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Transl. Joanna Siemieniuk

TEACHING STYLES USED BY TEACHERS IN SPECIAL AND INTEGRATED SCHOOLS

School has a special role in developing social skills in students with mild intellectual disabilities. It is often the only place where important behaviors and competencies are shaped, and the teacher plays a key part in this process. In this paper, I analyzed teachers' assessments of their teaching styles by comparing opinions of teachers in special middle schools and in integrated middle schools. These settings follow different educational paths and, consequently, different teaching styles might be used. In the study, I also took into consideration the location of settings (Warsaw and near Warsaw). I used the Teacher Behavior Questionnaire by Grzegorz Sędek (1995). It includes the following dimensions of teachers' activities in class: encouraging curiosity and creativity, lack of control over the class, criticizing, pushing, demanding faithful reproduction, clarity of expression and movement, stimulating students' initiative in class, visualization and concretization of the material, and reminding students of the need to learn.

The study covered 121 middle school teachers, including 56 teachers in special schools and 65 teachers in integrated schools. The majority of respondents were women (81%). Most of the teachers had 10 to 20 years of service (30%) and were appointed teachers (47%) or chartered teachers (47%). The frequency of behaviors was presented as a percentage analysis. I assumed that the 0–20% range means that the teachers declare that they never show a given behavior, the 21–40% range – that a given behavior is rarely displayed, the 41–60% range – that the teachers sometimes behave in a given way, and the 61–80% range reveals frequent behaviors. The results above 80% indicate a very high frequency of a given behavior.

Keywords: teacher, teaching style, class, special middle school, integrated middle school

Introduction

The term “teaching style” has long been used in pedagogical practice and subject literature (including Mieszalski, 1997; Bałachowicz, 2009). Józefa Bałachowicz (*ibid.*, p. 159) defines styles of teaching as

“styles of educational activities in the classroom.” The term defines “a relatively constant way for the teacher to formulate tasks, expectations for pupils and ways to enforce them (including control and assessment of formulated expectations), ways to communicate with students, design and managing its activities, time management and student work rhythm, and peer interactions.” The choice of a particular style of educational activities, just like the style of communication, depends on what set of beliefs about the school and their place in it teachers have (Polak, 1999). These views he called the teacher’s individual theory. On the basis of such encrypted knowledge, the teacher creates a model of his educational activities. It can be an open model, which is characterized by the so-called invisible pedagogy, where rules and control do not manifest clearly. Education is focused on the student’s activity, communication and subjectivity. In the closed model, on the contrary, there is a strong structuring of roles, principles and rules that determine the choice of content and tasks, and the control of students is the teacher’s overriding task. Often these models are described as professional teaching styles: open and closed.

Didactic activities characterized by student’s independence, agency and subjectivity are of particular importance for school practice. They affect the shaping of social competences and the creation of a good socializing environment. Especially the model of open education corresponds to these conditions. It guarantees broadening freedom and responsibility, fosters self-regulation and making individual choices, and allows building trust in oneself, creating a positive image of oneself and positive relationships with peers and adults (Bałachowicz, 2009, pp. 159–162).

Grzegorz Sędek (1995) points to the specific skills of teachers that ensure the shaping of these competences. According to this author, these are behaviours represented by such categories as: stimulating curiosity and creativity of pupils; no control over the class; criticizing and urging; demand for accurate reproduction; clarity of expression and movement; stimulating activity on lessons; visualization and concretization of the material; a reminder of the need to learn. The author paid special attention to creating a friendly atmosphere in the lesson, excluding the feeling of psychological danger (*ibid.*, p. 153).

Research has shown that the teacher’s work style can be an important source of intellectual helplessness in lessons and the direct cause of low student achievement. They also revealed that there is a possibility of creating negative auto schemes on this database, transferred to other areas of functioning. In other words, a student who is helpless on a particular school subject (e.g. mathematics) may display a similar lack of competence in everyday life situations, e.g. during shopping (Sędek, 2005, p. 153). Hence the quite obvious conclusion about the special role of teaching styles in the social functioning of pupils.

Methodology of own research

Objectives and research questions

The main goal of the study was empirical and practical analysis of teaching styles of teachers working with students with intellectual disabilities. The study attempted to answer the following questions

1. Do there exist and what are the differences and similarities between the teaching styles used by teachers of special junior high school and integration junior high school?
2. Do there exist and what are the differences and similarities between teaching styles in the two studied environments (Warsaw, outside Warsaw)?

Searching for the answers to the above questions resulted from the observation that the system of special and integration education forces teachers to choose other action strategies. Special education teachers are usually focused on realizing the needs of students and focus more on shaping the social competences of the pupils. In addition, the homogeneity of the class assembly enables the unification of many impacts while applying the principle of individualization. On the other hand, the integrative form of education forces teachers to compromise, going beyond the needs of students with disabilities. On the one hand, it promotes the use of more diverse work styles adapted to the whole class team, and on the other hand requires more caution in applying the principle of individualization of teaching, which in this context may sometimes have more stigma characteristics than support. In addition, the teacher education process has generated situations in which special education teachers have a certain methodological superstructure – in addition to general and pedagogical education, they have specialist training. Teachers of integration schools are only recently required to have competences in the field of working with a student with disabilities. It can therefore be assumed that the work styles of teachers of both types of schools may differ.

Research tools and procedures

The research covered teachers who teach in integration and special schools in Warsaw and suburban towns. In Warsaw, 6 special and 7 integration junior high schools were selected. In Warsaw, at the same time, 6 special junior high schools and 14 integration junior high schools. In total, 121 teachers were surveyed, including 56 teachers of special schools and 65 integration schools.

The Teacher's Behaviour Questionnaire was used for the study. The tool was developed by Sędek (1995) and has the character of self-assessment. The questionnaire covers the areas of: transferring knowledge, checking its mastery and

skills related to interpersonal contacts and communication. The tool consists of 34 statements to which the teacher responds, using a five-point scale (1 – never, 2 – rarely, 3 – sometimes, 4 – often, 5 – always).

The questionnaire includes eight factors:

- factor 1 – stimulating curiosity and creativity;
- factor 2 – lack of control over the class;
- factor 3 – criticizing, urging;
- factor 4 – demand for accurate reproduction;
- factor 5 – clear expression, movement;
- factor 6 – stimulating activity during the lesson;
- factor 7 – visualization, concretization of the material;
- factor 8 – a reminder to learn.

Intensification of individual teacher behaviour was analysed in relation to the dimensions of teaching style and type of institution (special/integration schools) and its location (Warsaw/sub-Warsaw institutions). For general statistical analysis, I used calculations of arithmetic means and Student's t-test. In order to estimate the strength of the relationship between variables, I used V-Kramer.

Theoretical and empirical analysis of individual dimensions of teaching styles

Stimulating curiosity and creativity

Stimulating curiosity and creativity is associated with a work style that promotes asking questions and solving problems by students. It rewards flexibility and originality of thinking, generating bold ideas and creative activities of pupils. Develops fantasy, shapes intuitions and emotions. This type of behaviour is related to the choice of teaching content of a procedural nature ("I know how"), and not declarative ("I know that"). Stimulating curiosity is also associated with the use of specific teaching methods that refer to the imagination and hypothetical thinking and preferring the method of work focused on cooperation, not competition. In such a thought over teaching strategy, the subjective treatment of the student and the individualisation of teaching become relevant (ibid., p. 82). The need to teach young people the skills of creative thinking is important for a number of reasons. First of all, it interacts with the changes that are related to cognitive activities during adolescence. Thinking of students during adolescence takes the form of abstract and logical thinking with the ability to reflection and self-reflection. Cognitive interest and prediction are emerging. Thanks to the new "intellectual tools", which are formal operations, the young man checks the probability of observed changes and experiments. He begins

to observe the surroundings more carefully than ever before, he notices many things he has not noticed before, he analyses and draws conclusions, which results in increased criticism (Obuchowska, 1991, p. 172). Secondly, during adolescence, a young person faces the necessity of formulating a new identity. For this aim, he modifies his own vision of the world and develops different adaptation strategies. This promotes gaining experience and creating own schemes for solving difficult situations (Wojciechowski, 2007, p. 346).

The conducted research has shown that over 80% of teachers sometimes (43%) and often (44%) stimulate pupils' curiosity and creativity during lessons, while 2% of teachers never take such actions, and 3% – rarely. The maximum results (over 80%) of the maximum result suggest that 7% of teachers very often stimulate student curiosity and creativity in the lesson.

Lack of control over the class

Certain teachers' characteristics allow effective control of the class. These include: omnipresence, that is paying attention in the classroom and in personal contacts, to always know what is happening; divisibility that allows you to deal with many things at once; fluidity, enabling reacting in the right way in critical situations.

Class management is not only a matter of strategy used in the classroom, but also the attitudes and beliefs of teachers. Some of them emphasize the implementation of the plan they have prepared for the lesson, while others are focused on dialogue with students and their relationships. The first are called "strategic" teachers, others – "communicative". Both roles can, and even more or less should, be played by the same person. One direction allows to create a climate of cooperation, relationships and critical thinking. The second one helps to preserve a certain order and discipline necessary for effective work. Lack of balancing of both tendencies may lead to lack of control over the class or its excess. A weak class leader who cannot control it is usually a teacher who is characterized by a lack of self-confidence, often strives for popularity among students due to his indulgence. At the other end of the continuum, there is a teacher who exercises excessive control, who constantly supervises everything and is often a source of stress and confusion in the classroom. In the middle of this continuum is an approach based on real control, exercised by a teacher who confidently applies clear strategies and is able to build a climate conducive to learning through good relationships and positive feelings both for the whole class and individual students (Robertson, 1998, p. 182).

The key principles that should guide a teacher who controls the class in the right way are: building a coherent system of reacting to students' behaviour; use of non-verbal signals to attract group attention; informing students what kind of behaviour a teacher expects from them; paying attention to positive class behaviours; maintaining the continuity of action on the lesson (natural or-

der of classes); using evaluation of organizing the summary of classes; problem solving in a way that does not lead to escalation (*ibid.*, p. 173).

These activities are particularly important during adolescence. The young man in the face of rapid changes caused by biological and intellectual development and new expectations from the society requires clear rules and patterns of behaviour and acceptance, understanding and broadening the limits of freedom. However, the effects of excessive control or lack of control may include psychological tension, anxiety, neurotic reactions, antisocial behaviour, and aggression (Şeđek, 1995, p. 118).

According to the results of teachers' opinions about the level of their control over the class, 61% of teachers declared that they never lose control over the class. Teachers who declared that they rarely lose control of the class were 25%, while 4% of teachers claimed that they often do and 2% always lose control. The results indicated, therefore, that the vast majority of teachers do not lose control and only a small percentage of the teachers surveyed have a problem with this type of behaviour.

Criticizing and urging

Criticizing in the colloquial sense is most often associated with pointing out mistakes and flaws. Is equated with valuation and almost always perceived pejorative way. In traditional school didactics, assessments often have the character of destructive criticism, which has a punitive function. It can be recognized by the fact that it is not specific and unclear, concerns people not actions and work, refers to traits that student cannot influence, sometimes aggressive and hurt. It is often perceived as a verdict, making the person feel "out of order", "bad". It exaggerates errors (through such words as "never", "always"). Often, it also violates the sense of personal dignity. Many young people respond to this type of criticism with open aggression. It also happens that criticism provokes withdrawal or submission. Then, the youth treats critics as the only truth about themselves, looking for fault in themselves, deprecating their value. As a result, they obey such judgments and lose faith in themselves more and more. Martin Seligmann (2005) emphasizes the importance of teacher commenting on school successes and failures that are important in the process of creating a pessimistic or optimistic style that explains events. As a result, the student develops a negative attitude towards school as an institution and he ceases to overcome his learning difficulties (Şeđek, 1995, p. 135). Adolescent youth is an extremely sensitive recipient of messages about themselves. During this period, "the process of self-development takes place under the influence of the social environment and specific social experiences. A negative image of oneself causes anxiety, which can lead to social maladjustment. Positive evaluation gives confidence, provides emotional balance, a favourable attitude towards others, better contacts with people" (Wojciechowski, 2007, p. 93).

Urging in school practice is a denial of the principle of individualization and adaptation of program requirements to the student's individual needs. For students with educational difficulties, this means difficulties in mastering knowledge and school failures, which additionally arouses feelings of harm and under-valuation. For the teacher, time pressure is associated with frequent admonition and embarrassment of the student. The use of urging as a certain style of work has little to do with the supportive role of the teacher and the implementation of the teaching and educational goals set before the integration or special education.

The results of the research on the differentiation of the level of intensification of teachers' behaviour indicating criticism and urging of junior high school students have shown that 54% of teachers never criticize or urge their students, 31% do so rarely. A small percentage of teachers declare that they do it often (7%) or sometimes (9%).

A demand for accurate reproduction

According to Sędek (1995), the demand for an accurate reproduction of knowledge is the basic district of intellectual helplessness. A teacher who requires a memory mastering of the message and passive playback of it blocks the ability to think independently, use knowledge in practice, its effective processing and assimilation. Sędek (ibid., p. 45) in passive submission to someone else's control sees the reasons for the loss of autonomy and inability to cope in life. The essence of this style of work is the students' browsing through the textbooks and cramming a thousand pieces of information, listening to the lecture and faithfully saving it in a notebook. The ability to reproduce information understood in this way is identified with the fact of learning. Acquiring information, analysis, and intellectual processing are of course an important element of learning, but only an element, not the whole process. Junior secondary school students, developed for critical and independent thinking, in contact with this type of requirements, quickly learn how to make appearances, achieve the minimum and apply the easiest way (Wojciechowski, 2007, p. 104).

According to the declaration, the majority (84%) of the surveyed teachers rarely (44%) or only sometimes (40%) demand accurate reproduction from their pupils. Teachers in a small group indicated that never (7%) require passive reproduction of knowledge and 7% declared that do it often. In a minimal percentage, teachers indicated that they always (2%) demand faithful reproduction of the material taught.

Clarity of expression and movement

Clarity of expression, movement on the lesson are the equivalents of teachers' commitment and creativity. Clarity in teaching means a coherent system of

expression and a transparent style of work. Expression concerns both expressing emotions and the ability to evoke emotions. The teacher's activity influences the atmosphere in the classroom and increases the motivation to work. The mentioned features are conducive to the use of active teaching methods and multi-channel learning. They allow not only to transfer knowledge effectively (i.e. to show, speak, inspire actions), but also to exert on the student a personal example of commitment and enthusiasm. According to Bałachowicz (2009, p. 318), the ability to impart subject knowledge, ingenious didactics, stimulating interest and emotional involvement in work promotes the raising of prestige and recognition on the part of young people. This is especially important during adolescence when a young person is looking for personal patterns and sources of inspiration to build their identity.

According to teachers' declarations, the majority (74%) sometimes (36%) and often (38%) conduct classes using expression and movement, while 15% of teachers do it always. Other answers indicate that teachers rarely (8%) use this type of activity, and 2% of teachers declared that they never use clear expression and lesson traffic.

