged in persons on the autism spectrum, which resulted in deficits, for example in the area of executive function. Another confirmation is provided by the results of studies conducted by Tim Shallice⁷ in 1988, also indicating deficits in the frontal lobe region. Four categories were distinguished in the analyses – the first three concerned real creativity, while the fourth category concerned imaginative creativity. The results showed that children with Asperger’s syndrome provided the most frequent answers in the category of “additions or transformations” – 70.1% of responses. Children with autism most often gave answers in the category “manipulation” – 45.8%. The lowest number of responses of both children with autism and children with Asperger’s syndrome concerned the category “fictional animation”, where it was the most common category in the group of children with difficulties – 65.8% and children developing properly – 48.4%.

The study confirmed the hypothesis of executive function deficits, but it is not a homogeneous phenomenon within the autism disorder spectrum. In this group, there is a great diversity in the level of creativity.

In summary, the above studies on creativity levels in people with ASD show heterogeneous results. These differences are revealed in the case of originality and elaboration. Frith’s research (1972) was based on the analysis of creative activity of people with autism and revealed a low level of creativity in this group. Analysing the above research, Dziejewicz, Gajda and Wołowicz-Ruszkowska (2013) pointed out that the problem may therefore lie not only in the heterogeneous picture of this phenomenon, but also in the measurement tools used.

⁷ Cited in: J. Craig, S. Baron-Cohen, “Creativity and imagination in autism and Asperger syndrome”, *Journal of autism and developmental disorders* 1999, no. 29(4), p. 322.

4. Implicit theory of creativity

Every person has the ability to create an implicit theory of creativity in the form of tacit knowledge, which we use spontaneously during our choices and evaluations. It is stressed that such theories described as implicit are always specific rather to some social, cultural or age group. They are significantly related to the group's thinking styles, perceptions of the world and system of social interaction, as well as to the group-specific personality profile (Niu and Sternberg, 2002; Rudowicz, Hui 1997). Most often, in order to reveal the so-called implicit theories, respondents are shown sets of adjectives that characterise creative people, and then asked to choose the most typical ones for a creative person, or street surveys are carried out in which participants are asked to choose the most creative people or professions (Rudowicz and Hui 1997). All this is to show what attributes are assigned to a creative person in a given research group, or what personality traits are associated with creative people, or what attributes should be carried by actions performed by a creative person.

In our study we used the Implicit Creativity Test (ICT) prepared by Arkadiusz Gut and Monika Chylińska. This method uses drawings made as part of the Test for Creative Thinking - Drawing Production (TCT-DP) by Klaus Urban and Hans Jellen. The Polish adaptation of this tool was developed by Anna Matczak, Aleksandra Jaworowska and Joanna Stańczak, which resulted in a method manual published by the Polish Psychological Association in 2000.⁸

The drawings used in the ICT tool were selected by specialists from the Polish Psychological Laboratory in Warsaw and were made by random people and evaluated by experts based on 13 TCT - DP assessment criteria. Four sets of drawings were prepared

⁸ A. Jaworska, A. Matczak, J. Stańczak, *Rysunkowy Test Twórczego Myślenia KK Urbana i HG Jellena: TCT-DP: Podręcznik*, Pracownia Testów Psychologicznych Polskiego Towarzystwa Psychologicznego, Warsaw 2000, pp. 15-16.

(5 images each), which are differentiated in terms of the scores given to individual drawings by experts. The task of the person examined is to indicate in each of the four sets the drawing whose author is the most and least creative and to justify this choice in a few words. The last task is to rank the drawings from the most to the least creative author. The participants received the following instructions: "We ask you to help us study how we understand creativity and how we describe creative people. In a moment you will see in front of you drawings (grouped into four sets), which were made by different authors. Before beginning the task, all authors received the following sheet with an unfinished sketch and received the following instructions: There is an unfinished drawing in front of you. The artist who started it stopped before they decided what was to be on it. Please finish this incomplete drawing. You can draw anything you want. No drawing will be bad. Anything you draw will be good. When drawing, please do not use an eraser, ruler or other aids. The sketch presented - as you will see in a moment - was augmented by the authors in various ways. Your task will be to assess which of the authors turned out to be the most and least creative in this activity. [...]" It is worth noting that the respondents assessed the creativity of the authors, knowing that the authors of the drawings made them on the basis of unfinished sketches, but did not know that these drawings had been assessed by someone before. The results of the choices made can be analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Open statements, in which the examined person justifies his or her choice of particular drawings, are subject to qualitative analysis.

5. Description of the test procedure

Research was carried out during an individual meeting with the person examined. The standard test conditions were met: the room was isolated from any noise that might distract the person being

tested. The workplace, or desk, was well lit. There was an answer sheet on the desk – all the pages bound together in one sheaf of documents. There was enough space on the desk to freely lay out the drawings from the individual test sets in front of the person being tested so that they could see them. The person being tested gave answers by writing them down. During the examination, the person being tested was shown four sets of five drawings each. The person's task was to choose the drawing by the most creative author and justify their choice, and then indicate the drawing of the least creative author. This scheme was repeated in each of the four sets of drawings.

6. Group description

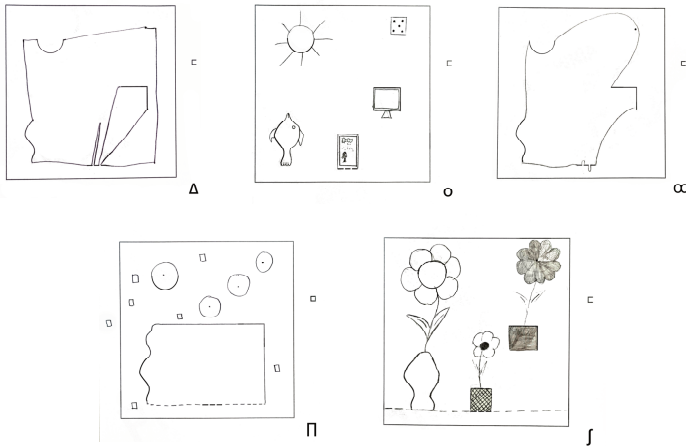
The research was conducted in the Voivodeship Specialist Children's Hospital in Olsztyn at the Centre for Autism Treatment Diagnostics and Therapy, in 2018–2019. The study covered a 40-person male group, aged between 12 and 26 years. The IQ of the studied group was in the norm, between $II = 80$ and $II = 132$. The respondents were informed about the concept and purpose of the research. They consented to being tested. The results of the individual tests were sent to the respondents via email. All persons selected for the study group underwent psychiatric examinations. In this examination, the psychiatrist assessed the mental state of the person. Next, they then made a differential diagnosis in which they ruled out mental disorders and suspected disorders from the autism spectrum, with which the person was referred for psychological and pedagogical evaluation for confirmation.

The analysis of choices and answers – the results obtained in the Implicit Creativity Test (ICT) was divided into two parts. First, the frequency and the way of justifying the choice of drawings in terms of the most creative author was analysed. Then the frequency and the way to justify the choice of drawings in terms of the least creative author was analysed.

7. Results

The following are the test results for one set of drawings.

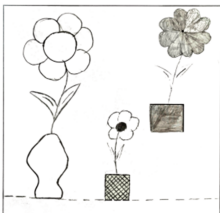
set 1



The work of the most creative author for people on the autism spectrum was the drawing with the symbol ς, which depicted flowers. It was the drawing most frequently chosen. Out of 43 respondents, it was chosen by 19 people, which constituted 44% of the surveyed population. Each drawing was assigned a category with an appropriate number of points according to the criteria of Urban and Jelen's Test for Creative Thinking - Drawing Production (TCT-DP). Let us note that the most frequently selected drawing according to TCT-DP is characterised by such features as: continuations (5 points), additions (5 points), line connections (4 points) and thematic links (6 points). Individuals on the autism spectrum chose those drawings which, under the TCT -DP model, had high scores for line and theme connections not only in this set, but also in the other three sets . Additionally, when we calculated the ranking of all the draw-

ings, and thus the ranking of attributes assigned to these works, the two above-mentioned attributes were ranked highest. The respondents were also asked to briefly justify their choice in a few words. Examples of answers of people who chose the drawing with the symbol J as the work of the most creative author in set 1 are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Answers justifying the choice of the most creative author’s drawing in set 1

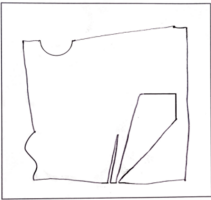
	<p>⊞</p>	Thematic consistency using the formula.
		The most coherent, logical, presents some concrete thing. The greatest effort went into making this picture.
		Most of the space is full compared to others.
		Its author is the most creative because they have made ordinary lines into an extraordinary picture.
	<p>J</p>	This drawing forms a whole, the others e. g. (oo and Δ) are simply connected, and this one shows the same thing (a flower) in other versions.
		The author of the drawing is the most creative, because there is most work in this drawing, because it shows flowers and not figures.
		This author is, in my opinion, the most creative, because they can create 3 flowers with pots from 5 patterns.
	In my opinion, the author of this picture does not only mean flowers, but maybe they hide some secret, maybe they just wanted to show off their artistic skills.	

Source: own compilation.

In the next step, the frequency and the way to justify the choice of drawings in terms of the least creative author was analysed. And so in set 1, the work of the least creative author was a drawing with the Δ symbol, which represented an abstract figure. It was the drawing most frequently chosen. Out of 43 respondents, it was chosen by 18 people, which constituted 42% of the surveyed population. The respondents were also asked to briefly justify their choice in a few

words. Examples of answers of people who chose the drawing with the symbol Δ as the work of the least creative author in set 1 are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Answers justifying the choice of the least creative author’s drawing in set 1

	ϵ	Connecting lines without using them significantly and playing with them.
		It does not present any object of interest or anything inspiring.
		There is no ingenuity here. It is unclear what is shown in this picture.
	Δ	The author is less creative, because the figures are combined into one image.
		This drawing doesn’t really fascinate me, because the shape of this object doesn’t tell me what it is and where it is.
		[...] because they have only combined parts of the picture, the drawing is uncomplicated.
	[...] because this author’s drawing is not easy to describe, what it is or who it might be, I suppose someone might have misinterpreted the task or simply did not feel like drawing.	

Source: own compilation.

8. Conclusion

In this very brief and preliminary presentation of the conducted research on implicit theories of creativity in people on the autism spectrum, we can see an emerging profile of thinking about the creative person and the way of conceptualising creativity. It is clear from the choices made by people with autism that the works made by the most creative people are, according to them, the ones that contain, above all, many linear connections, are thematically linked and have elaborate details. If we look at the explanatory tendencies, we see that these people most often talk about thematic coherence,

elaboration, thematic combinations. Thus, both at the level of choices and responses, a fairly consistent model is revealed. The strength and significance of these findings is most evident when compared with neurotypical respondents. We have also conducted such studies and their preliminary analysis reveals that for these people, the most creative drawings are those that contain components classified under TCT-DP as unconventional manipulation and non-stereotypicality. The figure most frequently chosen by neurotypical people was drawing O (set 1). The selection of different drawings is a testimony to and an effect of paying attention to different stimuli and ranking based on implicit preferences (theories) of different features embodied in the drawings. Also, the explicit responses of neurotypical people contained different components. Justifying their choice of a drawing made by the most creative person, they believed that there were unusual components in these drawings, that there were many unrelated features, great variety or something previously unknown. This clearly contrasts with the statements of people on the autism spectrum who, as we have shown, appreciated the coherence, the thematic link and refinement, a clear sense or reference to what is known, and not just the idea itself.

In our deliberations, we also aim to prepare a top-down analysis and apply so-called divergent and convergent thinking to the statements given by people with autism of the Guilford model (1967). By applying this model of analysis to the obtained data, we can already see from the start that people on the autism spectrum tend to prefer the convergent model/thinking in their implicit theory, which manages their creative evaluations. This is because they prefer those authors who focus in their work (here drawing) on one subject, seek the relationship between the ingredients, refine what can also be found in reality, and at the same time tend to refine details. In other words, they value refinement and elaboration, normality and uniformity higher than dispersion, originality or diversity. It seems that these features are contained in their implicit creative theory and this set creates a framework within which works and individuals are assessed in terms of their creative component.

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Demanding disability – an analysis of opportunities and threats related to the functioning of people with mild intellectual disabilities

Part 2

ABSTRACT: Katarzyna Parys, Sławomir Olszewski, *Demanding disability – an analysis of opportunities and threats related to the functioning of people with mild intellectual disabilities. Part 2.* Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, no. 27, Poznań 2019. Pp. 389–401. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. e-ISSN 2658-283X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2019.27.18>

The thesis considered in the article is the statement that mild intellectual disability is a demanding disability. Three dimensions were distinguished in the description of the situation of persons with a mild intellectual disability:

1. Attributes of the phenomenon of mild intellectual disability
2. Attributes of the population of people with mild intellectual disabilities
3. Attributes of selected elements of the mesosystem of people with mild intellectual disabilities

The key phenomena for these dimensions were analysed. The ambiguity of these phenomena has become the basis for considering the opportunities and threats that they may pose.

Due to the extensiveness of the issues raised, the issues discussed are presented in two parts. The present text considers the third of these dimensions and the final reflections formulated on the basis of the conducted analysis.

KEY WORDS: mild intellectual disability, educational disability, cultural and economic capital

Introduction

The objective of considerations making up the present article is to highlight the complexity of the situation of persons with mild intellectual disability, and, hence, to issue a reminder to provide them with the necessary attention. It seems that the specifics of the property of the population, the characteristics of the communities in which people with mild intellectual disability function, the influences that they are subjected to, give rise to the threat of neglect by their environment. In relation to the challenges generated by mild intellectual disability it is substantiated to refer to it as a „demanding disability”¹. The quoted thesis shall be verified by the arguments referred to and analysed.

Striving to present the situation of persons with mild intellectual disability, the following dimensions of description were assumed:

- Attributes of the phenomenon of mild intellectual disability
- Attributes of the population of people with mild intellectual disabilities
- Attributes of selected elements of the mesosystem of people with mild intellectual disabilities.

The first two issues were presented in the first part of the study², with the last one making up the subject of analyses included in the present text. It must be noted that the content discussed by us is variedly assessed within subject literature. We do not aim at eliminating the ambiguities that emerge, but we hope to expose the existing differences, and we even make an attempt at questioning attitudes, which, due to them having been repeated over and over again, took on the form of statements being accepted as the truth. We see in this mode of progress the possibility of thoughtful reflection on reality. Hence, during our analysis concerning persons with

¹ The usage of this term does not equal the consideration of mild intellectual disability as being more demanding than other forms of disability.

² This part was published in issue 26/2019 of the publication “Interdisciplinary contexts of special pedagogy”.

with mild intellectual disability, we will seek and disclose both opportunities as well as threats for the functioning of these people and their environment.

Properties of selected components of the mesosystemu of persons with mild intellectual disability

Disability is the result of violation of the balance between the individual dispositions of an individual, their conditions of life and activity and requirements set out by their environment³. The environment and its subsystems can thus be treated as a significant component in course of emergence of disability. Its activity in this regard shines through both in situations and under conditions negatively diverging from the norm, which, according to Heinz Bach⁴, can be described as forms of injury, as well as in expectations formulated with respect to a particular person. Due to the intensity and time of influence, a particular role in the emergence of disability is assigned to two components of the mesosystem: the family environment and the school environment, as well as the relations between the two.

The cultural and economic capital of the family environment

A comparison of resources of the family environment of persons with mild intellectual disability with those of the the general population comes out to the disadvantage of the former.

Low levels of cultural and economic capital, or even a specific “culture of poverty”⁵, characterise the majority of families of pupils

³ H. Bach 1999, as quoted in: G. Szumski, *Integracyjne kształcenie niepełnosprawnych*, Wydawnictwo APS, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2009, pp. 110–111.

⁴ Ibidem, p. 111.

⁵ Conf. O. Lewis, *Dzieci Sancheza*, transl. by A. Ołędzka-Frybesowa, Wydawnictwo Bona, Warszawa 2011

with mild intellectual disability. Among the properties of the family environment of this group of people, researchers⁶ indicate living conditions that hinder development, such as: a disturbed family structure; high number of children; low level of education of parents, frequently related to lack of professional activity or low professional status; economic poverty; difficult living conditions; intellectual disability of the parents or their experience of long-term illness; signs of social pathology, for instance, crime, alcohol abuse. A further property that frequently shines through in families of pupils with mild intellectual disability is an unfavourable upbringing system, which shines through in the form of insufficient care, lack of interest in the affairs of the child or in excess or insufficient requirements or tough penalties for transgressions. A further component characteristic for the discussed families are emotional conditions prevailing in the family that hinder the development of the child: no emotional cohesion between the parents, excess emotional distance from the child, enmity or passivity of parents expressed with respect to the child.

⁶ A. Ostrowska, A. Firkowska-Mankiewicz, *Spoleczne uwarunkowania lekkiego upośledzenia umysłowego*, [in:] *O integrację społeczną młodocianych i dorosłych upośledzonych umysłowo*, ed. by I. Wald, WSiP, Warszawa 1978; M. Kościelska, *Upośledzenie umysłowe a rozwój społeczny. Badania uczniów szkół specjalnych*, PWN, Warszawa 1984; A. Giryński, *Środowisko rodzinne a formy niedostosowania społecznego osób niepełnosprawnych umysłowo*, „Szkola Specjalna” 1985, no. 4–5; F. Wojciechowski, *Dziecko umysłowo upośledzone w rodzinie*, WSiP, Warszawa 1990; T. Żółkowska, *Rodzina a funkcjonowanie w klasie szkolnej ucznia upośledzonego umysłowo w stopniu lekkim*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe US, Szczecin 1994; H. Borzyszkowska, *Isolacja społeczna rodzin mających dziecko upośledzone umysłowo w stopniu lekkim*, Wydawnictwo UG, Gdańsk 1997; J. Głodkowska, *Poznanie ucznia szkoły specjalnej*, WSiP, Warszawa 1999; A. Kozubska, *Opieka i wychowanie w rodzinie dziecka upośledzonego umysłowo w stopniu lekkim*, Wydawnictwo Uczelniane Akademii Bydgoskiej, Bydgoszcz 2000; Z. Kazanowski, *Środowisko rodzinne młodzieży niepełnosprawnej intelektualnie w stopniu lekkim*, Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 2003; Z. Gajdzica, *Edukacyjne konteksty bezradności społecznej osób z lekkim upośledzeniem umysłowym*, Wydawnictwo UŚ, Katowice 2007; I. Ramik-Mażewska, *Jakość życia absolwentów zasadniczych szkół zawodowych dla młodzieży niepełnosprawnej intelektualnie. Analiza porównawcza*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe US, Szczecin 2011.

The ubiquity of prevalence of the indicated properties in the discussed group of families forms the basis for the conclusion that in case of the majority of persons with mild intellectual disability, a sociogenic character of this disability is probable⁷. It is in the environmental neglect that one should seek the direct causes of the dysfunction, a fact that became the basis for the differentiation of the so-called „cultural intellectual disability”⁸.

In families, in which patterns of passivity and low levels of aspirations prevail, and in which parental behaviour is characterised by helplessness or a demanding attitude, or negative attitudes towards the school, there arises the risk that as a result of modelling, the child’s ambitions and aspirations could be diminished, and the process would begin of sinking into the disability. In addition, the risk of repetition of the model of family life, the phenomenon of social inheritance of the cultural capital provokes one to perceive the errors in the functioning of the family as a source of disability for future generations.