Stimulating activity

The concept of activity is not easy to define. It can be taken from the perspective of creative activities, transforming the surrounding reality, creating new things and spontaneous, independent actions resulting from internal motives. Activity, however, is always considered a source of development. The teacher, wanting to achieve such a goal, should not only stimulate students' interest and allow them to independently solve the problem, but also to develop spontaneity and openness to the ideas of others, to wisely implement and create an inspiring atmosphere to ask questions, awakening activity, but also giving them calmness and peace of mind (Sędek, 1995, p. 165). They must value and support pupils' initiative, avoid stiff patterns, avoid unilateral routine in situations where there are many ways to proceed, use a variety of methods and forms of work. According to Sędek (ibid.), the teacher can program students' activity and intensify internal motivation, create opportunities for students to personally influence the course of events and encourage internal control (ibid., p. 169). This is related to the subjectivity and autonomy that is crucial for adolescents. Therefore, stimulating the activity of junior high school students is not only a didactic task, which increases the chances for better results in learning, but also related to the acquisition of experience necessary for the development of a young person's personality. The study showed that none of the teachers indicated the range suggesting the lack of such activity (never or rarely), while 50% of teachers declared that do it often, and 18% – that they sometimes stimulate student activity, very frequent activities are declared by 31% of teachers.

Visualization, concretisation of material

Visualization and concretization allows to systematize acquired knowledge or to better remember it using drawings, symbols, words, slogans, patterns. It can also be used to analyse the problem, improve planning skills, classify, generalize, as well as cooperate in the group, communicate and negotiate. The most commonly used visualization and materialization techniques are images, audio-visual didactic materials, diagrams, tables, mental maps, decision trees, but also gestures, stage play or music (Pilch, 2004, p. 65). The teacher does not have to make visualizations by himself from the beginning to the end. There are more and more materials within reach that can be used and build the content of the lesson. According to Zenon Gajdzica (2007) well-used visual means favour individualisation and contribute to the process in which “the student finds and uses knowledge in a near-real situation” (ibid., p. 162). This is particularly important in the context of the information society, which has already taught young people to acquire knowledge and communicate around the world through various communication channels.

The results of the study showed that no teacher declared that he never used visualization and material concretization, while 53% of the surveyed teachers said that he used such work methods very often, 35% said that they used visualizations and concretizations often, and 12% sometimes. Only 1% of teachers did it rarely.

A reminder of the need to learn

It is not enough to learn something to be able to use it in the future. For this you need a process of fixing and repeating the material. Correct and above all permanent mastering of messages, especially skills, requires: time distribution, the right number of repetitions, motivation and skills to focus attention and control the degree of fatigue (Pilch, 2004, p. 124). Teacher, applying the principle of recalling the need to learn, must take into account the psychological determinants of memorization, which include: rapid knowledge growth at the first repetitions, the effect of overfitting arose as a result of continuing repetition after learning the learned content, phenomenon of reminiscence and interference, i.e. subsequent involuntary reminder and impossibility of remembering similar content (Szewczuk, 1957, p. 76).

The study showed that 47% of the surveyed teachers sometimes remind students of the need to learn. Similar indications relate to frequent (25%) and rare (24%) reminding students about the need to learn. Only 2% of teachers declared that they do it very often or never. It can therefore be assumed that the reminder of the need to learn for the majority of teachers is an important element of the learning process.

Analysing the results of teachers' work styles, it can be stated that the declarations of intensification of dominant behaviours representing particular dimensions of these styles are in line with social expectations. The majority (about 83%) of teachers declare that sometimes or often stimulate pupils' curiosity and

creativity in class, more than half (61%) never lose control of the class; more than half (54%) never criticize or urges students or do so rarely (31%), less than half of teachers rarely (44%) or sometimes (40%) demand accurate reproduction. At the same time, as many as 74% of teachers often or sometimes use clear expression and movement during lessons, and 81% of teachers always or often stimulate students' activity in the classroom and the same number of teachers declare that they often or sometimes use visualizations and material concretizations. Reminders about the need to learn are important for 72% of teachers (they do it often and very often). Such an optimistic result may partly be a consequence of the applied research procedure, which assumed the self-assessment of teachers (the respondents' question about their behaviour).

Diversification of teacher behaviour in particular dimensions of teaching styles depending on the type of school

Table 1

Diversification of teacher behaviour depending on the type of school

Teacher behaviour	Type of school	N	\bar{x}	s	s ²	F	t	p.i
Arousing curiosity and creativity	Integrating	64	0.64	2.05	4.21	1.02	0.503	n.i.
	Special	57	0.62	2.07	4.28			
Lack of control over class	Integrating	64	0.27	3.24	10.52	1.41	1.659	n.i.
	Special	57	0.21	3.85	14.79			
Criticizing and urging	Integrating	64	0.26	2.65	7.03	1.25	0.550	n.i.
	Special	57	0.24	2.97	8.81			
A demand for accurate reproduction	Integrating	64	0.43	1.99	3.94	1.13	1.123	n.i.
	Special	57	0.40	2.11	4.46			
Clear expression and movement	Integrating	64	0.62	2.61	6.79	1.25	0.408	n.i.
	Special	57	0.60	2.91	8.48			
Stimulating activity during classes	Integrating	64	0.73	2.00	4.00	1.10	0.124	n.i.
	Special	57	0.72	2.24	4.04			
Visualization and material concretization	Integrating	64	0.78	2.43	5.92	1.42	0.102	n.i.
	Special	56	0.77	2.55	6.50			
A reminder of the need to learn	Integrating	64	0.53	2.04	4.15	1.14	2.620	p < 0.01
	Special	57	0.47	2.43	5.90			

Explanations: N – number of respondents; \bar{x} – arithmetic mean; s – standard deviation; s² – variances; F – Fisher test; t – student's t-test; p.i. – level of significance; ni – statistically insignificant; p – statistical significance index.

The next stage of the research was to determine the differences in the intensification of behaviour of teachers of teaching styles depending on the type of school (integration, special). The obtained results are presented in Table 1.

In most of the analysed dimensions, no significant statistical differences in terms of teaching styles between teachers of integration and special institutions were noticed. An exception is the intensification of behaviours indicating reminding about the need to learn (Figure 1). This behaviour is more preferred by teachers of integration schools ($t = 2.62, p < 0.01$).

Analysis of the graphic image shows that more teachers of integration schools (about 50%) than special schools (about 40%) declare that they sometimes remind of the need to learn. The same group of teachers declares that they often use the reminder of the need to learn. The distribution of results also indicates that fewer teachers of integration schools (around 10%), compared to teachers in special schools (about 30%), think that they rarely remind of the need to learn. Therefore, it can be concluded that fewer teachers of integration schools declare that they rarely remind of the need to learn, but more of them declare that they do it often and very often. In relation to special schools, an opposite trend can be observed.

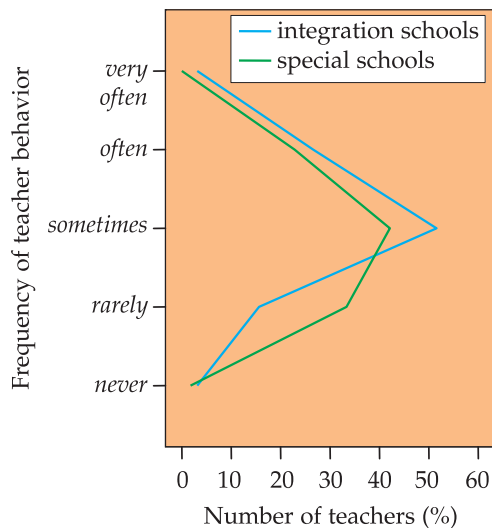


Figure 1. A reminder about the necessity to learn and the type of school – diversification of teachers' behaviour depending on the type of institution [N = 121]

Diversity of teacher behaviour depending on the location of the facility (Warsaw – outside of Warsaw)

To the similar statistical analysis (as in the case of the type of school) was subjected the level of intensification of teacher behaviour depending on the

location of the institution. I included junior high schools in Warsaw and a suburban town. In Table 2, I presented the results obtained.

Table 2

Diversity of teacher behaviour depending on the location of the facility
(Warsaw – outside of Warsaw)

Teacher behaviour	Location	N	\bar{x}	s	s^2	F	t	p.i
Arousing curiosity and creativity	Warsaw	59	0.63	2.11	4.46	3.82	-0.197	n.i
	outside Warsaw	62	0.63	4.13	17.06			
Lack of control over class	Warsaw	59	0.22	5.84	34.14	1.63	-1.383	n.i
	outside Warsaw	62	0.26	7.46	55.61			
Criticising and urging	Warsaw	59	0.23	3.22	10.37	1.12	-1.264	n.i
	outside Warsaw	62	0.27	3.04	9.23			
Demanding accurate reproduction	Warsaw	59	0.39	2.23	4.96	2.24	-1.876	n.i
	outside Warsaw	62	0.44	3.33	11.11			
Clear expression and movement	Warsaw	59	0.63	2.76	7.61	1.65	1.555	n.i
	outside Warsaw	62	0.58	3.55	12.57			
Stimulating activity during classes	Warsaw	59	0.73	2.59	6.67	2.45	0.290	n.i
	outside Warsaw	62	0.72	4.05	16.42			
Visualisation, concretization of material	Warsaw	59	0.81	2.25	5.07	2.77	-2.530	p < 0.05
	outside Warsaw	62	0.74	3.75	14.03			
A reminder of the need to learn	Warsaw	59	0.47	2.31	5.34	2.17	-2.033	p < 0.05
	outside Warsaw	62	0.53	3.40	11.59			

Explanations: N – number of respondents; \bar{x} – arithmetic mean; s – standard deviation; s^2 – variances; F – Fisher test; t – student's t-test; p.i. – level of significance; ni – statistically insignificant; p – statistical significance index

In most of the dimensions considered, I did not find statistically significant differences in the scope of intensification of behaviour between Warsaw and non-Warsaw gymnasium teachers. The only exception are behaviours indicating the visualization and concretization of the material ($t = 2.53$, $p < 0.05$). This behaviour turned out to be more declared by teachers of lower secondary schools in Warsaw. At the same time, the intensification of behaviours indicating the reminder of the need to learn ($t = -2.03$, $p < 0.05$) is higher in teachers of schools from suburban towns.

Despite the fact that no statistical difference in stimulating the activity of junior high school students between facilities located in different locations was noticed, the distribution of results deserves attention. As a result of further correlation analysis (V Kramer's = 0.25, $p < 0.05$), a weak statistical relationship was found between the activity of junior high school students and the location of the institution (empirical correlation). The graphical distribution of the results is shown in Figures 2–4.

The graphic image of the relation between variables indicates that more teachers of Warsaw schools (about 70%) than teachers from outside Warsaw (around 40%) declared frequent use of visualizations in the lesson.

About 50% of teachers from schools outside Warsaw declare that they sometimes exhibits this type of behaviour. The same level of intensity of behaviour was declared by only 20% of Warsaw school teachers. Therefore, it can be concluded that more teachers of Warsaw schools often use visualization and concretization in lessons, and a higher percentage of teachers from schools outside of Warsaw do it sometimes.

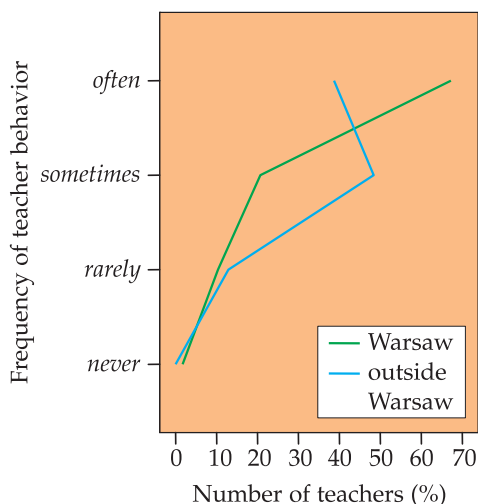


Figure 2. Visualization, concretization of the material – diversification of teachers' behaviour depending on the school's location [N = 120]

There are statistically significant differences in the scope of intensification of behaviours indicating reminding about the necessity to learn depending on the location of the institution. Graphical analysis of the results shows that the vast majority of Warsaw school teachers (about 50%) and outside Warsaw (around 40%) sometimes remind of the need to learn. A similar number of teachers from both groups do so both rarely and very often.

The distribution of results between variables indicates some differences between the behaviors of Warsaw and Warsaw school teachers. The graphical distribution of the obtained results indicates that the level of behavior stimulation among teachers of schools from outside Warsaw is similar in all analyzed ranges. This means that a similar percentage of teachers (around 30%) declare that they sometimes and often stimulate the activity of junior high school students. The graphical distribution of the results of Warsaw gymnasium teachers is much more diverse. Most teachers (around 60%) declare that they often stimulate students' activity, while about 20% of teachers declare that they do it both rarely and often.

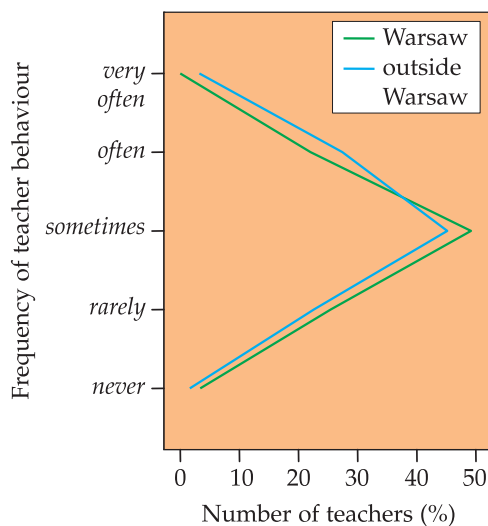


Figure 3. A reminder of the need to learn – diversifying the intensification of teacher behavior depending on the school's location [N = 121]

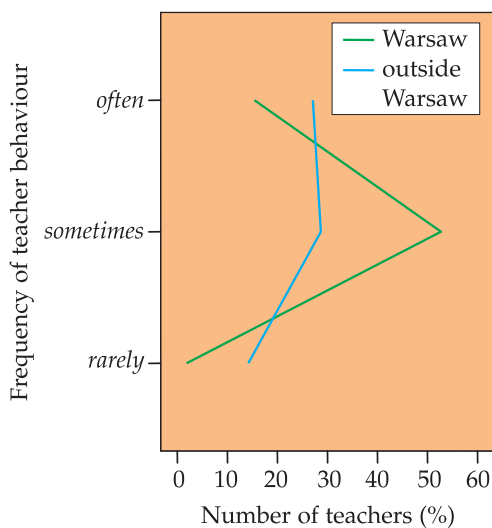


Figure 4. Stimulating activity – diversifying teacher behaviour depending on the school's location [N = 121]

Discussion and summary

The obtained results do not diversify the teaching styles. It may be the result of the applied research procedure – questioning the respondents about their behaviour. Research carried out by Şeđek (2005) also indicated that teachers,

when assessing their own behaviour, often do not see the lack of their competences. According to the author, this may be due to the fact that an incompetent teacher often does not see that he is teaching badly or cannot properly assess which elements of the diagnosis of his behaviour are the most accurate (ibid., p. 31). A similar tendency was observed in the research of Katarzyna Ćwirynkała (2010). In this study, most teachers assessed that in their work they use a democratic style that favours the subjectivity and autonomy of students, but further research conducted in a group of students indicated a low or very low level of agency, subjectivity and autonomy. Therefore, despite the teacher's declarations about the subjective nature of teaching, it was likely that the opposite style was the preferred one in schools – the directive (ibid., p. 193). The obtained results may therefore indicate the so-called mirror effect, which sees the limited possibilities of perceiving their deficiencies in the lack of reliable feedback (Sędek, 2005, p. 31).

Greater intensification of behaviours related to visualization and material concretization among Warsaw school teachers may result from better access to modern teaching aids and professional improvement in the innovative methods of work of this group of teachers. Greater intensification of behaviours indicating the need to learn at the teachers of integration schools and schools outside Warsaw may result from the attitude of this group of teachers to cooperation with parents and expectations of help in the process of teaching students with disabilities.