At the same time, however, in the discussed families, disability, and, hence, a child with a disability, can acquire acceptance, because, as it should be assumed, these circles treat intellectual disability as something normal that doesn’t give rise to disquiet. In certain instances, the phenomenon of intellectual disability is “tamed” due to the fact that the child is not the only person in the family to experience this dysfunction. The disability expressed by the child does not usually force the family to change its life plans, as there are either no fixed plans in this regard, or intellectual capacity, not be-

⁷ I.G. Sarason, B.R. Sarason 1984, as quoted in: W. Otrębski W., *Osoby z upośledzeniem umysłowym w sytuacji pracy*, Towarzystwo Naukowe KUL, Lublin 2001, p. 24.

⁸ In psychological and paedagogical literature, this phenomenon is defined in various ways (see J. Kostrzewski, *Charakterystyka osób upośledzonych umysłowo*, [in:] *Upośledzenie umysłowe – pedagogika*, ed. by K. Kirejczyk, PWN, Warszawa 1981, p. 127, pp. 97–129; I. Obuchowska, *Dzieci upośledzone umysłowe w stopniu lekkim*, [in:] *Dziecko niepełnosprawne w rodzinie*, ed. by I. Obuchowska, WSiP, Warszawa 1991, p. 212, pp. 199–239; J. Głodkowska, op. cit., pp. 26–27).

ing a value particularly praised by parents, does not form the basis to design one's future on. The described mode of treatment of disability may be considered as a factor facilitating self-acceptance, advantageous for the emotional development of a child experiencing the disability.

Lack of knowledge and skills necessary to fulfil a parental role, or lack of parental responsibility expressed in insufficient interest in the child, in the reluctance to take on parental tasks, result in lack of necessary support activities. Consequences of this shortcoming shine through in diverse life situations, when planning one's education, professional life or in relation to the emergence of school, peer, health and other problems. In addition, parentification may arise⁹, meaning, a situation, in which the child takes over the parents' responsibilities, their tasks, is forced to take care of family members and its economic assets.

Leaving the child alone to cope may result in premature takeover of adult life roles, despite the lack of proper preparation for their fulfilment. "Parents characterised by low socio-cultural status do not provide the children with space for safe experimentation in social roles, they do not encourage them to seek and try themselves out in terms of strengths and abilities, they do not simplify finding out one's own identity, they do not create the required safety zone, which – looking back to Erikson – could be referred to as a psychosocial moratorium"¹⁰.

Consequences of the described situations can arise in the form of failures experienced by the child, yet at the same time, the necessity to take up initiative, take matters into its own hands, forcing activity, independence, triggering life dexterity. One could also notice in this situation the lack of risk of emergence of overbearance by the parents, see an opportunity of unlimited capacity to experience in-

⁹ K. Schier K., *Dorośle dzieci*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Scholar, Warszawa 2014.

¹⁰ K. Parys, *Przeciwdziałanie petryfikacji nierówności społecznych w procesie edukacji – w kierunku zwiększania szans rozwojowych uczniów z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną w stopniu lekkim*, „Rocznik Komisji Nauk Pedagogicznych” 2017, LXX, p. 71.

dependence. Facing high demands forces the triggering and reinforcement of the child's resources.

A further problem that forms a potential threat for development is the unsatisfied need of closeness, the lack of an emotional bond between the parents and the child. As a result, the child's behaviour may be characterised by emotional viscosity and the drive to seek acceptance outside of the family, in the school or peer environment. There exists the risk that a person or group that forms for the child a source of emotional support would exhibit values that are not acceptable socially, and that contact with it shall form the source of pathologisation of development. At the same time, neglect by the family could cause the school to potentially become an environment, in which the child could compensate for shortcomings of the family environment, satisfy its need of acceptance, strengthen its feeling of coherence.

The school environment and the needs and capacities of pupils with mild intellectual disability

Interference between the capacities of the pupil, their conditions of living and activity as well as the requirements set forth by the environment, in particular by the school environment, becomes the factor triggering the phenomenon of mild intellectual disability¹¹. The minimisation of the mentioned disparity should be perceived as one of the tasks of the school. The mode of execution of this task can take on various forms. One could focus on the person of the pupil – making an effort at evening out the shortcomings, at improving their resources and resources of the environment in which they function, without changing the requirements, leaving them as they where. One could also take on a different strategy of progress – focusing attention and activity on requirements. Starting with the

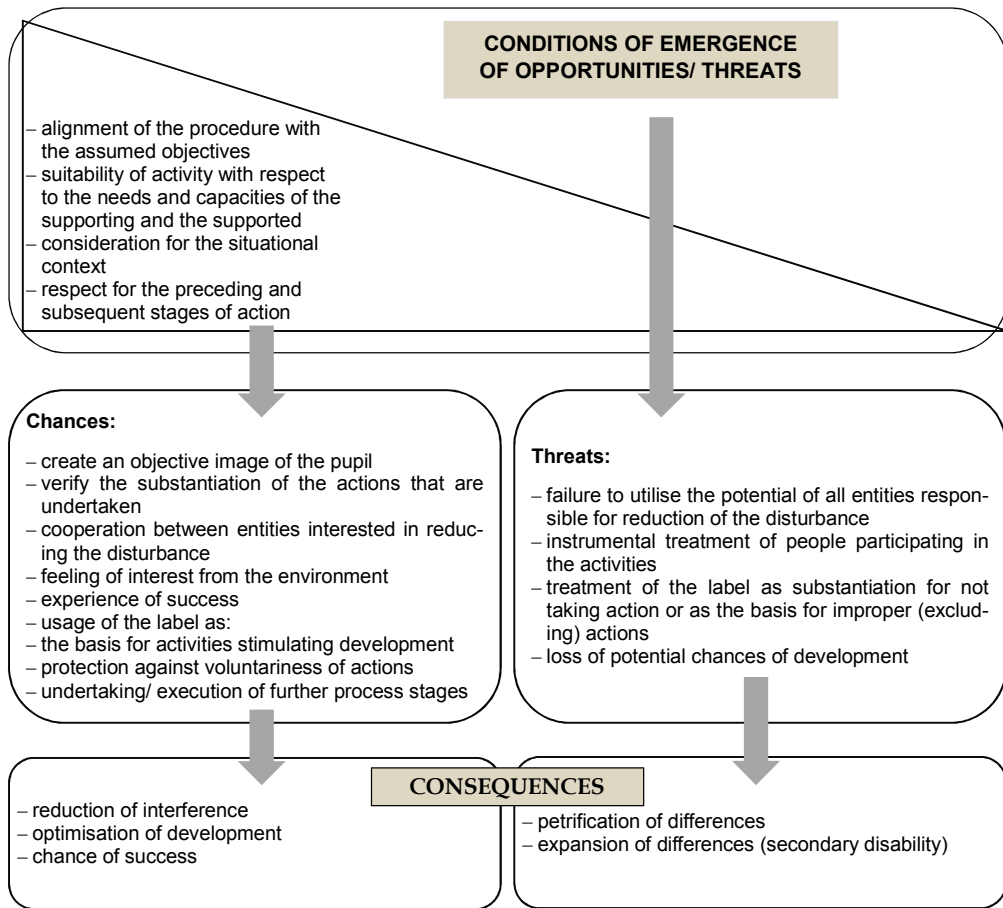
¹¹ H. Bach 1999, as quoted in: G. Szumski, *Integracyjne kształcenie niepełnosprawnych*, Wydawnictwo APS, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2009, p. 110.

question about the purposefulness of the described expectations, to eliminate some of them or to reduce them in such a way so that they would be adapted to the capacities of the pupil, or it could focus on the mode of execution of requirements, the adaptation of the speed of work or the methods of action to the needs and the capacities of the pupil. Finally, one could influence both the school's requirements, the modes of their execution as well as the resources of the pupil and their environment.

Irrespective of what strategy shall be used in the end, actions aimed at the reduction of discrepancies between the pupil's capacities and the requirements of the environment should take into account three stages: the recognition of needs and resources, the design of education and rehabilitation activities and their implementation along with verification of their effectiveness. During the execution of these stages, specific opportunities and threats for the functioning of all entities included in the process of education of the disabled pupil. The fact that certain opportunities and threats are more closely bound to specific stages does not exclude the possibility of their emergence during the entire procedure. One could hence speak about a specific, universal character of the opportunities and threats indicated in diagram 1.

The emergence of opportunities or threats depends on the properties of the procedure: alignment with the assumed objectives, its suitability for the needs and capacities of the persons providing support and being supported, consideration for the context of the situation, as well as for the preceding and subsequent stages of action. The intensity of the described properties will condition just how real the opportunities or threats shall become, will in the end the discrepancy between the capacities of the pupil and the demands of the environment be reduced, or just the opposite - will it expand or will it keep its *status quo*, become petrified. The higher the intensity of the presented properties of procedure, the higher the chances of reduction of the mentioned discrepancies (see diagram 1).

Diagram 1. Opportunities and threats related to the reduction of discrepancies between the capacities of the pupil and the requirements of the environment in the context of conditions of emergence and the consequences



Source: own work.

The execution of activities aimed at the reduction of discrepancies between the capacities of the pupil and the demands of the environment is conditioned upon the readiness and the resources at

the disposal of all entities engaged in the education process. The school has a particular role to play in this regard, as it is characterised by specific resources and needs. The atmosphere of the facility, the school's mission, the tasks set out by it and the mode of control of their execution, the organisation of work, the quality of personnel – preparation, engagement, motivation to work as well as the infrastructure of the facility are factors influencing the taking of, execution and effect of activities aimed at the elimination of excess discrepancies between the requirements of the school environment on the one hand and the needs and capacities of the pupil on the other. It is worth remembering that this discrepancy should not only be considered as a threat. It may be a chance of development, forcing effort, counteracting inertia, encouraging activity, the acquisition of new experiences, the perfection of teacher work. If, however, the described discrepancy would be too big or, if no activity is undertaken to minimise this state – there arises the risk of permanence of the referred discrepancy, or even its expansion.