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ACTIVITIES OF SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTIONS FOR DEAF AND BLIND CHILDREN ESTABLISHED ON THE INITIATIVE OF LVIV JEWS FROM 1871 THROUGH 1939

The article describes the initiatives of the Jewish community in Lviv in the area of special education taken during the Galician autonomy period (1867–1918) and in independent Poland (1918–1939). It is based on little known references kept in Lviv and Cracow archives. Lviv Jews' interest in the education of blind and deaf children was awoken by Vienna, where the first schools for the deaf and the blind in Europe had been established. The article presents the functioning of the first Jewish center for deaf children and adolescents on Polish lands – it was established by Izaak Józef Bardach in 1871. The institution functioned as a private school, supporting itself mainly through subsidies from the city of Lviv and from the local Jewish community till 1939 when it was incorporated into the state school for the deaf at Łyczakowskiej street. The Jews from Lviv contributed to the establishment of the first Jewish school for the blind in Poland. It was set up in Bojanowo in 1926 and transferred to Warsaw in 1936. The article expands the current state of research on the history of schooling for people with disabilities on Polish lands, showing the contribution of the Jewish community to the development of schools for the deaf and the blind.

Keywords: history of special education, deaf, blind, Lviv, Jews

Introduction

The beginnings of Polish special education date back to the 19th century. Pioneering activities in the field of care and upbringing of children affected by disability were undertaken by residents of Warsaw. In 1817, a priest Jakub Falkowski founded the Institute for the Deaf in the capital, and in 1842, another priest Józef Szczygielski established a unit for the blind in it, and the entire place was transformed into the Institute of the Deaf and the Blind (Grochowski, 1990, pp. 36–39; Gasik, 1990, pp. 96–101). Another Polish centre of educational activity that took into account the needs of deaf and blind children

and young people, was Lviv. In 1830 the first institute for the deaf-mute was established there, and in 1851 the first one for the blind (Pękowska, 2003).

The Jewish community joined the pioneer work in the field of special education in the Austrian partition. In Galicia, this minority constituted about 10% of the total population, mainly concentrated in cities and towns. In some of them it even dominated, for example in Brody, Kolomyia and Drohobycz. In the capital of Galicia, Lviv, Jews constituted about 30% of the population, before the outbreak of World War II there were about 100.000 of them (Łapot, 2016, pp. 32–33).

The Jewish population in the second half of the nineteenth and early twentieth century was subject to the process of assimilation, while at the same time caring for the preservation of their own identity. Children and adolescents fulfilled the school duty in public institutions, in which their moral and religious diversity was taken into account. Jewish holidays were free from education, the teaching of the Mosaic religion was included in the teaching plans, and in some schools the Hebrew language was also included as an optional subject. Religious education was provided by traditional Jewish schools, cheders and yeshiva, with the status of private schools. These institutions, both public and private, were not adapted to the needs of disabled children, especially the blind and deaf.

In 1830, when the aforementioned school for deaf people was established in Lviv, 1312 people with this disability were recorded in all of Galicia, 400 of whom were eligible to be placed in the institution. In 1880, there were as many as 8.245 deaf people and 4.611 blind people, and a decade later, respectively, 9.920 and 5.028 (the population of Galicia was 7 million at that time) (Pękowska, 2003, pp. 31–32). The number of school-aged children with hearing impairment was estimated at about 2000 (Balukiewicz, 2000, p. 39). Among them, a certain percentage was Jewish youth. With this in mind, this minority undertook activities aimed at creating institutions providing the basis of general and vocational education while respecting Jewish tradition and religion. Thus, it contributed to the development of special education practices in Polish territories.

This article aims to present the initiatives of the Jewish community in Lviv during the period of Galician autonomy (1867–1918) and in independent Poland (1918–1939) in the field of special education. It broadens the current state of research on the history of education of disabled people for information not widely known from source materials stored in the Lviv and Krakow archives.

Isaac Józef Bardach school for deaf-mute

Genesis of the school

The first – not only in Galicia, but also in all Polish territories – Jewish institution dealing with disabled children was the school of Izaak Józef Bardach,

founded in 1871 in Lviv¹. Its founder, a longtime manager and teacher, was born in Lviv in 1847. He was educated in a local elementary school, after which he moved to Vienna, where he completed a teacher's seminar (Łapot, 2016, p. 140).

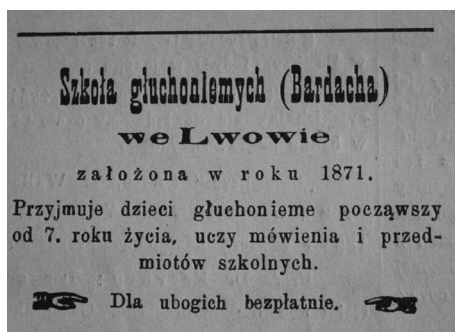


Figure 1. Newspaper advertisement of Józef Bardach's school. Source: "Future" 1895, 9, p. 12

In the mid-19th century, Vienna was the center of pioneer activities in the field of education for the disabled in the world. The first school for deaf people in Austria was Das k.k. Taubstummen-Institut in Wien, founded in 1779,² just nine years after the first such institution of Charles Michael de l'Épée (1712–1789) in Paris. An outstanding blind pianist and singer Maria Teresa von Paradies (1759–1824) also came from Vienna. Her example – self-education, which led her to musical perfection – contributed at the turn of the eighteenth and nineteenth century to pay attention to the need to educate the blind. In the capital of the Habsburg monarchy, the first Jewish school for deaf people in the world was created. In 1853 Das Allgemeine Österreichische Israelitische Taubstummen-Institut in Wien was established (Sechzigster..., 1914, p. 7; E.E., 1913, pp. 636–646).³

During his studies at the teacher's seminary in Vienna, Bardach took a practice at a Jewish school for deaf and the encounter with the problem of teaching a deaf child focused his further professional activities. He gained further experience in this field by visiting schools for deaf and mute people in Germany. Among others, he visited Leipzig, where Samuel Heinicke (1727–1790) in 1778 founded the first plant in Germany for the deaf.

¹ Other Jewish institutions were established: in 1901 in Międzyrzec Podlaski, in 1910 in Łódź, and in 1923 or 1925 in Warsaw (Pękowska, 2007, pp. 316–317).

² Here, the experience necessary to run a school for deaf people in the Kingdom of Poland was acquired by the Polish precursor of this branch of special education, mentioned at the beginning of the article, Jakub Falkowski.

³ The school was founded in 1844 in Nikolsburg (today's Mikulov in the Czech Republic), and in 1853 she was transferred to Vienna (Schott, 1999). Among the charges of the Vienna institution were children from Galicia.

After returning to Lviv in 1871, Bardach opened the second in the city, but the first Jewish school educating deaf-mute children. The National School Board – the main educational office in Galicia – approved its statute in 1874.

Organization and development of the school

The school had the status of a private school. It was co-educational; this system, however, did not result from the awareness of the advantages of joint teaching and education of both genders, but for organizational reasons. The students were divided into two classes, created according to the age criterion and advanced in science. The next division – by gender – was inadvisable due to the low number of students.

Bardach was the only teacher. He worked individually with approximately 15–20 students, although the educational provisions for this type of facilities provided for a standard of 8–10 pupils per teacher.⁴ In the years 1892–1905 Bardach was assisted by the daughter of Cecylia Katz (Almanach, 1937, pp. 986–988), and since 1905 his younger daughter, Rebeka (Rela) Bardach-Tolieczowa. The latter, from a child raised among deaf people and knowing their needs, followed in the footsteps of her father. In 1905 she graduated from a pedagogical seminar, and after her father's death in 1926, she took over the management of the school (Almanach, 1937, pp. 988–989; Report, 1907, p. 299).

The school was struggling with poor housing conditions. Its first location was the building of the Jewish community at 3 Za Zbrojownią St., also occupied by a folk school for Jewish girls (it was named after Abraham Kohna). Its equipment was very modest. The deaf-mute unit was located in one room, at its disposal were: a table, a blackboard, five chairs and two stools. Teaching aids were: one abacus, 24 coloured boards, images of printed letters and words. The school library consisted of 20 items for the teacher and 15 for students (Hausman, 1875, pp. 1–2).

The building had poor sanitary and hygienic conditions, so in the 1890s, the school was moved to a tenement house at 10 Kotlarska St., however, they were not suitable either. Bardach urged the Jewish community with applications for the allocation of another place. In 1890, the school was relocated again, but again to the building that did not correspond to school needs, this time to the building of military barracks at Kotlareka St.

In the interwar period, the school was moved to the Jewish kehilla building at 5 St. Stanisław St., where there was a male branch of the school named after Abraham Kohn. Both institutions remained under the leadership of Henryk Spatz.

⁴ For comparison, in a Christian institution at Łyczakowska St. there were 74 children, under the care of seven teachers (Balukiewicz, 2000, p. 39).

The main problem were the housing conditions. Here is how the branch for the deaf people looked like in the 1928 report:

In one room, quite large, in old school desks of various kinds, there were about 16 pupils and students of all ages, presumably from 8 to 16 years old [...]. There was no room for school aids, an office or so. The room was on the first floor, and the children played mostly on the street [...]. The whole device was also quite worn out and did not give the impression that the Jewish Community devotes a lot of effort to it (Pękowska, 2003, p. 83).

During the Austrian Partition, the number of pupils was about 20 people. For example, in 1890, 17 pupils were taught (12 boys and 5 girls), and in 1892 22 (16 boys, 6 girls). The majority came from Lviv (11) and the rest from Russia, Bukovina and Romania. In the year 1905/06, only 16 students took lessons, of which 13 were aged 6–13, and in 1908 there were 20 pupils (10 girls and boys) (Łapot, 2016, p. 143).

The money for the maintenance of the school was acquired by the owner from various sources. The structure of the school budget changed, with the share of external subsidies increasing in relation to student fees. In 1892, the proceeds from the tuition accounted for 55% of the budget, and in 1903 only 25%. The subsidies were obtained from: the National Department in Galicia, the Lviv magistrate, the Jewish commune in Lviv and the Association for Supporting the Deaf (Jewish Society). Many students could not afford to pay tuition fees. It is known that in 1890 out of 17 charges only 7 paid regular tuition for each month, and the rest attended school free of charge (ibid.). In 1886 he school owner wrote:

Students, like in other establishments for deaf people, tend to be almost all poor, thanks to which the teacher only lives out of the subsidy and pays for the expenses connected with education and provides necessary scientific instruments. It should be mentioned that the signed teacher also pays a handicrafts teacher with his own fund (Bardach, 1886, p. 20).

After paying for the cost of renting the premises, fuel and light, teaching aids, the owner had too little money to support himself and his family. Bardach constantly applied for grants and subsidies.

Pupils and charges of the Bardach school, both in the period of Galician autonomy and in the interwar period, were supported by social societies, financing rental of accommodation in the city, tuition, food, clothing and footwear and offering help in finding a job. At the end of the 19th century, the Association for Supporting Deaf Children in Lviv was established. Its chairman was Zofia Rosenzweig, and vice-chairman Maria de Mieses, later replaced by Ernestyna Klärman and Dr. Wilhelm Holzer, and the treasurer was Anna Caro. The association was active until the outbreak of the First World War.

In the interwar period, the Jewish Association for Mutual Help for Deaf people was established in Lviv (it led the Central Outbreak of Jewish Deaf people in Lviv). Its president was Gerszon Rosenfeld, and the secretary was Jakub Grad. In 1930, the list of members of the society included 17 names. Some of them were students of the Bardach school, performing tailor, shoemaker and bookbinder professions (Łapot, 2016, p. 180).

Didactic work

In the school he founded, Bardach used the improved method of Samuel Heinicki. In addition to Charles de l'Épépé, he was the creator of the surdopedagogical methodology. However, unlike the French pedagogue developing the sign method, Heinicke assumed that education for deaf people should fulfil a social function (enable contact with hearing people). The sign language with the finger alphabet limited the contact of the deaf to only those who knew the signs, and Heinicke developed the voice teaching method.

It consisted in developing speech in the deaf. Heinicki's voice method was used at the Vienna institution, in which Bardach was teaching, and in German, which he visited. He also introduced it in his Lviv school. Following the example of German pedagogues, he tried to make the pupils articulate the sounds and read from the mouth movement while imitating speech formation in babies. The voice method was also used in the Deaf Department at Łyczakowska St. in Lviv, but the methodology of teaching was different in both institutions. In the Christian school, in the teaching of speaking, people passed from vowels through consonants to syllables and finally words, while in the Jewish one they started with the pronunciation of full words.

The division of the word into individual voices was carried out only when learning to write. In the Jewish school, the results of teaching were good mainly in the group of students with residual hearing and deaf people as a result of illness and accidents. This group of students dominated among Bardach's pupils, for example, there were 4 deaf pupils among 26 enrolled in the school in 1892, 4 of them were deaf as a result of the illness – 13, and deaf from birth – 9 (Pękowska, 2003, p. 82).

Educated in Vienna, Bardach developed a teaching workshop, following the development of special didactics in the West. He was interested in the Berlin solution consisting in introducing a school obligation for children who are deaf and blind as well as in the American one. In Philadelphia, a school for deaf children at the age of two was opened with an innovative method of teaching propaedeutics – through clear, slow speaking children were accustomed to reading speech from the mouth and were prepared for regular school education.

After that, the children started their education at the folk school for hearing children, the learning outcomes were surprisingly good. Bardach was aware

that in Galician conditions such solutions were impossible. It was closer to the achievements of Dr Viktor Hammerschlag from Vienna, who recommended separate teaching of deaf children and those with hearing impairments, creating separate classes for children who are deaf from birth, and taking into account the division into mental development groups (Łapot, 2016, pp. 140, 144).

Initially, the Jewish school students were taught in German and Hebrew. However, when in the era of Galician autonomy the Polish language became the language of instruction in public education, the municipality made subsidies dependent on the introduction of the Polish language. However, it was not easy, because for Jews, the Polish language was a foreign language, and the methodology used by Bardach was based on German. Under the pressure of school and municipal authorities, Bardach gradually introduced Polish lexicon. In 1884, in the opinion of the District School District Council in Lviv, decisive for granting a subsidy by the magistrate, school inspector, well-known educator Mieczysław Baranowski, it was advisable to combine Polish and German because "due to the living conditions in which these children remain, the ability to pronounce words and sentences in German is also desirable for them" (Baranowski, 1884, k. 11).

During the Galician autonomy, school classes lasted four hours a day. The curriculum included pronunciation of sounds, words and sentences, writing, grammar, counting, biblical history and religion (Hebrew prayers, Decalogue, major holidays). It was extended to include classes in natural history, nature and geography, drawings, and manual work for girls (sewing, embroidery, household, etc.) and boys (learning dexterity, basketry, bookbinding) (Pękowska, 2003, pp. 82–83).

The learning outcomes were assessed positively by educational supervision. In 1884, inspector Baranowski drew attention to the need to refine the program of *ślōjdu* lessons (handwork) and calligraphy (Baranowski, 1884, p. 11). In 1888, he noted with satisfaction that "Isaac Bardach, using an appropriate method, leads to certain results in learning" (*ibid.*, k. 27).

Another inspector, Franciszek Szpetmański, in the report of the visit in 1894 stated:

In my presence, children from all four branches were questioned in pronouncing and writing sounds, snippets, words, even whole sentences, in counting and reading and writing. The progress of pupils and students is satisfactory. In terms of cleanliness and order, this institution leaves a lot to be desired, the discipline quite well maintained (Szpetmański, 1894, p. 57).