Closing reflections

The present text constitutes an attempt at attracting attention to the fact that mild intellectual disability is a demanding disability. The arguments substantiating this claim may include:

- a high number of persons diagnosed as suffering from mild intellectual disability,
- the intra-group variety of the population of people with mild intellectual disability,
- the “invisibility” of mild intellectual disability, expressed in hard-to-notice symptoms,
- the limited validity time of the label of mild intellectual disability,
- frequent intermixing of the described disability with the culturally poor family environment which, due to the lack of suitable resources, does not guarantee suitable support,

- the threat by the phenomenon of social inheritance of mild intellectual disability and the “translation” onto further generations.

The referred components, being constitutive for the situation of persons with mild intellectual disability, can bring about developmental opportunities or threats that were indicated and discussed in both parts of the study. The awareness of the situation, in which persons with mild intellectual disability are found, gives rise to the necessity of searching for and undertaking of activities to allow them to utilise the opportunities, at the same time eliminating threats. This is a further argument allowing one to believe that mild intellectual disability should be treated as a demanding disability. Such a perspective of the discussed disability is also forced by conceptual and implementation changes within Polish special education. As time passes and as the discipline develops, the conviction began to be accentuated that positive results of rehabilitation work are achievable by anyone, irrespective of the level of disability that they experience. As a result, beside the activities aimed at persons with mild intellectual disability, ever more advanced work began to be undertaken to facilitate the optimisation of development of persons with deeper or deep intellectual disability. At the same time, an expansion of the scope and a shift of the focus of interest of special education occurred – from mild towards deeper and deep intellectual disability¹², with issues of mild intellectual disability being shifted away or even wholly neglected. This found its expression in:

- the reduction of the number of facilities educating pupils with mild intellectual disability, and along with this, a reduction of the number of these pupils learning at special facilities. One must note that a range of facilities hitherto foreseen exclusively for pupils with mild intellectual activity expands or completely changes its character of operation, turning also or exclusively to people with deeper or deep intellectual disability,

¹² See S. Olszewski, K. Parys, *Wektory zmian zachodzących w polskiej pedagogice specjalnej*, „Niepełnosprawność. Dyskursy Pedagogiki Specjalnej” 2018, no. 32.

- ever more numerous studies and publications concerning people with deeper or deep intellectual ability,
- changes to the proportion of content in study plans and programmes, on the basis of which special educators are prepared to work with intellectually disabled persons. The time foreseen for the teaching of topics concerning issues of persons with deeper or deep intellectual disability dominates over the time spent on issues concerning mild intellectual disability,
- gradual deceleration of development of methods of education of pupils with mild intellectual disability.

The assignment of the status of being a demanding disability to intellectual disability provokes one to search for an answer to the question: "what does this disability demand?" Without a doubt, one needs in this regard to ponder on the situation of persons with mild intellectual disability that would take into account their actual needs and capacities, the historic development of special education, as well as socio-economic conditions. The verification of the solutions developed historically against the backdrop of reality of the contemporary world can allow one to take action that will facilitate the normalisation of life for this group of people.

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Homes integrated as an institution (total) in the support system for adults with deep intellectual disability – introduction to consideration

ABSTRACT: Ewa Gawlik, *Homes integrated as an institution (total) in the support system for adults with deep intellectual disability – introduction to consideration*. Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy, no. 27, Poznań 2019. Pp. 403–416. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. ISSN 2300-391X. e-ISSN 2658-283X. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2019.27.19>

The article discusses the subject of housing for people with more severe intellectual disability – as one of the forms of support. The integrated-community flat constitutes an alternative institutional form of support for persons with more severe intellectual disability. The symbolic interactionism theory was extremely helpful in preliminary deliberations and the discussed integrated-community flats were based on the conception of total institutions. Therefore, the following questions were asked: What characteristics of a total institution does the integrated-community flat have? Can the integrated-community flat be described as having characteristics of a total institution? A qualitative case study with participant observation was used for this purpose.

KEY WORDS: housing, adults with more severe intellectual disability, total institutions

Introduction

Development of housing for persons with intellectual disability constitutes one of the forms of support for this group of persons. Currently, placing persons with moderate and severe intellectual disability in social aid homes is being replaced with places requiring more engagement from the persons concerned. Large clusters of social rehabilitation are replaced with intimate places the structure of which is similar to flats. However, those places remain institutional forms of aid and support for persons with moderate and severe intellectual disability. Of course, there are no doubts that those places are more intimate and such spaces feel more "domesticated". Nevertheless, the people in question remain wards and we are still faced with a warden - ward relationship. Therefore, while accompanying the residents in their everyday life, the following reflection arose: Does thus constructed form of housing for persons with more severe intellectual disability support them in their adulthood, independence or autonomy? It also invites reflection, if, perhaps, it is a form of involving the person in the social control system even more? Thus, it became an encouragement to preliminary deliberations on the grounds of the analysis of the total institution theory of Erving Goffman in the following areas: the space and daily schedule, wardens - residents, the level of satisfying needs, contacts of the institution with external environment. Two first areas: the daily schedule and relations between residents will be presented herein.

The issue presented in the text concerns integrated flats on the basis of total institutions theory including contents of the symbolic interactionism theory. As a result, the discussed institutions of integrated housing for persons with more severe intellectual disability shall be subject to initial deliberations on the grounds of a continuous exchange of meanings and symbols occurring between the "actors" of the social life in the flat. Flats constitute a social structure, where interactions between residents are continuous. Communication, which takes on the form of a verbal and non-verbal symbol,

gestures or signs, constitutes one of the components of interactionism. As a matter of fact, communication generates people's behaviour towards one another. An individual interprets and defines their actions and behaviours towards other individuals in the social structure, which constitutes a way of exchanging meanings. According to Elżbieta Hałas "the second important element in the non-actionist conception of human behaviour comprises the assumption that an individual does not reproduce behaviours or actions according to the certain patterns, but constructs activity, interprets partner's behaviour, takes on the role of the latter and on the grounds of the role-taking undertakes a relevant action continuously formulating the so-called definition of the situation, in which the person operates, as the person is aware of oneself and has self, makes choices"¹. To sum up, people and, in this case wards of integrated flats can operate on the grounds of meanings provided by objects. These meanings will originate in interactions and will be modified by interpretations thereof made by people in current situations.

It should be very clearly underlined that the proposed text is an introduction to deliberations included in the article. It is, in fact, the subject which should be elaborated on due to the numerous threads resulting from the selected methodological direction.

Flats in Sosnowiec, which constitute the subject of the analysis herein, operate on the foundation's initiative. The foundation submits a project to the competition organised by the city for the organisation and functioning of flats. The city provides premises and pays for wardens of these flats. Whereas, residents participate in the costs of the flat's maintenance (rent and food). The first integrated-community flat in Sosnowiec was developed in 2014, second - in 2017, and third - in 2019. In the meantime, a training flat was developed within the project. However, this form of housing does not

¹ As cited in E. Hałas, *Symbolic Interactionism - Plurality of Directions vs. Basis of the Unity of Perspective (Symboliczny interakcjonizm - wielość orientacji a podstawy jedności perspektywy)*, „Studia socjologiczne” 1961, no. 4, p. 111, [in:] J. Turowski, *Sociology... (Socjologia...)*, pp. 63-64.

constitute the subject of the presented article and will not be analysed herein. My attention will be concentrated on the residents of integrated-community flats as a (total) institution.

Integrated flats as total institutions

In contemporary society, institutions are discussed, among others, in the conception of total institutions of Erving Goffman, American sociologist and writer. According to him, total institutions are any social institutions with closed structures, such as: social aid houses, prisons, psychiatric hospitals, monasteries or care institutions, "they take up some time and attract interest of their members and create a separate world for them"², which means that the aim of those institutions is to "enslave" their wards.

The author of this conception differentiates five groups of total institutions. The first group consists of institutions aimed at providing care for persons requiring support, aid and care. This group includes, among others: social aid houses, social support centres and orphanages.

The second group of total institutions consists of centres, facilities for persons that cannot or are not capable to live independently. According to the author, an additional feature of those persons is that they, not by their own fault, pose a threat to themselves and to the society. These institutions include, among others: psychiatric hospitals. The hitherto described groups can be included in total institutions, the basic aim of which is to take care of the patients', boarders' or wards' wellbeing.

The third type of institutions consists of prisons, penal institutions and detention centres. This type of institution is predominant-

² E. Goffman, *Characteristics of Total Institutions (Charakterystyka instytucji totalnych)*, in: *Contemporary Sociological Theories (Współczesne teorie socjologiczne)*, ed. A. Jasińska-Kania, L.M. Nijakowski, J. Szacki, M. Ziółkowski, Scholar, Warsaw 2006, p. 316.

ly aimed at protecting society from wards of such institutions. Protection of the society results from the fact that persons staying at those institutions, consciously hurt themselves and others.

Military barracks and life on ships constitute the fourth group of total institutions, which are “appointed to perform specific technical tasks and have a purely instrumental character”³.

Whereas, the fifth group consists of total institutions, which have a voluntary character, which means that persons entering those institutions do so completely voluntarily, withdrawing from social, professional and family life. This group includes: monasteries, nunneries and abbeys.

The following features can be distinguished among the constant characteristics of both, the total institution and persons working there:

- strict hierarchy of statuses,
- division into personnel and wards (we – them),
- formalism,
- dehumanization,
- a lack of subjectivity in interpersonal relations,
- orientation not on a human, but on the performance of set tasks⁴.

Integrated-community flats fit within the conception of total institutions of Erving Goffman. The author placed them in his theory in the first category as the place for people who need help. The fact is that flats for persons with intellectual disability do not have bars in windows, closed doors or other obstacles, which would separate them from the society in an obvious manner. However, it is characterised by a certain specific structure, a type of closure, alienation, stigmatisation.

³ Ibidem.

⁴ E. Goffman, *Characteristics of Total Institutions (Charakterystyka instytucji totalnych)*, in: *Contemporary Sociological Theories (Współczesne teorie socjologiczne)*, ed. A. Jasińska-Kania, L.M. Nijakowski, J. Szacki, M. Ziółkowski, Scholar, Warsaw 2006, p. 317.

The most important feature of a total institution is mixing three important zones of human functioning from the perspective of fulfilling their needs, that is: sleep, entertainment and work. Wards perform everyday activities, such as: relaxing, eating, playing or studying in the same place, that is, the flat. A departure from the above rule can happen when wards go to a school or work outside the facility. Another important element of this structure is that no person is ever alone, each person is treated the same, which causes a lack of intimacy and individualisation. Thirdly, according to Erving Goffman: "everyday activities are at all times strictly specified so that each of them inevitably leads to the already established, directly following activity"⁵. Of course, developing flats is a socially useful and very much needed initiative. The aim of this article is not to criticise such initiatives. It is more aimed at a certain reflection on the meaning and place of creating such forms of support and not creating simulated activities or simulated support for persons with more severe intellectual disability. The analogy of integrated flats and above all, the attempt of placing them in the presented theory related to total institutions are bound by the fact that E. Goffman includes in total institutions, among others, social aid houses. The discussed flats constitute an alternative to social aid houses for persons with intellectual disability. The flats have a specific structure and a certain type of action scheme and are not based on the complete voluntariness.

The "institution", which is the supported-community flat for persons with moderate and severe intellectual disability, is a social "product". It is socially constructed, which means that this is a place, where wards are shaped in a certain manner. Residents in the flats should be "imitators of knowledge, identity and culture"⁶,

⁵ E. Goffman, *Asylums: Essays on the Condition of the Social Situation of Mental Patients and Other Inmates (Instytucje totalne. O pacjentach szpitali psychiatrycznych i mieszkańcach innych instytucji totalnych)*, Gdańskie Wydawnictwo Psychologiczne, Gdansk 2011, p. 16.

⁶ G. Dahlberg, P. Moss, A. Pence, *Beyond Quality in Early Childhood Education and Care: Languages of Evaluation (Poza dyskursem jakości w instytucjach wczesnej edukacji)*

but also values and norms. The institution that is the flat provides persons with intellectual disability with care and implements socialization aspects. It is to satisfy their emotional, developmental, health, existence, social and religious needs. The task of such institution consists in providing persons with intellectual disability with education and therapeutic activities, if needed. The aim of such flats is to, predominantly, prepare a ward to independent life as a result of acquiring by them proper social skills. Doubtlessly, an important aspect of these tasks' implementation consists in the social education broadly understood as the responsibility of all society members for persons with more severe intellectual disability staying in these forms of support facilities. A thesis may be proposed that this form of support for persons with intellectual disability is "(...) a tool of social intervention aimed at protecting the society against consequences of poverty, inequality, a lack of sense of safety and marginalisation"⁷. Irrespectively of how they are perceived, their aim is to achieve social aims and above all, serve wards. They are supposed to be places where (...) influence is wielded to achieve predefined, desired results; places of development, education, socialisation, where shortages are compensated"⁸.

The concept of an institution herein is understood in broad context, as socialisation of wards in integrated-community flats. Flats will be an institution, a certain type of symbol of care and support for persons with moderate and severe intellectual disability. Whereas, an organisation will be understood as rules, statuses, legal regulations of functioning and developing flats, their structure, wards and wardens and infrastructure for achieving aims.

i opieki), Wydawnictwo Naukowe Dolnośląskiej Szkoły Wyższej, Wrocław 2007, p. 123.

⁷ G. Dahlberg, P. Moss, A. Pence, *Beyond Quality in Early Childhood Education and Care: Languages of Evaluation (Poza dyskursem jakości w instytucjach wczesnej edukacji i opieki)*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Dolnośląskiej Szkoły Wyższej, Wrocław 2007, p. 122.

⁸ Ibidem, p. 127.

An outline of methodology and an attempt at research

An attempt at researching the described phenomenon was based on the symbolic interactionism theory. The qualitative research strategy was adopted. The theme of research in the qualitative research strategy is to above all, understand and describe the meaning of certain behaviours of a human or social groups. The sense of the word "meaning" is, in fact, the essence of the qualitative strategy. As a matter of fact, each interaction, feelings or experiences of the individual have specific meanings, which is unquestionable when human behaviour is concerned. In fact, individual feelings or experiences matter in social interaction. Interpersonal interactions create a given situation of a person, therefore, the nature of the social reality is to a great extent based on the exchange of experiences, symbols or meanings of a given situation.

Human existence in the qualitative strategy consists in continuously giving meaning and sense to the social "being", it is, in fact, the social existence that creates meanings in a given social situation. Using the theory in the qualitative strategy constitutes non-deductive system of correlated definitions or laws, it consists in above all, "describing ways of establishing and maintaining systems of group meanings"⁹. Values for the qualitative research strategy constitute an inherent element of social life, they are always different for a given social group, but never perceived as bad.

In symbolic interactionism, people influence each other with symbols. Social reality means human behaviour towards one another in the course of interactions. "A symbolic interaction is a fundamental social fact and only with this concept category other forms or types of social phenomena could be explained"¹⁰. In interaction-

⁹ G. Dahlberg, P. Moss, A. Pence, *Beyond Quality in Early Childhood Education and Care: Languages of Evaluation (Poza dyskursem jakości w instytucjach wczesnej edukacji i opieki)*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Dolnośląskiej Szkoły Wyższej, Wrocław 2007, p. 78.

¹⁰ J. Turowski, *Sociology. Small Social Structures (Socjologia. Małe struktury społeczne)*, Lublin 1993, p. 63.

ism, a person with disability, including intellectual disability, has a possibility of coping in various social situations, since social conditions are a dynamic system; thus, the person with disability does, in fact, adapt to the conditions in which the person lives and creates them. As a matter of fact, irrespectively of their limitations or deficits, a human is a free and autonomous creator of their social activity. Interpreting the situation of persons with disabilities from the point of view of interactionism can result in improving the approach towards them and, therefore, "developing a humanistic-subjective approach to those persons"¹¹.

The aim of the article is to attempt presenting the integrated-community flat in the context of a total institution. Thus, the following research problems were formulated: What features of a total institution does the integrated-community flat have and can it be said that the integrated-community flat has features of a total institution? In order to explore this analysis, the following detailed research problems were formulated:

1. How does the space and daily schedule of residents look like?
2. What are the relations between residents?

To this end, a case study was used. Nevertheless, it should be underlined that at this stage of research, the case study instruments have not been used completely. This is above all, an introduction to deliberations and a contribution to in-depth studies. The advantage of the case study "is optimisation of possibilities of understanding a given phenomenon or a specific case by answering the research question and reliability given by continuously triangulating descriptions and interpretation throughout the research"¹². The research conducted with this method is subject to in-depth analysis of

¹¹ T. Żółkowska, *Socio-pedagogical Context of Disability (Socjopedagogiczny kontekst niepełnosprawności)*, [in:] *Special Education – Current Achievements and Challenges (Pedagogika specjalna – aktualne osiągnięcia i wyzwania)*, ed. T. Żółkowska, Szczecin 2005, p. 114.

¹² R.E. Stake, *Qualitative Case Studies (Jakościowe studium przypadku)*, [in:] *Handbook of Qualitative Research (Metody badań jakościowych)*. V. 1, ed. N.K. Denzin, Yvonna S. Lincoln, PWN, Warsaw 2009, p. 624.

the issue of interest to the researcher. It is important that this type of collecting data is characterised with small representativeness, which excludes any generalisations. This is “an excellent tool of problem exploration, which allows planning further research activities to be burdened with a smaller risk of accuracy and adequacy for the purposes of the research”¹³. A selection of the case (phenomenon) is simple or complex at the same time. A case can be a person, a group, a facility or an event. The case will be interpreted as a system, since “in social sciences the majority of cases consist of functional elements and act intentionally, many have a sense of the I. Functional or dysfunctional, rational or irrational, a case will always be a system”¹⁴. Krzysztof Konecki states that “a case chosen for the research should be able to be explicitly separated as a certain system and activities observed within this system should be performed in compliance with patterns that are easily reconstructable. Explicit borders or patterns of behaviour are the key elements allowing understanding a given case”¹⁵.

One of the integrated-community flats was chosen for the purposes of the deliberations. On the one hand, the flat is the case. The flat is therefore understood as a system and the phenomenon itself is the subject of interest. Since the aim is not only to understand the phenomenon, but also to broaden the knowledge thereof, we deal with the instrumental case study, where the phenomenon and its context “are thoroughly and in details studied in order to facilitate learning more about the phenomenon”¹⁶.

¹³ A. Miller, *Psychiatric Hospital as Total Institution. Sociological Case Study (Szpital psychiatryczny jako instytucja totalna. Socjologiczne studium przypadku)*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego, Warsaw 2013, p. 18.

¹⁴ R.E. Stake, *Qualitative Case Studies (Jakościowe studium przypadku)*, [in:] *Handbook of Qualitative Research (Metody badań jakościowych)*. V. 1, ed. N.K. Denzin, Yvonna S. Lincoln, PWN, Warsaw 2009, p. 625.

¹⁵ K. Konecki, *Qualitative Research Methodology Studies. Grounded Theory (Studia z metodologii badań jakościowych. Teoria ugruntowana)*, PWN, Warsaw 2000, p. 126.

¹⁶ R.E. Stake, *Qualitative Case Studies (Jakościowe studium przypadku)*, in: *Handbook of Qualitative Research (Metody badań jakościowych)*. V. 1, ed. N.K. Denzin, Yvonna S. Lincoln, PWN, Warsaw 2009, p. 628.