The presentation of teaching results was organized annually at the end of the school year during the so-called student demonstrations. Representatives of religious and public authorities attended them as guests: inspector Baranowski, member of the National Parliament in Galicia Dr. Filip Zucker, councillor Dr. J. Gottlieb and rabbi Natan Löwenstein, deputy for the parliament Dr. Bernard

Goldman and city councillor Dr. Emil Byk and dr. Henryk Gottlieb. The performances had a ceremonial setting of the assembly, the students showed their knowledge and skills, such as speaking, reading, writing and counting.

Archival relations from performances shed light on the nature of the work and didactic problems with which the teachers struggled and on the state of disability diagnosis at the end of the nineteenth century. During them, representatives of the school authorities stated that students were not only deaf children, but also mentally ill. Lack of hearing sometimes covered defects of intellectual development, but due to the lack of a proper institution mentally disabled were sent to Bardach's school.

The teaching plan was changed in 1932 as part of the Jędrzejewicz reform. Education lasted 7 years. It was divided into 4 levels: the first covered 2 years of learning pronunciation, reading, writing, everyday activities, accounts up to 20; second and third – lasted two years together, and the fourth – one year. Only one teacher, Bardach-Toliecz, worked at the school. The curriculum was implemented in accordance with the guidelines of the Ministry of Religious Denominations and Public Education. In 1933, there were 23 pupils – 30% of them came from the provinces, the rest from Lviv. In the school year 1934/1935 there were 27 students, and in 1937 – 15 (Łapot, 2016, p. 178).

Teaching took place in two groups: the first (eight-person) included children from grades III and IV. The progress in Polish, according to the inspector Jan Gerlach who visited it in 1934, was good or sufficient – all students were able to read from the mouth and illustrate the correct understanding with sign language. News from current events in Poland (e.g. about who the president is, who Marshal Piłsudski is) was also satisfactory. On December 7, 1934, Inspector Gerlach visited the school and said: "Reła Bardach-Tolieczowa reveals a good knowledge of deaf-mute teaching, she is respected by older children. She is an intelligent, stable and methodically prepared person" (Gerlach, 1932, k. 244).

The first group stayed in one room with the second group - children from grades I and II. However, Bardach-Tolablowa taught it at the time when the first group was involved in the so-called "Quiet" classes. The level of knowledge and skills of children from the second grade was similar to the level of children from the 1st grade of primary school.

At the end of the 1930s, the number of students dropped to 15. It resulted from the intervention of the Board of the Lviv School District, which made the school function dependent on the employment of the second teacher. On June 21, 1937, Lila Nadel applied for a job at a Jewish school for deaf people. She had a rich curriculum vitae. In the years 1931–1933, she studied at the Jan Jakub Rousseau Institute of Pedagogical Sciences of the University of Geneva. During her studies, she took a three-year practice in a special class and three-months in the deaf-mute class. Then she worked in the Department for Hyperactive Children in Champodeil and defended her diploma thesis.

After returning to the country in 1934, she worked in the Dr. Józef Twerski Department of Healing and Education, in Groty near Warsaw, dealing with deeply handicapped children. Terski, expressing his opinion about her, wrote: "During her teaching work she showed good orientation, preparation and awareness of the goals she sought for" (Terski, 1934, p. 9). Diploma in the "educational sciences" of the J.J. Institute Rousseau of the University of Geneva was received by her on October 16, 1935; there were well-known pedagogues, such as Jean Piaget, Henri Bovet and Edouard Claparede. The opinion on Nadel's diploma thesis in a private letter from October 19, 1936, addressed to her, was expressed by Piaget director. Its translation into Polish has been preserved in archival documentation. Piaget decided that Nadel's dissertation (unfortunately, with an unknown title):

[...] testifies to abilities for independent research and psychological understanding. Almost completely alone, you have brought your work to the end, demonstrating the gift of observation and interpretation. You have been following the intelligent activities of the children you observed. The results obtained by you interested the examiners and are a useful achievement for the psychology of young children (Piaget, 1936, p. 12).

In spite of the excellent references Nadel was not employed for financial reasons. Her example, however, argues that teachers of special schools in the interwar period had high orthodidactic qualifications acquired abroad.

The further fate of the school was influenced by the lack of financial resources. The students were too poor to pay the rent, the Jewish kehilla did not provide adequate subsidies. In 1939, a group of deaf-mute students was transferred from the A. Kohn Jewish religious school. to the state school for deaf-mute at Łyczakowska St.

Lviv Jews' initiatives in the field of educating the blind

The pain of Jewish education in the Polish lands, both in Austrian times and in independent Poland, was the inability to educate the blind. One of the initiators of creating a facility for the Jewish blind Gizela Balabanow wrote: "[...] the grey mass of blind children remained in the country did not receive proper education and training and became a burden of society or died of poverty and hunger" (Balabanowa, 1936, p. 39). In Lviv, since 1851, the institution for the blind had been functioning, but it was Christian. Orthodox Jewish people did not agree to send their children to it. Not only in Galicia, but also in all of Europe, there was no institution taking into account the needs of the Orthodox.

It was not until 1870 that Das Israelitische Blindeinstitut Hohe-Warte, the first Jewish facility for the blind in the world, was established in Vienna. It served the entire Jewish Diaspora in Europe, but the most Jews among them, due to the closeness and size of the population, were Jews from Galicia. The idea of estab-

lishing a Jewish school for the blind was put forward by the poet Ludwig August Frankl, and it was realized thanks to the financial support of the philanthropist and chairman of the Vienna religious community, Jonas Freiherr. In addition to educating the blind, the institute prepared teachers in the field of typhlopedagogical methodology (E.E., 1913, pp. 636–643). After 1918, the Vienna institution turned out to be too small for Jewish children and youth from various European countries. The Lviv Jews, more widely Galician, sought a new solution.

In the interwar period, the Jews took the initiative to build an institution for blind and sightless children in Małopolska. For this purpose, the Society for Assistance and Home Construction for the Blind Jewish Children in Lviv was established. In the statute about the purpose of the society we read:

Care for blind Jewish children who are under 18 years of age, give them maintenance and upbringing and establish an institution or a hostel, where professional management will be provided for crafts or other profession appropriate for individual pupils due to their level of physical and mental development, until the time of building their own plant, keep them in foreign establishments and pay for expenses connected with them from the Society's funds. Nevertheless, the Society will be obliged to provide free medical assistance, clothing and accessories necessary to learn and practice the profession and try to enable the pupils to earn the acquired education in a certain occupation for their maintenance (Raport..., n.d., p. Nlb.).

The main purpose of the society was to build a blind facility, but in practice its operation consisted of taking care of a total of about 100 blind children. Among other things, 60 children and young people were paid for the stay and education at the Jewish school in Vienna. For the youngest blind, a kindergarten was launched, and for the older ones carpet and lace making courses were organized. They were then sent to vocational training for craftsmen or musicians. A few private pupils were funded private crafts workshops. Franciszka Urlich became the head of the society (Raport..., 1927, p. Nlb; Raport..., n.d., pp. Nlb.).

The Society did not give up its main goal – the establishment of a blind facility. Many efforts in its achievement were put by a deputy to the Parliament in the Second Republic of Poland, elected from the Jewish lists in Lviv, a social and Zionist activist Róża Pomeranz-Melzer. Because the Lviv Jews were unable to collect the necessary funds to build the school on their own, Pomeranz-Melzer gave the initiative of the Lviv community a wider publicity. In 1924, the Poznań Jews informed her about the Röhr foundation, intended for running a Jewish elderly house in Bojanów in Greater Poland Province.

The house was established at the beginning of the 20th century for Jewish marriages and lonely elderly people with German citizenship. When after the First World War Greater Poland Province returned to Poland, most of the German Jews left this area and moved to Germany. The old people's home became useless, so the idea of creating a school for the blind and also for deaf people appeared. Melzer obtained the consent of the representative of the foundation and the province gov-

error for the implementation of this plan. To collect the missing funds, in 1925 she travelled to the USA and England. She raised about \$ 4,000, while the costs of building adaptation for the school's needs were estimated at \$ 15,000.

Melzer, therefore, established the Central Association for the Care of the Blind and Deaf-Mutated Jewish Children in Poland "Bojanowo". The Jewish community of Lviv, Krakow and the capital engaged in the establishment plans of the institution. Thanks to the support received in 1926, the Lviv activist launched an institution for four-sensory children in Bojanów (Łapot, 2010, pp. 337–338).

The school gathered blind and deaf children from all over Poland, but more than half of the pupils were children from the areas of former Galicia, including Lviv. Pedagogues from mainly Lviv and former Galicia (ibid., p. 341) were teachers.



Figure 2. The charges of a Jewish institution for four-sensory children in Bojanów. In the first row (two people), the second standing from the right is Róża Pomeranz-Melzer
Source: National Archives in Krakow, team: Bnei Brith, reference number 220, k. 80.

The school maintained itself thanks to the financial support of Jewish communities and Masonic lodges (including Bnei Brith in Kraków). Its director was Artur Löwenstein.

The anonymous correspondent of the *New Word* in 1931 thus evaluated the teaching and functioning of the institution in Bojanów:

Children are relatively well versed in reading, writing and mathematics and geography. For the blind children, there is a special calendar and map of the globe in each class made by Ms F [teacher Regina Fruchtman – explanation. MŁ.]. Short rhythmic production and at the end of the gymnastics lesson, conducted by the director of the Department. Lunch brings together everyone in the dining room. Nutritious and tasty food (T.S., 1931, p. 89).

The institution was co-educational. Around 40 pupils were taught there. The blind were taught Braille, according to the program of special schools. The cur-

riculum included: Polish language, accounts, geography, general history, Polish and Jewish, and nature (Łapot, 2010, p. 341).

One of the main goals of the school was to shape the Jewish identity of those under their care. It was carried out nurturing Judaism and Jewish customs. Hebrew and Jewish religion were taught, Jewish holidays were celebrated (e.g., Purim and Chanukah) and a kosher kitchen was organized (ibid., p. 343).

Didactic classes were subordinated to the principle of “non multa sed multum”. Mental education, therefore, took into account the postulates of the pedagogical current of the New Education. Not the quantity but the quality of knowledge was emphasized, the individualism of students was emphasized, their abilities and interests were developed, the importance of practical preparation for living in society was emphasized.

The school cooperated with the Viennese factory. As there was no possibility of vocational education, after general education in Bojanów, the youth were sent to Vienna to learn the profession in special workshops adapted to the needs of the blind (Papierman, 1936, p. 239).

In the surviving accounts of people visiting the Bojanów institution, the motive of the special educational climate prevailing in its walls is repeated. Tamara Schorrowska (1936, p. 36) wrote: “The teaching staff together with the children form a closely related family. [...] Only those who had the opportunity together with Melzer’s marriage to stay in Bojanów can understand and assess what their stay was for foster children and teachers [...]”

The previously quoted rapporteur of the New Word noted: “The atmosphere of family warmth grants to us. We feel like one family, we have the impression that blind and deaf children complement each other. In each of them we see the desire to serve one another in their helplessness” (T.S., 1931, p. 89). Also known Lviv social activist Leon Weinstock (n.g., K. 126) on the subject of relations at the school wrote: “I will never forget three days that I was able to spend in an atmosphere of warmth, a lovable simplicity of communion.”

The special family atmosphere was co-created by the pupils, teachers and guardians of the school – the Melzer’s.

In 1936, the school was moved to Warsaw. It was located at 8 Graniczna St. The director was M. Papierman. The reason for the move was the inability to organize professional workshops on the spot in Bojanów, as well as the death of Melzer in 1934.

The operation of the institution in Warsaw was limited. 17 pupils aged 12 to 30 years attended it, learning the Hebrew language, Jewish history, Mosaic religion, rhythmic gymnastics and music, at the same time receiving education at the State Institute for Deaf and Dim in Warsaw. A brush and basket making workshop was created at the Jewish school. The graduates were employed by craftsmen, employed as instructors in school workshops, or during the tuning and repair of pianos (Papierman, 1936, p. 240). The school was named as Rose Melzer Jewish Institute for the Blinds in Warsaw. Its activity ended with the outbreak of World War II.

Summary

The emergence and development of education for the blind and deaf Polish Jews is connected with the Lviv. By establishing schools that would ensure the fulfilment of the religious and moral needs of fellow believers, the Lviv Jews also contributed to the development of special education in the Austrian Partition and in the Second Polish Republic.

The impulses that stimulated the interest of the Lviv Jews in the education of four-sensory children came from Vienna, where the first in Europe Jewish schools for deaf and blind were created. Maintaining close contacts with the environment of the Viennese Jews, the Lvivs used the Austrian achievements and transplanted modern Orthodidactics to the Galician land. First, they became interested in educating deaf people. As a result, in 1871, the first Jewish institution was created, adapted to their needs, not only in Lviv, Galicia, but also in Poland. Its founder, a pupil of the deaf-mute institute in Vienna, Isaac Jakub Bardach, introduced an improved vocabulary teaching methodology.

The school was successfully developed in the Austrian period, although it did not have a proper location. In the interwar period, regression was underway, mainly due to the lack of appropriate subsidies. Financial and housing problems, as well as the decreasing number of students, decided that just before the outbreak of World War II, it was included in the state school as a separate Jewish unit.

Blind Jews from Lviv used the school in Vienna, established in 1870. Both in the times of the Austrian partition and in independent Poland, in Lviv, there were societies paying for the stay of Jewish children in the capital of Austria. One of the financing conditions was to provide learning of the Hebrew language. It was not until the inter-war period that an initiative to establish a blind educating institution was taken. Financial reasons hindered its implementation. The school for the blind was not established in Lviv, the Lviv community, however, contributed to the establishment in 1926 of a blind institution in Bojanów in Greater Poland Province, which in 1936 was moved to Warsaw. Rose Pomeranz-Melzer put a lot of service in its appointment and functioning. It served the Jewish community throughout the country.

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THE MODEL OF COMBINATION BETWEEN MEDICAL AND EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION FOR CHILDREN WITH DEVELOPMENTAL DISORDERS IN VIETNAM – THROUGH CASE STUDIES

Special education must be interdisciplinary in order to ensure the comprehensive quality of education for children with special needs in general and children with developmental disorders in particular. For children with developmental disorders such as autism spectrum disorder, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, learning disabilities, etc., regular education interventions are important as they provide children with essential knowledge and help them practice necessary skills before utilizing these skills in their social integration process. This article introduces intervention models used in an educational institution in combination with medical therapy and the effects of this combination in two case studies of children with developmental disorders. Through concrete evidence and results of clear case studies, the article desires to contribute to a clearer illustration of the combined model of health and education used in interventions for children with special needs in general and especially for children with developmental disorders in Vietnam.

Keywords: children with special needs, children with developmental delay, children with autism spectrum disorder, children with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), educational intervention, medical therapy

Every child, including children with developmental disorders, needs to develop comprehensively, both physically and mentally. In line with Maslow's hierarchy of needs, people's lower-level needs, such as physiological needs, safety needs, and social belonging, should be met before their higher-level needs, such as esteem and self-actualization, can be met (Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, 1943). Therefore, before implementing interventions for children with developmental disorders, we should take care not only of the child's abilities, needs, and interests but also take into account issues related to the mental health of the child with behavioral and emotional disorders. Only when these problems are solved and supported, the child will be able to learn to develop language and perception.