The manner of collecting data was participant observation. The participant observation consists in the researcher, observer “entering” the community of observed persons. The researcher is more familiar with the culture of the observed community and is closer to the events happening in the group. This method is often used in the case of “closed communities” of researched persons. As a result of the participant observation, the researcher participates in the life of the chosen social community and conducts scientific research. He or she concentrates on collecting empirical material, which will be used in further analyses. The researcher has to be aware that he or she acts as a scientist, although “you can never stand completely outside the research social reality and situation”¹⁷. While starting the observation, the researcher is obliged to find out as much as possible on the researched area. Therefore, it is important to, in the preliminary stage of research “take into account nine dimensions of each social situation that establish complex relations:

1. Space – physical place or places.
2. Actors – people connected to the given situation.
3. Action – a set of activities performed by people.
4. Object – physical items present in a given situation.
5. Activity – a single task performed by people.
6. Event – a set of correlated activities.
7. Time – time sequences, pace of events.
8. Aims – what people are striving to achieve.
9. Emotions – feeling and expressing”¹⁸.

The conducted observation took place in the integrated-community flat, in Sosnowiec. It was a source of preliminary data, which is a qualitative proposal, which does not give the right to answer the questions asked.

¹⁷ K. Konecki, *Qualitative Research Methodology Studies. Grounded Theory (Studia z metodologii badań jakościowych. Teoria ugruntowana)*, PWN, Warsaw 2000, p. 144.

¹⁸ M. Ciesielska, K. Wolanik Boström, M. Öhlander, *Observation (Obserwacja)*, in: *Qualitative Research. Methods and Tools (Badania jakościowe. Metody i narzędzia)*. V. 2, ed. D. Jemielniak, PWN, Warsaw 2012, p. 44.

Space and daily schedule

Space of the integrated-community flat is the area of everyday functioning of wards. The wards living in the flat have various levels of social skills. Therefore, they acquire a series of social skills within the flat. There are various interactions between them. In order to keep social order in the flat, the communication between wards and between wardens is extremely important. The everyday life of residents is quite characteristic. Basic spheres of residents' lives are interrelated. They perform everyday activities at the same time and place, together and, what is important, in accordance with strictly defined rules. Those specified rules are simply a daily schedule. Of course, unwritten schedule. Residents adjust to the binding rules. It is described with the example below.

Picture I:

It is 6.00 a.m. on Tuesday. Alarm clocks can be heard ringing in rooms. Wards start waking up, using bathroom. Someone looks at the board and shouts at the person on duty to make breakfast and tea for everybody. I am under the impression that everybody keeps order.

While staying at the flat, the wards learn how to, among others, cooperate in a group. Each resident knows what to do in the described situation. Their effectiveness of coping is conditioned by the everyday ritual, since they face the same circumstances every day. Waking up and then, morning bathroom routine. It is a kind of social training. Therefore, one may attempt the interpretation that the residents are characterised with social skills in formal situation. On the one hand, they learn the ability to follow the rules and principles binding in a given situation from one another. Analogously, the opportunity to acquire correct cooperation or communication skills is created in the total institution, so that their functioning is compliant with the binding social requirements and norms.

In formal situations, such as: waking up, morning and evening bathroom routine, eating meals or thematic classes with educators show that wards of the studied flat have relevant skills to call their

behaviour competent in the scope of these activities. They undergo a kind of social training. Everything must proceed according to the specific schedule. Everyone must go to school, work or facility at a specific time, the flat is closed at 7.30 a.m. and opened at 03.30 p.m. Characteristics of a total institution are also visible, among others, in the aspect of a lack of voluntariness and formalisation of the home functioning.

Relations between residents

Picture II:

It was Sunday. Everyone was sitting in their rooms. They were, in fact, resting after dinner. One of the wardens proposed a game. Residents agreed willingly. During the game a problem with counting appeared. However, everyone counted together, so they managed to continue. During the game, a girl named D. complained that her flatmates make fun of her. The warden told her: So tell them not to make fun of you. He also added that all of us were adults there and we were able to solve our problems. All of the wards nodded and continued to play.

The described situation shows certain elements of learning the skills conditioning competences, when the ward complained about her colleague. The warden put her in a position, when she had to exercise a skill of communicating to the colleague so as to protect her space herself. Another element of this situation consists in teaching wards such behaviours so that interpersonal relations in the group do not hurt others. Furthermore, it was important to acquire such social rules so that each person in the group could feel safe.

Summary

The presented pictures introduce the reader to the topic of total institutions. These are preliminary studies which become an impulse for deliberations over flats as total institutions. However,

a certain totality syndrome can be observed. Everything is done together and everything is under control. The cycle of the day, its rituals and schedule of activities, which could be named informal and which at first sight are not constituted activities, play a role of activities typical for total institutions. It has been proved above in the presented schedule and relations between the residents in pictures I and II. Was it what we had expected from support systems for adults with intellectual disability in the times of normalisation? I leave this question open for the reader. Each reflection in this dimension is an impulse to undertake another activities, since this is required from both, support and autonomy of persons with disability.

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Employer's Assistant – new value in employing persons with disabilities

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The purpose of this article is to present the initiative of the West Pomeranian Voivodeship in Poland, which is aimed at increasing the professional activity of persons with disabilities. The developed and tested model of the employer's assistant is, in the special pedagogy, a new quality directed towards the labour market. The Employer's Assistant does not deal, in essence, only with a person with a disability, but mainly with the environment of employers to hire persons that suffer from disabilities. In the article, I refer to the assistant of the disabled person as a result of the biopsychosocial model of disability, which creates a great opening to the discussion on various models of assistance. I would like to point out the specific consequences of the lack of employment among people with disabilities. I present the premises of the employer's assistant model and the evaluation of its effectiveness, the main consequence of which is the ability to build social capital of persons with disabilities. By cooperating with many environments, the employer's assistant develops specific social behavioural patterns and becomes a foundation of social activity of persons with disabilities.

KEY WORDS: disability, employment, employer's assistant

Introduction

The issue of the assistantship in the special pedagogy is not a new phenomenon. It remains in relation to the transformations concerning understanding of human disability. Transformations, in which the medical perspective of disability constitutes one of the elements significant for the forecasted psychological and physical restrictions, whereas, the global sphere of development is located in the person's social experiences. Both, experiences of a conscious, institutional character, as well as those gained spontaneously, conditioned with the individual situation of a meeting, feeling and experiencing. The place and role of assistance in the life of persons with disabilities have been sanctioned in Poland with the Ordinance of the Minister of Labour and Social Policy of 10 December 2002 on the classification of professions and specialisations for the use in the labour market and its scope of application¹. Therein, the assistant of a person with a disability has been indicated. This type of assistantship was described as a special type of service that requires not only an exceptional sensitivity to social problems of persons affected with various deficits, but also implies the necessity to have relevant knowledge and practical skills that allow assisting a person with a disability effectively. The Ordinance is undoubtedly based on the biopsychosocial perspective of disability, which allowed developing the image of persons with disabilities as legitimate members of the society. Persons with diversified potential, socially useful and needed. The introduction of an assistant of a person with a disability to the classification of social assistance professions and thus, activation of the education system at this faculty, at a level of post-secondary school resulted from many overlapping factors². The

¹ The Ordinance of the Minister of Labour and Social Policy of 10 December 2002 on the classification of professions and specialisations for the use in the labour market and its scope of application. Journal of Laws no. 222 of 20 December 2002, item 1868.

² E. Mirewska, *Miejsce asystenta osoby niepełnosprawnej w systemie pomocy społecznej* (The Place of the Assistant of a Person with a Disability in the Social Assistance Sys-

most important ones include the conception aimed at reinforcing the broadly understood potential of the social assistance client and rejecting the thesis that financial support is a sufficient factor facilitating the social and professional rehabilitation of environments of persons with disabilities. Thus, the assistant was seen as support for a person with a disability in achieving life independence and reinforcing his or her role in the natural environment³. The assistant of a person with a disability plays the role of an observer and messenger between the personal world of the person with a disability and the world of his or her family or social environment.

The idea of the employer's assistant as an innovative support for employing persons with disabilities remains in strong relation with the idea of the Assistant of the Person with a Disability. However, it locates the Person with a Disability in other perspective. Not as a Person only requiring support, but also as a competent employee, to contact with whom the employer has to be prepared and in advance freed from many centuries of stereotypes, fears and, often, equipped with knowledge on disability. This issue is extremely significant, since professional experiences of persons with disabilities are still far from satisfactory. Therefore, in the further part of considerations I will concentrate on the role of work in the lives of persons with disabilities.

Disability vs work

Human disability cannot be considered without the broadly understood interdisciplinary context. Studies on this area are located in medical, rehabilitation and social research, where integration comes to the fore. A consequence of the interdisciplinary understanding of disability comprises defining it by a certain condition of

tem), [in:] *Asystent osoby niepełnosprawnej. Nowy zawód i nowa usługa systemu pomocy społecznej (The Assistant of a Person with a Disability. The New Profession and New Service of the Social Assistance System)*, ed. A. Żukiewicz, Impuls, Krakow 2010, p. 21.

³ Ibidem p. 29.

the individual and not his or her feature. Disability is, in fact, a process which in a diversified, different manner stipulates functioning of a person. It indicates hindrances of such a person in a family, professional, economic and social situation⁴. The multi-context attempt at defining the notion of disability results in applying different criteria significant for including individuals in the groups of such persons in various areas of life and scientific disciplines⁵. The changes result in empowering the person with a disability, who ceases to be perceived only as a life beneficiary, but is predominantly perceived as its customer. In contemporary times, the normalisation, which initiated self-determination and fully empowered persons with disabilities and thus, made them, as far as possible, creators of their own lives, became the main principle. The idea of normalisation allowed leaving categorised professional and political regulations to the benefit of available models of everyday life, *which were as close to the typical circumstances of living in society, as possible*⁶. The World Health Organisation referring to the International Classification of Functioning Disability and Health⁷ indicates the social and cultural contexts of human disability. The category of disability has been replaced with activity and the concept of impairment with the category of participation. It has been adopted that a person functions at three levels: biological (structure), individual (scope of

⁴ M.A. Paszkiewicz, M. Garbat, E. Tytyk, *Ocena jakości życia osób niepełnosprawnych na przykładzie realiów województwa lubuskiego (Assessment of the Quality of Life of Persons with Disabilities on the Example of the Reality of the Lubusz Voivodeship)*, [in:] *Ergonomia Niepełnosprawnym – Jakość życia (Ergonomics for Persons with Disabilities – the Quality of Life)*, ed. J. Lewandowski, J. Lecewicz-Bartoszewska, Lodz University of Technology, Lodz 2001, p. 191.

⁵ M. Garbat, *Historia niepełnosprawności. Geneza i rozwój rehabilitacji, pomocy technicznych oraz wsparcia osób niepełnosprawnych (The History of Disability. The Genesis and Development of Rehabilitation, Technical Aids and Support for Persons with Disabilities)*, Niae Res, Gdynia 2015, p. 95.

⁶ D. Goodly, *Disability, Studies. An interdisciplinary introduction*, Sage, London, 2011, p. 16.

⁷ International Classification of Functioning Disability and Health (ICF), World Health Organization, 2001.

obligations) and social (performance of a role in a specific social group)⁸. Thus, applying towards everyone one general concept of disability causes fundamental difficulties, since even removal of all external barriers will not fully remove the person's internal limitations. Therefore, it is assumed that disability should be defined with regard to the possibilities of achieving by the individual his or her own life aims with a consideration of the restricting biological, psychological, social and environmental factors. They do, in fact, limit the activity, participation and relations between a person with a disability and the social and physical environment. Work is one of those areas in which, in particular, persons with disabilities notice limitations. For many years, which is a serious social and economic problem, a very low percentage level of professional activity of persons with disabilities could be observed in Poland, in comparison with other European countries. It is illustrated with the table below.

Table no. 1. The employment rate of persons with disabilities in European countries in 2014

No.	Territorial unit	Employment rate in %
1.	Switzerland	68.9
2.	Germany	58.7
3.	Luxemburg	56.7
4.	Sweden	55.5
5.	Latvia	54.2
6.	Estonia	54.0
7.	Austria	53.8
8.	Slovakia	52.0
9.	France	50.4
10.	Italy	49.0

⁸ M. Garbat, *Historia niepełnosprawności. Geneza i rozwój rehabilitacji, pomocy technicznych oraz wsparcia osób niepełnosprawnych (The History of Disability. The Genesis and Development of Rehabilitation, Technical Aids and Support for Persons with Disabilities)*, Niae Res, Gdynia 2015, pp. 99-100.

No.	Territorial unit	Employment rate in %
11.	Denmark	48.7
12.	Island	48.6
13.	Holland	47.7
14.	Portugal	47.0
15.	Great Britain	45.5
16.	Slovenia	45.2
17.	Cyprus	44.1
18.	Romania	41.3
19.	The Czech Republic	39.8
20.	Finland	38.1
21.	Spain	38.1
22.	Belgium	38.0
23.	Poland	37.3
24.	Lithuania	35.7
25.	Hungary	33.6
26.	Bulgaria	32.6
27.	Croatia	28.0
28.	Malta	27.8
29.	Greece	27.5
30.	Ireland	27.0
31.	Turkey	25.4

Source: EU-SILC UDB 2014, ANED GUS: <https://bdl.stat.gov.pl/BDL/dane/podgrup/tablica>, access on: 16.02.2019.

It may undoubtedly be stated that employment of persons with disabilities remains an important issue, which is quite difficult to solve. Therefore, it can be presumed that persons with disabilities are still perceived as weaker, worse and less talented. And, in fact, work is one of the basic human activities, the most important during adulthood, it is a determinant of civilizational development, including development of each person and society in which he or she is growing up. It allows the person to participate in the process-

es of transformation of own environment, transformation of conditions of own life, culture and oneself⁹. It is the type of activity that becomes a social binder as it allows experiencing human integration, it is a source of income and determines the social and professional position of the employee¹⁰. Work is a conscious activity, which is aimed at satisfying needs by creating goods, it is also the toil of the working person, a burden accompanying physical or mental effort made by the working individual. It is an activity which is characteristic for human nature constituting, at the same time, the right and the obligation. From the perspective of social pedagogy, work of a rehabilitation character is discussed, as work safeguards economic needs of a person with a disability. It significantly improves their disordered functions, allows, by enabling proving their own efficiency and social usefulness, the self-fulfilment, which, in consequence, prevents de-frustration and leads to professional and social integration¹¹. The person's intellectual possibilities and his or her life satisfaction increase only when the professional work enables using the individual's abilities, taking responsible decisions, acquiring new skills in all possible spheres¹². Remaining unemployed by persons who are able to work results in their professional inactivity¹³, passivity, distress and resignation. A lack of work often destroys their own plans, causes financial difficulties and collapse of the time structure. When the schedule is not

⁹ A. Bogaj, *Człowiek w środowisku pracy (A Person in the Work Environment)*, [in:] *Pedagogika pracy (Work Pedagogy)*, S.M. Kwiatkowski, A. Bogaj, B. Baraniak, Wydawnictwo Akademickie i Profesjonalne, Warsaw 2007, p. 23

¹⁰ Z. Wiatrowski, *Podstawy pedagogiki pracy (Work Pedagogy Basics)*, Wydawnictwo Akademii Bydgoskiej, Bydgoszcz 2005, p. 99.

¹¹ H. Borzyszkowska, *Przygotowanie dzieci niepełnosprawnych do pracy w rodzinie i szkole (Preparing Children with Disabilities to Work in Family and School)*, [in:] *Praca ludzi niepełnosprawnych – zadania pedagoga (Work of Persons with Disabilities – Tasks of a Pedagogue)*, ed. A. Hulek, Zakład Narodowy Imienia Ossolińskich, Wrocław 1985, p. 80.

¹² T. Borkowski, A. Marcinkowski, *Socjologia bezrobocia (Sociology of Unemployment)*, Biblioteka Pracownika Socjalnego, Wydawnictwo Śląsk, Katowice 1999.

¹³ K. Młonek, *Tradycja badań bezrobocia w Polsce – zagadnienia metodologiczne (Tradition of Unemployment Research in Poland – Methodological Issues)*, *Wiadomości Statystyczne* no. 6, 1992, p. 1.

set by working hours, there are difficulties in organising and using time. As a rule, people experience obsessive absorption in the issue of time, amount thereof and impossibility to use it, a feeling that they kill time. It has consequences in emotions and behaviour. When we lose a job, we also lose the possibility of self-expression in authentic activity and thus, the possibility to develop a mature personality.

Employer's assistant as innovative employment of persons with disabilities

I was authorised to touch on and describe this issue by my research interests that I have been developing for years and which focus on the issue of social functioning of adult persons with disabilities. I received the invitation from the organisers of the project described below to actively participate in two conferences devoted to the idea of the employer's assistant. I also had the pleasure to participate in many conversations concerning this idea. I recognised that, admittedly, still as a model of activity at the testing stage, the employer's assistant is a wonderful initiative in the labour market for persons with disabilities. It is also a challenge for education and local governments. The challenge that is worth discussing so that it gains followers.

In April 2017, the local government of the West Pomeranian Voivodeship, within the measure "Region of Equal Opportunities" adopted the implementation of the programme for equal opportunities of persons with disabilities and prevention of their social exclusion, as well as assistance. The initiative was financed with funds received from the budget of the West Pomeranian Voivodeship and testing of the model solution was entrusted to "4C Centrum Ekonomii Społecznej" in Szczecin. Representatives of various groups associating persons with disabilities, representatives of Regional Social Policy Centres, Professional Activity Facilities, other work facilities from Stargard, Goleniów and Gryfino Counties, as well as representatives of the association Stowarzyszenie Czas Przestrzeń

Tożsamość¹⁴ with its registered office in Szczecin, were invited to the cooperation. The aim of the undertaken initiative was to establish the model of supporting persons with disabilities in the labour market and, primarily, increase the rate of employment thereof. A significant factor for performance of this fact comprised the low position of the West Pomeranian Voivodeship in the professional activity of persons with disabilities presented in the table below in comparison with other voivodeships.

Table no. 2. The employment rate of persons with disabilities in Polish voivodeships in 2016

No.	Territorial unit	Employment rate (%)
1.	Lubusz	30.9
2.	Pomeranian	28.1
3.	Świętokrzyskie	26.3
4.	Lower Silesian	25.0
5.	Subcarpathian	23.1
6.	Silesian	23.0
7.	Łódź	22.6
8.	Greater Poland	22.5
9.	Kuyavian-Pomeranian	22.0
10.	Warmian-Masurian	21.9
11.	Opole	21.1
12.	Podlaskie	18.5
13.	Masovian	18.1
14.	Lublin	17.7
15.	West Pomeranian	16.5
16.	Lesser Poland	15.6

Source: GUS: <https://bdl.stat.gov.pl/BDL/dane/podgrup/tablica>, access on: 30.03.2019.

¹⁴ The Association has been actively working for developing civil society and a strong non-governmental sector in the territory of the municipality and city of Szczecin.

Furthermore, for the purposes of the programme studies were conducted¹⁵ among persons with disabilities and employers who have not previously employed persons with disabilities. The aim of the studies was to learn about the conditions of not starting work by the unemployed themselves, as well as the reasons for not employing the unemployed by employers. I believe that the research results undoubtedly encourage further exploration of this area.