Theoretically, the effectiveness of intervention for children with disabilities, including children with developmental disorders, will be further enhanced by the effects of educational and medical therapy. Some studies in the world have provided clear evidence, such as: the most effective approach is to call on the collective knowledge and expertise that various team members bring to the educational planning process (Hunt, Soto, Maier, & Doering, 2003); young children with significant multiple disabilities bring a variety of combinations of physical, medical, educational, and social-emotional challenges to each learning environment (Snell & Brown, 2011); medical, physical, learning, and social emotional needs should be addressed in developing interventions for young children with multiple disabilities (Horn & Kang, 2012), and so on. However, the current situation in Vietnam shows that due to the lack of systematic coordination between health and education institutions, there are some consequences, such as: many children with disabilities/developmental disorders are diagnosed with disabilities by healthcare institutions only yet receive no intervention afterwards; a lot of children are provided with educational interventions but do not receive adequate medical attention, which results in many behavioral and emotional problems that have a negative impact on the effectiveness of educational interventions. A large number of localities, especially in remote and mountainous areas, do not have adequate health and education facilities to perform tasks such as diagnosis, evaluation, or intervention for children. As a result, lots of children have no opportunity to be diagnosed or learn to continue their participation in social integration. Many families of children with disabilities/developmental disorders do not receive necessary support in childcare and education, such as psychological counseling, financial support, information on facilities implementing healthcare services and educational interventions with special education specializations, etc. For example, according to an informal survey, only five out of over 100 facilities implementing interventions for children with special needs in Hanoi combine education with medical therapy.

Therefore, reinforcing educational institutions with healthcare services is an important and necessary model in the care and intervention process for children with disabilities/developmental disorders to ensure the most comprehensive effects for children with disabilities/developmental disorders and their families.

Content

Children with developmental disorders

According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Revision 5 (DSM-5), children with developmental disorders are a group of children with the following disorders:

- Intellectual Disability,

- Communication Disorders,
- Autism Spectrum Disorders,
- Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder,
- Specific Learning Disorder,
- Motor Disorders.

Children with developmental disorders have a delay in at least two of the skills in the basic areas of human development during the human developmental process, including: cognitive/thinking skills, social and emotional skills, speech and language skills, fine and gross motor skills, and activities of daily living. In addition, children's developmental problems are associated with other disabilities, such as: speech and language disorders, hypertonia, epilepsy, developmental coordination disorder, learning disorder, hyper mobility, ADHD, genetic/chromosome disorder, sensory and auditory processing disorder, or autism.

The model combining educational intervention and medical therapy

Meaning of the combination of educational intervention and medical therapy

Children with developmental disorders always have medical problems and learning disabilities, and these impairments may occur in cognition, motor, and sensory functions as well as in combination with each other. Some studies showed that four areas of need – medical, physical, learning, and social emotional needs – should be addressed in developing interventions for young children with multiple disabilities (Horn & Kang, 2012), including children with developmental disorders. Therefore, interventions for these children undoubtedly require a combination of both medical and educational interventions.

A combination model of educational intervention and medical therapy at the Kazuo Inclusive Educational Development Research Center in Vietnam

The Kazuo Inclusive Educational Development Research Center was established in 2017 in Hanoi, the capital of Vietnam. In order to promote the effectiveness of educational interventions and medical treatment, the Kazuo Center combines educational and medical activities to help children with disabilities, especially those with autism spectrum disorders, intellectual disabilities, and delays in language, etc., increase the chances of social and educational integration, helping them develop to their fullest potential.

With the aim of creating a child-focused educational environment based on the foundation of Japanese education values, Kazuo is committed to creating a quality environment and the most optimal conditions to help all children with disabilities maximize their ability. At the Kazuo Center, every child with a disability will be diagnosed and his or her skills and abilities will be evaluated,

based on which the best medical therapy and education interventions, which are appropriate to an individual child, will be built. Each child in the Kazuo Center will be an independent, confident, and progressive individual.

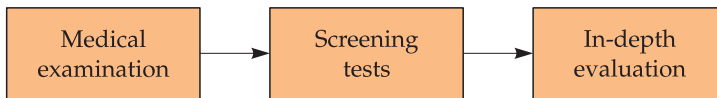
Also, the Kazuo Center has links with other centers and professional facilities in the whole country to provide the best services in terms of medical, pharmaceutical, and educational services for children and young families, such as the Nhi Viet clinics, the National Hospital of Pediatrics, intervention centers in the capital city of Hanoi and in some neighboring provinces, such as Vinh Phuc, Thai Binh, Hai Phong, Bac Ninh, etc.

With the motto “Children are the light of humanity” the Kazuo Center always aims at the progress and development of each child; each child’s light will help light up the progress and development of the whole society and mankind.

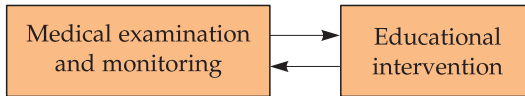
Coordination of educational intervention and medical therapy at the Kazuo Center

Interventions for education and medical treatment are coordinated at all stages at the Kazuo Center as shown in the following relationships:

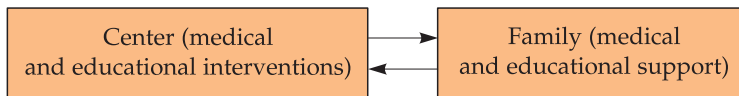
Process of diagnosis and evaluation



Interventions (individuals and groups)



Coordination between the family and educational intervention



Typical case studies

CASE STUDY 1

General information about the child

Full name: D.T.Q, male

Date of birth: 02/11/2012

Medical history: He is the second child in the family, his older sister is in college. His mother had him when she was 35. Normal birth at 38 weeks, weight 3.4 kg, no abnormal problems at birth. He cried right away. He has no problems with digestion but has trouble sleeping; he finds it hard to sleep and often does not take a nap.

Developmental history: Physically, all his developmental milestones are relatively normal. He knew how to handle things from 4 months; however, he did not know how to play properly, did not know how to observe and follow a pattern. In terms of language, he only speaks several single words and two-word phrases. He looked in the direction of the hand when he was about 30 months.

Self-care skills: He demonstrates almost all self-care skills but does only what he likes.

He was diagnosed and checked at the National Hospital of Pediatrics at 23 months and was diagnosed with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder.

Educational history: He started preschool in his locality when he was 24 months. He did not receive any interventions then.

Characteristics of the child

The results of the evaluation of the child with the Japanese Kyoto Scale of Psychological Development 2001 (Kyoto Scale) when the child was 4 years 11 months (access: 03/10/2017) are contained in Table 1.

Table 1

Results of child 1 on the Kyoto Scal

Field of Development	Score	Developmental age (DA)	Developmental quotient (DQ)
Postural–Motor (P–M)	84	57 months (4 years and 9 months)	96.7
Cognitive–Adaptive (C–A)	207	28 months (2 years and 4 months)	48.4
Language–Social (L–S)	62	24 months (2 years)	41.9
Total	353	27 months (2 years and 3 months)	46.8

The total result reveals that he has a moderate developmental delay in comparison with his actual age. In three basic areas of development, the Postural–Motor field is the best – the result is within the normal range. The Cognitive–Adaptive field and the Language–Social field indicate a moderate developmental delay.

In addition, he has some worrying behavioral problems, such as running or climbing and not sitting still as required; repeating others' words, not using the language actively; finding it hard to take a nap, beating his friends and scratching himself; screaming, crying, and beating his relatives (father, mother) at home.

A combination of medical therapy and educational intervention

He began receiving interventions at the Center in October 2017 by joining full-day classes, combined with five one-hour sessions of intervention per week.

Since he did not take any drugs before, products made from herbs were recommended. He was prescribed Clam and Focus, imported from the US, which have no side effects during treatment, with the following dosage:

Clam (for children who have anger issues and trouble falling asleep): 1 ml once a day, 30 minutes before breakfast.

Focus (for children who have trouble focusing, lack alertness, or have mental fatigue): 1 ml once a day, 30 minutes before dinner.

These medicines have fruit flavors, so they are easy to drink. Q's medication is always monitored by the doctor. The family also coordinates with the Center on monitoring, observing, and recording the child's behaviors, and responds to the Center.

The effectiveness of educational intervention and medical treatment

Q's sleep improved from the 15th day of drug treatment. After one month, his restlessness was reduced. By the second month, he no longer climbed, ran forward or screamed (his family also had the same comments). His repeating others' words has also decreased because the child has better eye contact and speaks more actively (though not much) during learning. He is more aware and more organized. In the third month, he started to observe and notice what the teacher did and imitated when he got home. His listening is also better.

At the intervention sessions, the child sat longer with the teacher, having better communication and eye contact. He was gradually doing better, following teachers' instructions and gradually accomplishing the goals set for him.

The comparison of the results between the first (Table 1) and second evaluation (Table 2) shows that Q has made certain progress. Although his developmental level does not correspond to his actual age, he shows stable progress in his development. The total developmental quotient in all the fields increased by 0.8 point. The developmental quotient in the Postural – Motor field remained almost the same, in the Cognitive – Adaptative field – increased by 2.3 points, and in the Language – Social field – by 1.2 points.

Table 2

Results of child 1 after six months of educational intervention

Field of Development	Score		Developmental age (DA)		Developmental quotient (DQ) Average = 100	
	1 st time	2 nd time	1 st time	2 nd time	1 st time	2 nd time
Postural–Motor (P–M)	84	86	57 months (4 years and 9 months)	63 months (5 years and 3 months)	96.7	96.9

Cognitive–Adaptative (C–A)	207	224	28 months (2 years and 4 months)	33 months (2 years and 9 months)	48.4	50.7
Language–Social (L–S)	62	73	24 months (2 years)	28 months (2 years and 4 months)	41.9	43.1
Total	353	383	27 months (2 years and 3 months)	31 months (2 years and 7 months)	46.8	47.6

CASE STUDY 2:

General information about the child

Full name: N.N.A, female

Date of birth: 12/11/2006

Medical history: She is an only child in the family. Normal birth and no unusual incidents at birth. She has both sleep and digestive problems. She has difficulty in eating, does not know how to handle a spoon, and only eats simple dishes (chopped chicken). She hardly takes a nap, experiences poor sleep quality, has sleep-wake problem all night but then sleeps all morning.

Developmental history: Physically, the child exhibited marked delays compared to her peers. Regarding the language, at the time of the evaluation, she could not speak any words, only had some gestures, such as pulling the hand. She used to get intervention in school, but it was rarely provided, and she had signs of regression after some time. When she came to the Center, she did not know how to do anything, including putting toys in the basket.

Self-care skills: She is hardly able to take care of herself. Her father said that she had difficulty in eating and drinking at home. Her gross and fine motor skills are poor.

Regarding her family: Her parents divorced; she is currently living with her father, who is quite busy and rarely spends time with her.

She was diagnosed and checked at the National Pediatrics Hospital at 30 months and was diagnosed with autism spectrum disorder and mental retardation.

Characteristics of the child

The results of the evaluation of the child with the Japanese Kyoto Scale of Psychological Development 2001 (Kyoto Scale) when the child was 11 years old (access: 03/12/2017) are contained in Table 3.

The result reveals that she has a substantial developmental delay in comparison with her actual age. In three basic areas of development, the Postural–Motor field

is the best, followed by the Cognitive–Adaptive field, and finally the Language–Social field. However, all three developmental areas are far behind her actual age.

Table 3

Result of child 2 on the Kyoto Scale

Field of Development	Score	Developmental age (DA)	Developmental quotient (DQ)
Postural–Motor (P–M)	81	40 months (3 years and 6 months)	30.3
Cognitive–Adaptative (C–A)	121	494 days (one year and 3 months)	11.4
Language–Social (L–S)	22	12 months (one year)	9.1
Total	224	535 days (one year and 5 months)	13.2

In addition, she has some worrying behavioral issues, such as sitting alone almost all the time, sometimes standing up and walking around in the classroom without purpose. She often plays with her hair and ears with her hands. When bringing her to school, the father has to use a buggy and remind her to get out. The child will lose control when hearing a loud sound. She likes crumpling paper but only red paper. In the classroom, she will put all efforts to get any red paper, whether big or small pieces, from her friends. She does not take a nap at noon. She also has sexual self-stimulation behaviors, i.e. touching the genitals and stretching the legs (when lying) and usually putting her hands inside the pants to play with the genitals. She does not care about anything around her.

A combination of medical therapy and educational intervention

She started receiving interventions at the Center in November 2017 by joining full-day classes. In addition, due to family circumstances, she does not participate in any other intervention activities.

Since she did not take any drugs before, products made from herbs were recommended. She was prescribed Clam, Focus, and Shine, imported from the US, which have no side effects during treatment, with the following dosage:

Clam (for children who have anger issues and trouble falling asleep): 1 ml once a day, 30 minutes before breakfast.

Focus (for children who have trouble focusing, lack alertness, or have mental fatigue): 1 ml once a day, 30 minutes before dinner.

Shine (strengthening digestion in children): 1 ml once a day, 30 minutes before dinner.

These medicines have fruit flavors, so they are easy to drink. N.A.'s medication is always monitored by the doctor. The family also coordinates with the Center on monitoring, observing, and recording the child's behaviors, and responds to the Center.

The effectiveness of intervention and medical treatment

N.A's sleep improved on the 10th day. She took a nap at noon in the first month yet discontinuously.

In the second month, she stopped walking freely in the classroom (reduced restlessness), no longer looking for red paper (the teacher in class also enhances alternative activities to prevent such behaviors). She observes and knows to follow her friends when they go in or out of the classroom. She knows to pick up things she drops. Her eating also improved with more chewing.

In the third month, she learned to eat with a spoon. She cried when her friends left the Center for home (clearer emotion). She took a nap almost every noon.

In the fourth month, she knew to make the bed (mattress and pillow) with her friends. She picked up toys when asked by the teacher. Her listening and understanding skills were better and she was able to concentrate and observe.

In the fifth month, she knew how to brush her teeth and change sanitary pads with the teacher's guidance. She also knew to greet her father and teacher when reminded by the teacher. She put her shoes in place when coming to the Center and put them on by herself when leaving the Center for home.

Besides, in the course of learning, she said the word „home“ five times (when she tried to follow her friends going home).

Because of family circumstances, the girl only attends classes and never participates in individual intervention sessions. Poor cognitive performance with many behavioral problems have resulted in little progress after six months, although we have seen some significant improvements in her performance.

Conclusion

The effectiveness of the combination of medical therapy and educational intervention in educational institutions has been proved through the above-mentioned case studies at an educational center, which reinforces the theoretical basis and practical evidence for the link between health and education. Given the current situation in Vietnam, as the number of children with developmental disorders tends to increase, it becomes clear that the introduction of models combining health therapy and educational intervention as well as implementation of various solutions in the care and education of these children will require more synchronization and an interdisciplinary approach. Therefore, the model of coordination between educational interventions and medical therapies at the Kazuo Center is a model that needs to be considered and widely implemented as it meets the actual needs of Vietnamese children with developmental disorders and their families.

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FROM MOTOR SKILLS TO LEARNING TO WRITE – PRACTICAL SOLUTIONS

Introduction

Increasingly, in students of grades I–III, we observe difficulties in mastering the skill of writing in the area of correct and shape plotting of letters, fluent writing of words and sentences, proper arrangement of the written text in the line and on the page. Where does it come from? Writing skills are closely related to the processes that occur in psychomotor development. The same basic functions are involved as in reading: auditory, visual, articulation and spatial, but motor skills are necessary in writing.

The child must achieve the appropriate level of motor skills in the area of large and small motor skills. We often forget about this, which is why I want to pay special attention to the close relationship between the child's learning of the writing skills and its motor development. An important element is the knowledge of teachers about the possibilities and symptoms of motor disorders in a child. The combination of expected developmental skills and characteristic deficits in the category of high motor skills in children aged 6–9 should help teachers to properly define the problem after the observation. They will then be able to perform a comparative analysis in relation to the requirements contained in the core curriculum. Finally, I will present examples of exercises stimulating high motor skills as a proposition for use in supporting or corrective activities.

Motor development and the ability to write

Tadeusz Wróbel (1985) in relation to the skill of writing speaks of the usual execution of specific movements, thanks to which the letters are connected in words and of the so-called motor discipline consisting in plotting a series of conventional signs. Such activities require the child to achieve the appropriate level

of physical development, including accepting and changing certain body positions, moving in space or moving some parts of the body in relation to others.

Thanks to the broadly understood physical activity and repeated exercises of the motor system, the child learns to master the body in a comprehensive way and increases the range of motor habits. Symptoms that indicate potential motor problems that will result in future dysgraphia problems can be observed in pre-school education. Often irregularities in this area are a signal of possible delays in cognitive, emotional and social development.

An appropriate gradation of activities in stimulating the child's motor fitness is important – from general fitness exercises to exercises requiring more and more precise movements in the area of large and small motor skills. We must remember that with regard to the writing process, pre-school age is sometimes the child's readiness to learn to write, and the younger school age – sometimes to master writing skills. The requirements for children at these two educational stages can be found in the core curriculum (Regulation..., 2017).

Let us check to what content from the curriculum of pre-school education we can refer to in the context of high motility and preparing the child to write. After the analysis, basically all the contents of the physical area of child development can be considered as important in the process of stimulating high motor skills, although there are also provisions referring to self-care, independence or precision activities. Due to the key idea of the article, I draw attention to those fragments that we can (directly or indirectly) refer to the child's competence in the area of high motility: "2) performs self-service activities: dressing and undressing [...]; 5) participates in motion games, including rhythmic, musical, imitative, with or without accessories; performs various forms of movement: race, lively, with quadruple, projective [...]; 7) performs activities such as cleaning, packing, holding items with one hand and with both hands [...]; 8) performs basic exercises shaping the habit of maintaining a correct posture; 9) shows the fitness of the body and coordination to the extent that allows to begin systematic learning of complex activities, such as reading and writing" (ibid.).

Analysing the content of the fourth area of the foundation of pre-school education – Cognitive area of child development, I asked myself to what extent motor development, and especially child's efficiency in terms of high motor skills, affect the achievement of competences related to various activities. In my opinion, one can pay attention to the records: "1) expresses his understanding of the world [...] through non-verbal messages: dance, intentional movement, gestures, artistic, technical, theatrical and mimic impressions [...]; 7) experiments with rhythm, voice, sounds and movement, developing your imagination [...] moves with music and to music, notices changes in the character of music, e.g. dynamics, tempo and pitch of sound, and expresses it with movement, reacts to signals [...]; 8) [...] creates simple and complex characters, giving them meaning, reveals fragments of selected letters, numbers, draws selected letters and

numbers on a smooth sheet of paper, explains the way of creating crossed out, drawn or saved shapes, converts the motion picture into graphic and on the contrary, it independently plans the movement before saving, e.g. a graphic sign, a letter and others in the square network or a line, defines the directions and places on a piece of paper” (ibid.).

At the end of the analysis of the content of the curriculum of pre-school education, you can still cite the record, which can be found in the section Conditions and implementation: “4. [...] Preparations to learn to write letters should lead only to the optimization of muscle tone, motion planning exercises while plotting letters of a letter-like character” (ibid.).

Thus, in the pre-school period, within the scope of our observations and actions undertaken in the field of high motility, and thus preparing the child for learning to write, there should be:

- acquiring and improving basic motor skills such as standing, walking, running, jumping, holding, throwing or catching;
- efficiency in self-service activities;
- traffic planning both in space and on a piece of paper;
- coordination of movements, repetition of movement sequences related to the rhythm, use of movement in various forms of expression, e.g. musical and plastic;
- processing of motion into a graphic image and vice versa, including letter-like patterns.

Such activities allow the development of expected child’s achievements in the field of general motor fitness. They also have a significant impact on the stimulation of small motor skills, including manual and graphomotor skills (drawing, cutting, binding, fastening, etc.), which are one of the elements of the child’s school readiness assessment.

From a child at a younger school age, the ability to write is required. In addition to reading, this is one of the most important competences a student should achieve when completing early school education. The program basis for the first educational stage states: “I. Polish language education. 4. Achievements in the field of writing. Student: 1) uses handwriting, legibly, fluent sentences and continuous text, in one line; properly puts the continuous text on the page of the notebook, checks and corrects the written text” (ibid.).

Achieving such a level of writing skills is a long process, it requires from a writing person a lot of effort and undertaking many activities, often complex ones. When writing a specific letter, word or sentence in a notebook, the child must perform the right hand movements, starting from the arm, through the forearm, wrist and fingers. It must show: an adequate level of motor fitness that allows maintaining the correct posture while maintaining the correct distance of the eyes to the notebook; proper muscle tone; visual-motor coordination; proper-

ly developed spatial orientation, with particular emphasis on the directions from left to right, from top to bottom; proper writing grip; proper traffic planning with a sequence of small movements consistent with the so-called the memory of the writing movement, whose origins it acquires at the time of plotting literary-like patterns that are perfected at the moment of learning to write each letter.

In addition to such complex movement activities, the process of writing also consists of perceiving and remembering the graphic image of each letter a small and capital one (this requires properly developed visual perception including visual analysis and synthesis, perception of figure and background, constancy of perception, memory and visual attention) and recognition of sounds included in a given word (correct articulation), subordination of proper graphical signs (letters) and saving them in the right order (the auditory perception must be properly developed including auditory analysis and synthesis, phonemic hearing, memory and auditory attention, and an efficient speech apparatus).

The basis for setting the child specific requirements in the area of writing literacy is involvement in this process (and the appropriate level of development) of visual perception, auditory observation, oral praxis as well as large and small motor skills. Seeing how complex things are and how they are dependent on each other enables a better understanding of the causes of the difficulties that children experience when writing. That is why the continuity of interactions is so important, from the first years of life, throughout the pre-school period to the younger school age. It is also necessary to properly observe the child (teacher's diagnosis, pedagogical diagnosis), which takes into account different areas of its development and does not refer only to the child's products in the form of, for example, drawing, writing in a notebook or on a work sheet. Thanks to this, we are able to better recognize the basis, scope and intensity of writing difficulties for a given child and take appropriate supporting actions.

High motor skills – expected developmental skills of a child aged 6:

- standing: on one leg in a spot, also with closed eyes (up to 10 s);
- walking: in a straight line (1 m), "feet", without loss of balance;
- going up and down the stairs in an alternating step;
- jumping: generally efficient, by a rope, skipping rope, alternately, on one leg in place, on one leg forward, jumping over, jumping from a height of 10 cm, jumping through and jumping off an obstacle, crouching and standing up without holding;
- running: generally efficient, on the toes;
- riding: on a bicycle with training wheels, possible skating, skiing, etc.;
- hitting the ball with a stick, club, dribbling a large ball, throwing the ball at a distance of 4 m, catching the ball thrown from a distance of 1.5 m, kicking the ball from the run-up;
- climbing: generally operational, e.g. on a ladder, fences, trees;
- repetition of movement sequences, moving to the beat of the music.

Summing up: the natural need for movement – the child enjoys movement games, but can get tired quickly, can skate, ski, roll, but sometimes there are problems with coordination and maintaining balance (stumbles, falls).

High motor skills – expected developmental skills of a child aged 7–9

- improving skills and movement achievements from the pre-school period;
- high spontaneous general physical activity;
- mastering all basic forms of movement, e.g. walking, running, jumping, and turning;
- ease in mastering movement skills, such as dancing, cycling, roller blading;
- increase in the purposefulness, speed, flexibility, efficiency, coordination, accuracy and smoothness of movements;
- increased activity in team games, games, and sports competitions;
- better ability to use necessary tools;
- the ability to merge movements into more and more complex activities, e.g. movement games, swimming, high jumps, long distances.

Summing up: there is still a need for movement and satisfaction with movement. The child is more and more free in movement, gaining more and more confidence and better coordination, is characterized by increasing harmony and fluency of movement.

Characteristic disorders of the motor development of a child aged 6–9 – delays generally affecting learning:

- general motor awkwardness and low possibility of exercise in large movements due to muscle tone disturbances – excessive or too small;
- lack of coordination of movements with the cooperation of various muscle groups – the impression of general awkwardness, slowness of movement;
- achieving with the delay, in comparison to peers, movement skills in everyday activities, games and sports, in the use of everyday objects;
- additional unnecessary movements disorganizing the activity being performed;
- lack of precision, natural freedom and softness of movements, stiffness of movements;
- quick discouragement to work – no measurable effects to the actions taken.

Characteristic disorders of motor development of a child aged 6:

- unwillingness to join in group movement games;
- awkwardness in the movements of the whole body (movements that are not smooth, uncoordinated, so called angular), in ball games, for example when casting, catching or kicking;
- difficulty running, including on your toes, mastering rhythmic marching, e.g. in the leg, jumping, and equivalent exercises, e.g. in walking on the line, standing on one leg;

- slow pace (frequent failure to follow others);
- problems with learning and mastering the skills of cycling, skiing, ice skating, scooters.

Characteristic disorders of the motor development of a child aged 7–9:

- generally: persisting difficulties such as in a 6-year-old, unwillingness to do physical education due to decreased general fitness, learning difficulties in sequential movements (gymnastic and dance systems), imitating movements, games and tasks in which the movement takes place under eye control, such as a ball throw, playing in a class;
- difficulties in artistic work: carelessness, lack of aesthetics in the work, problems with drawings requiring precision and accuracy;
- other difficulties at school: problems with drawing figures, such as circles, squares, rhombuses, even crosses or rings, in works where high manual efficiency is required, such as model making, embroidery, paper work;
- difficulties in mastering writing skills: maintaining the right proportion and size, so-called uneven letters (too big or too small), incorrect writing of letters in the line – letters go out or do not reach the line, the slow pace of writing persists, so-called writing cohorts, e.g. additional movements of legs, neck, torso, tongue, muscle tone – too weak or too strong; generally carelessly keeping notebooks, a problem in the transition to the automation of the writing process.

The abovementioned skills and characteristic deficits of motor development are sometimes difficult to define as typical, referring only to large or perhaps to small motor skills. We must remember that the ability to control the attitude and changes in terms of locomotion, capture and manipulation are determined by three directions of development:

- 1) from the head part (movements of the eyeballs and any neck muscles) through the torso part (movements of the hands and torso) to the foot (any leg movements, walking) – the so-called cephalolaudal direction of development;
- 2) from the longitudinal axis of the body to the sides, i.e. from the muscles located closest to the spine through the muscles of the arms, the forearms to the hands and fingers – the so-called proxy modal direction of development;
- 3) in the transverse axis of the body – from the fifth small toe of the hand to the thumb – the so-called ulnar-radial direction of development.

Bearing this in mind, I always treat norms and motor deficits as the dependence of at least two first directions of development. For example, if I see too much muscle tension in a child's hand, I first start with the movements of the hands and torso, and then assess the tension in the arms and forearms, ending with the hand and fingers. This also shows the complexity of development processes. It forces teachers to pay a lot of attention and reflexivity while conducting pedagogical

observation and proper inference and selection of an appropriate set of exercises used in prevention or in activities correcting motor development.

Selected examples of exercises supporting high motor skills

In the literature, there are a lot of proposals for exercises that stimulate high motility. When making a choice, I paid particular attention to these exercises, thanks to which the child will have the opportunity to develop general dexterity and freedom of movement, coordination of movements, orientation, stimulation of muscle tone, but also sequentiality and precision of movements.

Exercises of general mobility

At the beginning, it is worth tracing the exercises of general physical fitness (in accordance with the recommendations of the methodology of pre-school and early school education), but in a more reflective way, bearing in mind the effect of this type of activity on the writing process.

These include:

- walking and running on an even and varied ground, running to the destination with specific activities;
- crawling, quadrupling, avoiding obstacles: track slalom, jumping over obstacles, passing through hoops;
- hand exercises: darts, circulation, two-handed and one-handed grips, free throws and aimed at any given distance, tossing, bouncing, turning, dropping, lifting, e.g. balls, bags;
- gymnastic exercises taking into account the sequentiality of tasks, torso twists, reinforcing the defective rim, e.g. arms circulation, exercises on ladders, wheelbarrows, crab walk, using the position lying on the back or stomach type cradle on the stomach and back, throws to the target lying down on the stomach, bouncing the ball with your feet/arms;
- exercises with the use of sports equipment such as jumping rope, riding a bicycle, a scooter, a skateboard with pushing legs, pulling a rope, exercising on a swing, a carousel, a trampoline, an equivalent board.

The proposed exercises are usually carried out in the form of motion games in the room or outdoors. They all seem typical, applied more or less systematically in the child's broadly understood physical activity. But precisely because they are typical, well-known to teachers, their importance for the development of writing skills is often underestimated.

It is worth remembering that all orientation and order exercises, with elements of balance, quivering, racing, with elements of projection, rolling, aiming,

with elements of climbing, jumping and skipping, gymnastic exercises with sequence of movements, rhythmic games with music stimulate not only motor development but perfect, among others attention, concentration, visual and auditory perception, orientation in space, lateralization, and this will translate into the ability to read and write fluently in the future.

As a supplement, I suggest a set of selected motion games that stimulate high motor skills for children aged six years and older (after: Grzywniak, 2013).

General development exercises:

- Marching. Teaching aids: a drum or other percussion instrument, rhythmic songs. Examples: marching with high knees and alternating movements of hands, on fingers, on heels, backwards, in a place with variable pace.
- Feet exercising. Teaching aids: background music adapted at the pace and rhythm of children's walk. Examples: walking on toes with heels raised high, small steps on heels, on the inner and outer edges of the feet (if possible for a child), wrestling feet in pairs (lying on the back or in a semi-recumbent position, with support on the forearms, touching feet and wrestling, trying to stay in this position for a moment).
- Practising visual and movement coordination in space. Teaching aids: elements to create an obstacle course. Examples: overcoming the obstacle course standing up, on all fours, walking, running, jumping.
- Bags in different ways. Teaching aids: gym bags, a whistle or a percussion instrument. Important: you can impose the exercise: two-handed throws, one-handed, two-handed grip, one-handed. Examples: singly – throwing the bags at the highest possible on signal, as far as possible (the bag is to fall on the floor, the child picks it up and continues to play), in pairs – throwing by one child, lifting and passing to a colleague, flipping the bag from hand to hand – should be tossed to the eye height, throwing the bag to each other for a change standing pretty close in pairs, throwing to a designated target from a certain distance, e.g. to the container/basket/shield placed on the wall or on the floor.

Balance exercises:

- Swaying. Teaching aids: an equivalent platform. Examples: on the platform with your hands in the side, rocking sideways, forward, backward; It is difficult to sway with catching and throwing, for example, a bag, balls.
- TIP-TOP. Examples: walking along the line (can be drawn, can be imagined by a child) forward and backward, foot after foot, without eye control (looking ahead), hands along the body.
- Balance. Examples: standing on one leg with leaning forward, with arms side-lined.
- STORKS. Examples: standing on one leg for a few seconds, with a leg change, hands along the torso or sideways.

Examples of exercises for children from 6 to 9 years of age in the area of high motility (after: Kephart, 1979)

Another exercise that we can use in both diagnosis and stimulation of high motor skills are the exercises developed by Newell C. Kephart. It is worth asking yourself what effect these exercises have on the development of other skills, not only motor skills. The description form is quite detailed. The teacher receives instructions on how to evaluate the exercise in two aspects: proper and improper performance by the child. This makes it easier to observe and draw the right conclusions.