Persons with disabilities complained about: *a lack of workplaces adjusted to their physical abilities, having the disability itself and related health condition, which prevents from obtaining any job and the employers' limited awareness of economic and social barriers in employing persons with disabilities*¹⁶. Whereas, the conclusions drawn up from the research conducted among employers concerned: *the low level of employers' knowledge on the possibilities of employing persons with disabilities; economic factors related to the insufficient level of co-funding establishing work places, as well as the lack of stability of provisions, as well as complicated and complex administrative procedures*¹⁷.

Persons with disabilities primarily underlined the difficulty in dealing with barriers, provisions and bureaucracy or simply poor economic incentives offered with employment. Whereas, employers did not have sufficient knowledge on how to employ persons with disabilities and adjust to a vacancy a proper person due to the type of disability. Therefore, the need of searching for a solution that would be a support in employing both interested parties occurred.

In the years 2017–2018 there were thematic conferences and focus meetings with employers in the territory of the West Pomerani-

¹⁵ Report on the research. *Analiza potrzeb osób niepełnosprawnych w obszarze zawodowym w powiatach tobeskim, drawskim i świdwińskim (The Analysis of the Needs of Persons with Disabilities in the Professional Area in Łobez, Drawsko and Świdwin Counties)*, Fundacja Pasja, Łobez 2016.

¹⁶ A. Bogusławska, B. Karlińska, B. Kotarski, G. Kotwicki, R. Krzewicja, J. Namaczyński, P. Piechocki, J. Piekutowski, A. Skaza, J. Sławczyński, A. Sobolewski, G. Tokarski, *Asystent pracodawcy ds. zatrudniania osób niepełnosprawnych (Employer's Assistant for Employment of Persons with Disabilities)*, Stowarzyszenie Czas i Przestrzeń, Szczecin 2017, p. 12.

¹⁷ Ibidem.

an Voivodeship. The underlying aim was to develop a model of employer's assistant for employment of persons with disabilities, who combining the skills of an assistant of a person with a disability, would be prepared to cooperate with employers so as to increase the effectiveness of activities of entities performing tasks to the benefit of persons with disabilities. In theory, the assistant is to play the role of support for the employer, make him *feel confident on the legal grounds related to the employment of persons with a certificate of disability, as well as in direct contact with the persons with disabilities*¹⁸. The prepared model of the employer's assistant was developed on the grounds of experiences included in the study "*Guidelines for Providing Services by the Job Coach Set I. A Set of Tools for Recruitment of Job Coaches*"¹⁹. The model consists of many innovative elements, has an exemplary character and can also be executed on the grounds of other premises. Here, I would like to underline the elements thereof that seem extremely important²⁰.

First of all, the employer's assistant cannot be a random person. Due to the innovative and certainly not easy type of work, such a person is expected to be assertive, communicative, highly motivated to work and reliable. The model provides for many trainings for the employer's assistant, which will, among others, equip him or her with knowledge on the characteristics of various human disabili-

¹⁸ A. Bogusławska, B. Karlińska, B. Kotarski, G. Kotwicki, R. Krzewicja, J. Namaczyński, P. Piechocki, J. Piekutowski, A. Skaza, J. Sławczyński, A. Sobolewski, G. Tokarski, *Asystent pracodawcy ds. zatrudniania osób niepełnosprawnych (Employer's Assistant for Employment of Persons with Disabilities)*, Stowarzyszenie Czas i Przestrzeń, Szczecin 2017, p. 5.

¹⁹ M. Gorący, *Wytyczne dotyczące świadczenia usług przez trenera pracy zestaw I. Zestaw narzędzi do rekrutacji trenerów pracy (Guidelines for Providing Services by the Job Coach Set I. A Set of Tools for Recruitment of Job Coaches)*, Polskie Forum Osób Niepełnosprawnych, Warsaw 2015.

²⁰ A. Bogusławska, B. Karlińska, B. Kotarski, G. Kotwicki, R. Krzewicja, J. Namaczyński, P. Piechocki, J. Piekutowski, A. Skaza, J. Sławczyński, A. Sobolewski, G. Tokarski, *Asystent pracodawcy ds. zatrudniania osób niepełnosprawnych (Employer's Assistant for Employment of Persons with Disabilities)*, Stowarzyszenie Czas i Przestrzeń, Szczecin 2017, pp. 20–24.

ities, legal solutions concerning employment of persons with disabilities and skills in the scope of interpersonal communication.

Secondly, the model of the employer's assistant indicates various sources of financing its activity. The following are enumerated: county labour office, the State Fund For Rehabilitation of Disabled People, social economy support centres and foundations, and associations providing financial assistance to entities establishing workplaces for persons with disabilities within their own activities or European Union projects.

Thirdly, the model indicates the necessity to provide the employer's assistant with information on persons with disabilities interested in starting work. It refers to the access to resources in institutions, such as: county labour offices, county family assistance centres, social assistance centres, community self-help homes, occupational therapy workshops, professional activity facilities and other institutions and organisations providing assistance to persons with disabilities. The aim of providing the information is to help the employer's assistant in creating a database on persons with disabilities (their interests, preferences, expectations, predispositions, experiences, limitations). Such knowledge will help the assistant to flexibly adjust to the employer's objectives, but will also help in taking care of interests of the person with a disability. We cannot forget the fact that the employer pays the majority of his attention to the achievement of his business objectives. Therefore, the employer's assistant has to work with each employer to establish an individual platform of flexible communication, understanding and cooperation.

Finally, eight stages of proceedings of the employer's assistant are proposed in the model, which fully illustrate his or her competences and the scope of activities.

First stage: selection of the employer – taking into account opinion on the employer in the labour market and experiences in employing persons with disabilities.

Second stage: first contact with the employer – learning about the employer's needs and presenting the catalogue of benefits resulting from employment of a person with a disability.

Third stage: learning about the workplace – the work characteristics and organisation of the workplace, learning about the habits and practices binding in the workplace; preparing the employer and employee environment to mutual cooperation with a person with a disability; selection of the place of work for a person with a disability and analysis of tasks performed thereat.

Fourth stage: training – organisation of trainings for managers, human resources, co-workers in the scope of disability; support in all formal and financial matters related to starting work by a person with a disability.

Fifth stage: selection of candidates for specific jobs – preparing the person with a disability to the characteristics of the workplace; presentation of the employer.

Sixth stage: administrative-financial works – accompanying and assisting the employer in meetings with representatives of institutions financially supporting employment of a person with a disability.

Seventh stage: employment:

- conclusion of an agreement for co-financing employment with the funding institution;
- purchase of necessary equipment for the workplace;
- medical examinations of a person with a disability;
- employment of a person with a disability;
- on-the-job training;
- supporting the person with a disability in establishing relations with the direct superior and other co-workers;
- supervision over safety and work of the person with a disability.

Eight stage: monitoring and accompanying – various types of support for the person with a disability in maintaining and developing social relations, establishing contacts and cooperating with the family. Appropriately to the situation and needs of the employer or the person with a disability.

The complexity of activities of the employer's assistant is related to significant emotional burden, therefore, supervision has been provided for in the project "the employer's assistant for employ-

ment of persons with disabilities". It has been assumed that there will be the need to, on the one hand, support the assistant in assessment and correction of his or her work and, on the other hand, to strengthen him or her and prevent his or her burnout. Especially the latter is to be supported by the work evaluation of the employer's assistant also planned in the project. It is aimed at answering the questions regarding adequacy, effectiveness and sustainability of undertaken activities. Conducting the evaluation process in the model is entrusted to the institution employing the employer's assistant.

The project of the employer's assistant is very extensive and includes a lot of information that answer key issues regarding the role of the employer's assistant. It presents the rights and obligations of a person with a disability, as well as the rights and obligations of the employer. It was described in details in the publication "Asystent pracodawcy ds. zatrudniania osób niepełnosprawnych. Podręcznik" ("The Employer's Assistant for Employment of Persons with Disabilities. Handbook"), published by Szczecin association "Czas Przestrzeń Tożsamość" in 2017.

Conclusion

Implementation of this project was summarised at the conference organised in Szczecin on 4 December 2018. Primarily all institutions that had undertaken the task to prepare the assistant for contact with employers and institutions that had benefited from such a service presented themselves at the aforementioned conference. Conclusions drawn up from the conference were unequivocal. Activities of employer's assistants in the tested model were very highly assessed. It was underlined that the employer's assistant illustrates the fact of interpenetration of particular spheres of human life (social, professional), which together with the surrounding formal-legal system, constitute a coherent and inseparable whole. The work of the employer's assistant has a chance of generating not

only economic benefits to employers and disabled employees, but perhaps predominantly take persons with disabilities out of passive forms of support and free not only society, but also such persons themselves from the stereotypes of disability. I find another advantage in promoting the idea of the employer's assistant in developing by them the social capital understood as "(...) *the total of current and potential resources that are due to the individual or a group owing to permanent and more or less institutionalised network of relationships and mutual recognition*"²¹. While cooperating with many environments the employer's assistant develops specific models of social behaviours, becomes a foundation of social activity of persons with disabilities. Whereas, while implementing the principle of subsidiary, influences the quality of life of persons with disabilities. He or she helps them in preventing or solving various social problems and prevents the self-exclusion of persons with disabilities.

Personally, I deeply believe in this idea, since it gives a chance to persons with disabilities who have been professionally and socially inactive for years and who have been only a statistical number in lists of various institutions. Properly organised work of the employer's assistant and monitoring environments of disabled persons allows preventing this often unwanted passiveness. I hope that the idea for the functioning of the employer's assistant's will penetrate our reality and find a permanent place between the sphere of the labour market and institutional support in the scope of the social and professional rehabilitation of persons with disabilities.

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²¹ P. Bourdieu, L.J.D. Wacquant, *Zaproszenie do socjologii refleksyjnej (An Invitation to Reflexive Sociology)*, Oficyna Naukowa, Warsaw 2001, pp. 104–105.

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