I will present two groups of exercises:

- I. Balancing: moving forward, backwards, sideways – exercises primarily stimulate the ability to maintain balance and the development of control over the body in space, flexibility of posture. Performing these exercises without sight control allows the child to feel its body properly. Moving forward, backwards and sideways develops the imagination and orientation in space, which has a significant impact on the development of lateralization.
- II. Knowledge about your own body and the ability to control its individual parts: recognition of body parts based on feedback, imitation of movements based on visual information. Exercises with obstacles – above, under, between, snow eagles develop attention, auditory and visual perception, orientation in space and stimulate the development of lateralization.

All exercises require the child to take different positions: standing, lying, bent or variable, while moving in space. They stimulate the child to take proper actions with and without sight control.

Ad I. Balancing – advancing: ex 1. – forward; ex. 2. – backwards; ex. 3. – sideways.

Teaching aids: ready-made instruments for the exercise of balance or bench, wooden beam with cross-sectional dimensions 5 cm to 10 cm and length from 240 to 360 cm.

Tasks for a child:

- Ex. 1. The child is standing at the end of the bench and has to go through it to the other end, going forward.
- Ex. 2. A child, turned back to the bench, is to enter and walk backwards through it.
- Ex. 3. The child is standing (turned sideways) at the end of the bench, which is to its right; it has to go sideways to the other end and go back the same way, but this time moving to the left. Attention! It is important to move the legs – moving the right foot to the right and moving the left foot to it.

Proper task execution: exercises 1st and 2nd – the child maintains his/her own balance and corrects his/her posture at the time of the risk of falling; Ex. 3. – similarly as above and can transfer weight from one leg to the other.

Improper performance of exercises: 1. – difficulties in maintaining the balance: descent from the bench more than once, frequent stopping when the balance is disturbed and the inability to recover it, using one side of the body for counter-weight, for example: only one arm; ex. 2. – similarly as above and: difficulty in performing the exercise without paying attention to your feet, excessive hesitation in going backwards (it may indicate difficulty in controlling the reverse direction), failure to undertake the task; ex. 3. – lack of the ability to transfer the weight of the body from one leg to the other, hesitation when movement goes from one foot to the other, passing only in one direction (indicates problems with lateralization and knowledge of the direction), easier to do the exercise in one than in the other direction (probable difficulties with lateralization).

Ad II. Knowledge about your own body and the ability to control its individual parts:

Ex. 1. Identification of body parts based on feedback.

Ex. 2. Imitation of movements through visual information.

Ex 3. Exercises with obstacles – passing: a) over an obstacle, b) under an obstacle, c) between an obstacle.

Ex 4. Eagles on the snow.

Teaching aids: there is no aid for exercises 1, 2 and 4. 3: a) pole or narrow board placed on the seat of two chairs, b) pole or board located on the chair back, c) two chairs with backrests in such a distance that the child has to move sideways between them.

Tasks for a child:

Ex 1. The child stands in front of the teacher at a distance of about 3.5 m, touches his body parts with hands on the basis of indicated teacher's word commands.

Ex 2. The child stands in front of the teacher at a distance of 2.5–3 m in an upright position with hands freely down along the body, it does what the teacher shows: one-sided, two-sided, crossing movements.

Ex. 3. a) The child has to pass over an obstacle with a height reaching his knees without touching it with his legs; b) is to pass in a position slightly inclined under an obstacle located about 5 cm lower than its arms without touching it; c) has to move through a narrow passage between the chairs without touching the edge.

Ex 4. The child lies on its back with hands along the body and legs joined together; after completing the initial exercise, performs the correct exercises according to the teacher's instructions.

Pre-exercise: move your hands up over your head until both hands touch each other, all the time touching the floor, then spread your legs wide apart, keeping your heels on the floor all the time.

Tasks for the teacher:

Ex. 1. Correct and clear issuing commands such as: touch your arms, hips, head, elbows (he must cross his arms - we allow hesitation, which is a sign of surprise), etc.

Ex 2. A teacher must have a board with patterns of movements for himself that he will show.

Ex 3. No additional tasks.

Ex 4. When issuing commands, the teacher points the given limb with the finger: a) commands of the type: follow the movement with this hand (pointing to the child's right hand), now return to the previous position; subsequent plaits similarly: indication of a child's left hand, right leg, left leg; b) commands of type: perform two-handed movement; two legs; c) commands of the type: make a move with this hand and leg (indicating the child's left leg and hand); another plait similarly: indication of the child's right leg and hand; on the right hand and left leg; on the left hand and right leg. The child must always return to the previous position.

Proper exercise execution: ex. 1. – the child knows the name, is aware of the existence of a part of the body and their exact location; ex. 2. – full control over upper limbs – separately and in combinations, good mapping, inversion of movements, e.g.: right hand of the teacher – child's right hand or consistent mapping in a parallel manner, e.g. right hand of the teacher – left hand of a child, certain, determined and quick execution of tasks; ex. 3. – good feeling of the space occupied by body parts in different positions, no touching of obstacles, not exceeding the height – acceptable error limit 2.5–4 cm, not lifting the legs too high, not going too low, not touching the chairs; ex. 4. – correct mapping of all combinations, exercise on the basis of finger pointing, smooth and determined movements reach the maximum range, no co-ordinated movements.

Improper performance of tasks: 1. – the child does not know the names of body parts, the lack of awareness of their exact position in space, touches only one element from a pair, e.g. one ear; ex. 2. – problems with controlling limbs, each separately and in various combinations, confusing in mapping, lack of self-confidence, lack of consistency in movements – once reversed, once parallel (this indicates poor lateralization and familiarity with the schema of your body); ex. 3. – overestimating or underestimating the space (going beyond the error limit), too high raising of legs, too low bending, touching the chair, knocking down the obstacle, not carrying out any task or all; ex. 4. – clear fluctuation when starting movements, limiting the range of movement in any pattern, coordinates, inability to start movement or identification of the right limb based on sight, inability to perform any combination.

Summary

Motority can be defined as human mobility possibilities and needs, paying attention to the increasing effectiveness in undertaken motor activities. When teaching a child certain behaviours, we care about improving the quality and

effectiveness of specific movement patterns, but above all, we use movement as one of the means to stimulate development. That is why the term “psychomotor development” is so important, as it emphasizes the close relationship and interplay of psyche and motor skills.

Grafomotrics is a combination of graphics, or recording, with motor skills, or the ability to perform various motor activities. In order for the child to be able to make precise movements using fingers and hands (small motor skills) and convert it into a graphic image while plotting e.g. a square, a cane, a letter or a sequence of letters in the word, it must refer to previous experiences. The activities related to perception, visual-motor coordination, memory of specific movement patterns, based on general motor fitness, are stimulated. The main idea of this article was to show how important it is to stimulate motor development of a child in the area of high motility. I wanted to encourage teachers of early education to reflect – when preparing a child to write to remember the movement in the broad sense. Before we put our children at the desks with a pencil and a notebook in their hands, let us take care of their attitude, the awareness of their own body. Strengthen strength and flexibility, perfect coordination and efficiency in maintaining balance. Let us make sure that children become more and more free, and thus creatively motivated.

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RUDOLF LABAN'S MODERN EDUCATIONAL DANCE AS A FORM OF PLAY AND EDUCATION FOR CHILDREN IN SPECIAL SCHOOL – AN ORIGINAL PROGRAM FOR CHILDREN IN THE AFTER-SCHOOL CARE PROGRAM

The creative gymnastics of Rudolf Laban is one of the methods that activate the child to take action during work and play, creative problem solving as well as to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships. In this program, creative gymnastics is understood as any physical activity, inspired or not, which gives the child joy and satisfaction, and at the same time has a positive impact on its physical fitness and widely understood development. In the method of creative gymnastics, Laban distinguishes the following categories of movements: leading to the recognition of one's own body – the movements of this category allow for gradual learning of individual elements of one's own body; shaping the relationship of the individual with the physical environment – these movements help a person to establish proper relationships with the world around him, give a sense of stability and security; movements leading to the formation of a relationship with another human being – the purpose of the movements performed within this category is to establish positive relationships with another person, based on mutual trust and understanding; movements leading to cooperation in a group – the goals of movements of this category are similar to the goals of the previous category, with the difference that the number of participants of exercises from one partner to several groups changes; creative movement – a category of spontaneous, unplanned, creative, free movements (Bogdanowicz, Kisiel, Przasnyska, 1996; Bogdanowicz, Krasica, 2009). 8In the category of leading movements for shaping relationships with other people and leading to cooperation with the group there are relational exercises, i.e. based on a relationship with another human being (Sherborne, 2012). These are "with" relationships – physical exercises in which one partner is passive and the other active and caring towards him. This type of exercise creates mutual trust between partners. The "against" relations

are movement exercises, the aim of which is to make the participants aware of their own strength when interacting with the partner. This type of exercise teaches how to dispense and control strength, and consequently, control of emotions.

“Together” relations are movement exercises that require equal involvement of partners – this type of exercise teaches harmony and balance (Marcinkowska, 2005). Relational exercises include five topics on the following aspects: topic 1 deals with the sense and awareness of one’s body; 2. – feeling and awareness of weight and strength; 3. – intuition and control of space; 4. – refers to the sense of movement fluency, body weight, space and time; 5. relates to shaping the ability to interact with a partner and/or group (Michanow, 1980).

Creative gymnastics gives the child an opportunity to become independent and acquire social competences that are extremely important in the modern world for both a healthy child and the one with disability. Due to its educational and social values, creative gymnastics is particularly important in the process of special education, which is used by people with various types and degrees of disability. It should be possible for such people to organize conditions in which they could independently function in the contemporary social world. This author’s program designed for children using special education is the result of attempts to organize such conditions.

Educational groups exist in the Educational and Care Facility Complex in Lwówek Śląski, which exclude the existence of a school day-room. Children who travel to school by bus every day are enrolled in educational group I. This group operates on similar terms to the school day club until 15:00, i.e. until the children are taken to their family homes. The participants of the classes resulting from the implementation of the authors’ program are students from grades I–III and IV–VIII of the elementary school in the Special School and Education Centre at the Educational and Care Facility in Lwówek Śląski.

Theoretical assumptions of the program

General information

The author of the program is an oligophrenopedagogue and teacher of pre-school and early school education, working with the Educational and Care Facility in Lwówek Śląsk I (ZPEW) since 2007. She worked with commuting children (educational group I) in 2011–2015. This program is the result of previous experience in working with children and adults with intellectual, motor and coupled disabilities, and observing students in a special school during everyday activities during work and play. It is also a response to the needs or expectations of children, which are often not articulated, although noticeable

in educational situations, requiring children's independence, creative attitude, cooperation with other children or with adults. The program was developed in the course of writing a master's thesis (Weyer, 2012).

Students commuting to school in ZPEW in Lwówek Śląski, attending classes in educational group I, are aged from 7 to 24. They are characterized by different, individual abilities and developmental needs that result from the type and degree of their disability. The element connecting students of a special school is the need for movement, expressing emotions, mental states and desires. Movement, understood as intentional and conscious activity, gives the child the opportunity to express both positive and negative emotions, enables raising the level of motor skills. This program is intended for children attending classes I–III and IV–VIII of the primary school, i.e. aged 6–7. The final age of students cannot be clarified, because in special education one can often encounter a lack of promotion of a child to upper classes, not being classified or extending the educational stage. The age at primary school can therefore be significantly more advanced than in public school conditions.

The implementation of the program is planned for the time of classes with the educational group and in the form of extracurricular activities, but not more often than twice a week. It results from the necessity to implement the assumptions of the care and educational plan in a given school year.

The place of classes will depend on their character, weather conditions and current needs and proposals of children. It is envisaged that these can be rooms in the school (day room, gymnasium, Multisensory Interaction Workshop, room for Sensory Integration); outside school buildings (playground, playground or football pitch) and off-site activities.

Aids to classes conducted with the method of creative gymnastics will be prepared on a regular basis or rented from the gym, however, not all classes will need them.

Theoretical foundations of the program

The author's program on creative gymnastics by Rudolf Laban in a special school is located in the humanistic model, the basis of which was the philosophy of the nineteenth century, above all pragmatism, existentialism and phenomenology. The basic principles of the philosophical concept of the humanities result from the program assumptions, stress the free and independent actions of the student in the education process, references to the child's personal experiences, also indicate that changes in the development of knowledge and skills are process-oriented, and the child's understanding and interpretation of reality is extremely important (Gołębnik, 2006).

John Dewey, the creator of pragmatism, in the views of education rejected the idea of absolute knowledge in favour of experience as the source of all

cognition, but the most important thing for him was not getting the truth, but the process of reaching it. This author perceived knowledge as a process, not as a product that can be obtained, collected (Dewey, 1972; Melosik, 2006). It follows that “the learning process is to reconstruct personal and social experience, and experience constitutes a learning infrastructure” (ibid., p. 313).

The experience is closely related to the action thanks to which a person learns about the world, other people and also himself. Working in pragmatism is focused on solving problems that people experience in their entire lives, and this in turn is a source of knowledge. Zbyszko Melosik (ibid.) thinks that education is a process of experiencing which, due to the variability of the world and the uninterrupted learning process, does not reach the final state. The consequence of this approach to education are certain theoretical assumptions of the school curriculum, which is realized on the basis of the child’s personal experience, as well as its interests and needs, because only such a program will support the internal motivation of the child and enable it to use the acquired knowledge (ibid.). It is worth noting that Dewey (1972) “wants to make man an aware co-creator of changes in the human world, free and responsible, capable of initiative and independent development of issues emerging from life” (Melosik, 2006, p. 315). Man can achieve such a state when in the process of education he undertakes independent, individualized actions, but at the same time it is focused on cooperation, because “there is no individual in society separated from the social whole” (ibid., p. 316; Dewey, 1972, p. 59).

An important reference of these views is contemporary humanistic psychology, also called psychology “I”, which was created in the 1960s as a result of a protest against behaviourism and psychoanalysis (Kozielecki, 2000). Abraham Maslow on the subject of interest in humanistic psychology said that “as far as Freud dealt with human weaknesses, humanistic psychology tries to discover its strengths” (for: Kozielecki, 2000, p. 239). Maslow and Carl Rogers – the main representatives of the mainstream of humanistic psychology – have noticed that man is a unique whole, and the basic and most important property of human nature is internally conditioned development (ibid.). The basis of development is the occurrence of motivation, which humanistic psychologists understand as a function of the whole organism, not conditioned by individual elements of the human personality. Therefore, man’s action is determined by his pursuit of self-realization and updating his own potential chances, and these aspirations are constructive and positive (ibid.). It is worth to point out the questions that are at the centre of interest in humanistic psychology, namely: “How to facilitate and accelerate the harmonious development of the individual? What should be done to enable them to update their potential chances and to become an authentic and creative person?” (ibid., p. 245). These questions will be accompanied and at the same time set the path of proceedings with the child in a special school during the implementation of the program content.

While constructing the offer for a special school student in the spirit of humanistic psychology, the child's experiences and interests were based on. It gives the opportunity to improve the quality of life and to shape self-awareness. Due to the individual dimension of development, the freedom of human personality and human creative abilities postulated in humanistic psychology, the child's intellect as well as its emotions as the basis for interaction and cooperation, which result in cognition, will be involved during the classes carried out using creative gymnastics. The student's knowledge is understood as a process in which reality changes constantly, while learning becomes problem-solving. A teacher who interacts with the student in the education process is a person assisting the student in independently learning. In this approach, the student is a participant and co-founder of education, and above all a researcher of reality.

Learning objectives

“Educators should beware of goals that are considered general and final [...]. This kind of abstraction of goals causes [...] the phenomenon of reducing the processes of teaching and learning to the role of preparatory measures, leading to goals with these means having nothing in common. Meanwhile, education in the literal sense of the word and at every stage is in itself something that has price and value” (Melosik, 2006, pp. 312–313). Referring to Melosik, the goals of education are divided into general and specific ones, defining those achievable, giving opportunities, and not indicating the final form or skills of the child after the implementation of this program.

The most important aspects, areas of education that can be nominated are: a) to stimulate the child's physical development in a special school; b) organizing the conditions for establishing and maintaining positive interpersonal relations; c) enabling the child to engage in creative activities; d) organizing such conditions in which the child can speak freely; e) supporting the development of multidirectional activity of the child; f) creating conditions for building a positive self-image, g) supporting the child in the education process; h) organizing educational situations in which the child can make independent decisions and decide together with the group, for example by voting; i) learning responsibility and consistency in action.

After thoroughly analysing the new core curriculum of general education for children studying in a special school and seeking references to creative gymnastics in everyday educational practice, it was noted that in the *curriculum of general education for primary school* (OJ 2017, item 356, pp. 11–221) and in the *core curriculum of general education for students with moderate or severe intellectual disabilities in primary schools* (ibid., pp. 222–237) there are no recommendations or even more requirements concerning the use of Laban's creative gymnastics, however, from the document that regulates the teaching content at particular

educational stages, you can get a lot of valuable tips and use them in working with a disabled child.

“the school and individual teachers undertake activities aimed at individual support of each student’s development, according to their needs and abilities [a] the teacher should choose tasks so that on the one hand they do not overwhelm the student’s abilities, and on the other, they do not reduce the motivation to cope with the challenges” (ibid., p. 13). In the case of students with moderate or significant disabilities, the school’s tasks concern: “creating conditions necessary to provide the student with a sense of security, strengthening self-worth and acceptance and mental comfort in the process of integration with the environment, while supporting the activity [...]; providing conditions to achieve the objectives of education and revalidation [...] enabling: a) establishing a positive emotional contact between the teacher and the student, and b) shaping social competences: creating educational situations that enable social relationships [...] c) developing motivation to communicate with another person, communicate needs and emotional states by speech or supporting or alternative methods of communication; [...] d) participation in various types of games: manipulation, construction, movement, music and dance, [...] e) development of psychophysical fitness; [...] f) shaping the ability to deal with different social situations; learning the skills of dealing with fear, anxiety and stress and solving conflict situations” (ibid., pp. 222–224).

Content of education

In this author’s program concerning the creative gymnastics of Laban, one should not concentrate solely on the contents of subject education, because the core of the program is the method of creative gymnastics. On it lies the innovation of this program. During the implementation of the program assumptions, the content of education appropriate for subject teaching from the first and second educational stage and the content of general education for students with moderate or significant intellectual disabilities to primary school may be used.

By choosing the content of education, the criterion of suitability was adopted, which concerns the need to use selected content in the future, and the criterion of learning needs related to the current interests, needs and psychomotor opportunities of the child in a special school (Komorowska, 1999). The most important in special education – but not only special – is the integration of useful and valuable content with what interests and occupies the child. Analysing the *core curriculum of general education for primary school* (OJ 2017, item 356, pp. 11–221) and the *core curriculum of general education for students with moderate or severe intellectual disabilities in primary schools* (ibid., pp. 222–236), some were selected only for the content of education, which will be implemented during

the classes using the Laban's creative gymnastics method, which are identical with the assumptions of the discussed method.

A slightly different approach to teaching content in a special school is presented in the *core curriculum of general education for students with moderate or severe intellectual disabilities in primary school* (ibid., pp. 11–221), because “scope of teaching content and education of students’ with moderate or significant intellectual disability is adapted to the individual educational needs and psycho-physical abilities of the student. When implementing the teaching and up-bringing content, the opportunities provided by the school’s material and didactic base as well as the socio-cultural environment in which the student lives and learns should be used. [...] Teaching and education contents are subject to broadening, repeating and consolidation as the students acquire knowledge, abilities and skills” (ibid., pp. 227–228). The areas on which one can work using creative gymnastics should be indicated. In the sub-section *Teaching Contents* of the curriculum, there are elements relevant to the creative gymnastics of Laban. Students from the first stage of education can work on areas in the field of social education, music education and physical education (ibid.). Students from the second stage of education, in the field of physical education (ibid.).

The education process must be based on the basic needs of the child and its psychophysical abilities. The most important need is movement, so in the care and educational should be taken into account all the games and movement games and exercises shaping the habits of maintaining a correct posture and preventing its defects (ibid.). The priority in the education of a student with intellectual disabilities to a moderate or significant extent is “to develop personal, communication and social competences that will allow future, reasonably independent, dignified and valuable life in adulthood, maximum integration with other members of society” (ibid., p. 235). Students with moderate or severe intellectual disability can work on areas of the “I” (ibid., pp. 228–229), surroundings and I (ibid., pp. 229–234) and What helps me (ibid., p. 234). In the field of artistic creation, the child can undertake music, art and dance activities; during physical activities they can take part in games and activities developing psychophysical fitness, in gymnastic and corrective exercises, necessary for psycho-motor development or in sports competitions. They can also use the acquired motor skills in everyday life and prepare for active leisure time (ibid.).

Procedures for achieving goals

While implementing the teaching content, one should use Labana's creative gymnastics, which is the subject and the most important element of this program, but this does not mean abandoning the possibility of using other activating methods derived from humanistic psychology, on the basis of which this

program is constructed. Other methods of working with a child than creative gymnastics, which can be used during classes resulting from the implementation of the author's program, are: a) The Developmental Movement method by Weronika Sherborne (relational gymnastic exercises); b) The method of Carl Orff's movement tales (movement improvisations of a story or a literary work); c) Clan's method (playing with an animation shawl); d) The method of practical operation (including finger or hand painting); e) Method of games and movement games (two fires, team mini-games); f) Sensory Integration Method (exercises with SI equipment for a relational nature); g) Spontaneous and/or formal theatricalization.

The main forms of work are the following: a) individual, b) team and c) group (ibid.), which are the axis supporting the development of the personal and social student (ibid.).

These forms of work enable the child to learn in cooperation. They are related to the use of all communication channels and creating an environment conducive to shaping other key skills: cooperation, negotiation, discussion, as well as managing the work of others and submission to management (Gołębniak, 2006).

During the course the following teaching aids may be used: a) gymnastic and team games; b) technical and painting accessories; c) music discs of various types; d) poems for children, fairy tales, stories; e) books and magazines related to the subject matter of the classes; f) animation shawl.

For teachers who work on the Labana creative gymnastics method, the following books can be extremely useful in planning activities: *Play and movement games* (Trześniowski, 1953), *Fun with a shawl* (Wasilak, 2002), *Auxiliary materials for conducting physical education classes in kindergartens and primary schools by the Laban method* (Michanow, 1980), *Developing Movement for Children* (Sherborne, 2012), *Description and planning of classes by the Method of Developmental Movement by Weronika Sherborne* (Bogdanowicz, Okrzesik, 2016).

Procedures for assessing students

The achievements of students attending classes in the school day-room (educational group I) are not subject to formal evaluation. Therefore, there is no need to formulate procedures for assessing students in terms of the teaching content to be delivered during the program classes conducted by the Laban method. It is worth noting that participation in classes is voluntary. Therefore, it is not possible to apply coercion or draw consequences from non-participation. It is important, however, that a child who does not want to participate in classes should allow other people to work freely and cannot disturb the teacher in conducting classes. It is worth emphasizing, however, that at any moment the child can join the group and take up the activity (Zaorska, 2003).

Forms of implementation of the author's program

Project of classes

1. Weekly subject of classes: *I get to know the world with my senses*. Theme of the day: *Morning in the fruit orchard*.
2. Place: gymnasium.
3. Duration: 1–1.5 hours.
4. Objectives:
 - a) Didactic: organizing a situation in which a child will be able to learn and use the names of the senses of a human being; exercise of the ability to formulate short but understandable sentence forms – commands.
 - b) Educational: enabling the child to make contact (verbal, tactile) with another human being – building social relations (OJ 2017, item 356, p. 11); inspiring the child to make a verbal statement to other class participants; allowing the child to participate in activities during which it can trust the other person.
 - c) Revalidation: physical fitness exercises (balance, large motor skills, small motor skills); “Supporting multidirectional activity of the child through multisensory learning” (ibid., p. 16).
5. Topics of exercises carried out during classes: topic 3. concerning the sense and control of space; topic 4. on the sense of fluidity of movement and body weight; topic 5. on shaping the ability to interact with a partner and/or group.
6. Content from the core curriculum carried out during classes using the Labana creative gymnastics method:
 - a) in the field of environmental education: “recognition of selected animals and plants” (ibid., p. 40);
 - b) in the field of social education: “accepting the consequences of participating in a group and one’s own conduct in relation to the adopted norms and values” (ibid., p. 39);
 - c) in the field of physical education: “performing arcade exercises – crises, transfusions, crawling, pulling up, fixing in low and high positions, lifting and moving accessories” (ibid., pp. 46–47); “Organizing and participating in games and team games” (ibid., pp. 47, 186);
 - d) in the field of music education: “listening to music in combination with physical activity, sound-producing gestures and sound-imitating gestures” (ibid., p. 44); “Movement improvisations – presenting movement of musical and extra-musical content, movement interpretation of rhythmic patterns, moving around and dancing according to movement systems created by them” (ibid., p. 45);
 - e) in the area of the *Me in the world of culture and entertainment*: “implementation to participate in various forms of creativity” (ibid., p. 233);

- f) in the area of *My free time*: “implementation to play with other people” (ibid., p. 233).
7. Applied methods: creative gymnastics, movement story, method of practical operation, Klanza method.
 8. Aid: animated shawl; gymnastic bags; cones; headscarf or scarf; plates with sliced fruits; sacks with whole fruits; fragrance oils (fruit and flower), baskets, CD or MP3 player, sound tracks with animal sounds and atmospheric phenomena.
 9. The course of classes:
 - a) Greeting children. Proposing classes during which the child will learn about the surrounding reality with the help of the senses (touch, smell, taste, hearing) and participate in exercises and movement games.
 - b) Fun with an animating scarf:
 - letting go of the sparkle during greetings (slight shaking of the scarf with the left hand at the right hand of the child on the left side – every child performs this movement one by one, after the predecessor, obtaining a wave effect.
 - in the background you can hear the sounds of a storm – the game “Tent” (Wasilak, 2002) – children hide from the storm and remain in the tent until the silence comes. In the background you can hear birds singing, feel the scent of flowers. Children come out from the tent, move the scarf to the side of the room.
 - c) Looking around the orchard, showing facial expressions and gestures of horror with the enormity of destruction after a storm. Task divided into two groups: the first group is laid on the floor – like fallen trees, the other group watches broken branches and overturned trees, bypasses them, skips, overcomes on all fours, crawls (Michanow, 1980, p. 11) . After a moment, roles are exchanged. Task in pairs: attempts to transfer imaginary branches and trunks to one, ever higher pile (showing movement – gestures of the body – weight of trees being moved and fatigue in physical work).
 - d) Rest after work – children lie down in a comfortable position and perform breathing exercises. At this time, the teacher prepares the room for the next exercises (he spreads the bollards and spreads gymnastic bags sprinkled with fruit oils).
 - e) Children turn into wild animals that came to the orchard: moving between trees (cones), imitating behaviour (movements and sounds) of deer, wild boars, bison, foxes (light, sluggish, fast, slow movements). The animals sniff the fruits lying on the ground, they burrow in the ground, they dig the piles of leaves and branches. Wild animals turn into light birds, butterflies and insects – children also imitate their sounds.
 - f) Children are divided into several teams. Each team receives a large wicker basket. Two people from the team carry an increasingly heavier basket

with fruit, the other people pick up fruit (green, purple and red bags with the scents of apples, plums and cherries) that fell during the storm, and break them off the trees. The first team collects apples, the second plums, the third cherries. Children adjust picking movements to the type (size and weight) of the fruits they collect. In the background you can hear the music of rustling trees and birds singing. The task lasts until the music stops. During this time, the teacher prepares aids for further movement tasks (on the animation sling he spreads the plates with pieces of fruit – each fruit has a different colour, the sacks with whole fruits are spread in front of the shawl).

- g) Children are paired up. One person gets a scarf to cover their eyes, the other becomes a guide of the blind person. Children in pairs have to reach the animation shawl going through the orchard (trees are still spaced cones). The guide, using word instructions, must safely lead the blind to the scarf. A person with blindfolded eyes is supposed to guess the name of the fruit in the bag/on the plate without using the sense of sight. He can touch it, smell it, try it. The other person can help by describing the appearance of the fruit.
(Before carrying out food classes, find out if any of the children are allergic to the products used during the class).
- h) Taking away the aids and meeting on the animation sling. Round at the end of the class: How did you feel as a guide in the game? How did you feel, having veiled eyes, were you dependent on another person? In which role did you feel better?
- i) Invitation to any play (about 10 minute long) until the arrival of the bus. Motion games according to the children's idea, including basic safety rules.
- j) Thanking for classes and saying goodbye to children.

Ending and conclusions

The motor development and creativity of the child are one of the most important effects to which creative gymnastics is to lead. When conducting classes using the Laban method, it is worth checking if it brings the expected results. In the case of students with disabilities commuting to SOSW – improving social relations, and what is connected with it, better integration of the educational group I. Such conclusions can be obtained on the basis of the assessment of the child's functioning and behaviour in the group.

For this purpose, you can use various research methods used in pedagogy. Two methods were applied to pupils from the Special School and Educational Centre from Lwówek Śląski: sociometric test by Jacob Leo Moreno (Łobocki,

2009; Jarosz, Wysocka, 2006; Guziuk-Tkacz, 2011), thanks to which one can determine the position in the group of its members, group dynamics and intra-group phenomena; observation of students (Łobocki, 2009) participating in creative gymnastics classes and in everyday social situations with their peers and adults. Using the first method in each school year, two sociometric tests were conducted: at the beginning of the school year, however, after the students got to know each other (end of September), and after the end of the classes (second half of June). During the school year, Laban's classes were held 1–2 times a week.

During the annual cycle of classes, the focus was on group relations and improvement of their quality. For this purpose, exercises were carried out in the area of the following movement topics: intuition and awareness of one's body; sense and awareness of weight and strength; sense and control of space, sense of fluidity of movement, body weight, space and time; shaping the ability to interact with a partner and a group.

During the classes observation of student behaviour was carried out during individual, in pairs, teams and with the whole group exercises. The analysis covered the social area of children's activity: attitude to classes, attitude to tasks, attitude to a partner in a pair, attitude to another child, and attitude to the group and group tasks (Bogdanowicz, 2013). The observation concerned especially those people who in the sociometric test proved to be the least popular in the group or excluded from it. There were also organized situations in which these students were involved in the activities of a team or group in order to achieve mutual success, which enabled the gradual inclusion and integration of people who are not very popular or rejected with the whole community of educational group I. The use of two independent methods enabled a real assessment of the effectiveness of the actions taken, as well as provided data on the areas on which it is worth working in the future, not only with students commuting to school, but with all class teams. Undoubted advantages of the use of the creative gymnastics method for people with disabilities give hope for the dissemination of it as an alternative to traditional methods and forms of work with a child in a special school.

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