

No 5(296) 2018
November–December

Special issue.
Selection of scientific articles
translated into English

Special School



Ministerstwo Nauki
i Szkolnictwa Wyższego

Edycja anglojęzyczna artykułów naukowych w czasopiśmie Szkoła Specjalna – zadanie finansowane w ramach umowy nr 648/P-DUN/2018 przez Ministra Nauki i Szkolnictwa Wyższego przeznaczony na działania w zakresie upowszechniania nauki

English-language edition of scientific articles in the magazine Special School – task financed under the agreement No. 648/P-DUN/2018 by the Minister of Science and Higher Education allocated to the activities of disseminating science

CONTENTS

SCIENTIFIC STUDIES

- 3 – *Hanna Żuraw*
Dreams of people with moderate intellectual disabilities
- 21 – *Ewa Niestorowicz*
Reality in blind people's drawings. Research procedures and tools
- 35 – *Małgorzata Kupisiewicz*
Economic education – Children with mild intellectual disabilities on the road to adulthood

FROM TEACHING PRACTICE

- 51 – *Barbara Trochimiak*
Individualized Education and Therapy Programs – Legal aspects with a commentary.
Part 1

Transl. Joanna Siemieniuk

DREAMS OF PEOPLE WITH MODERATE INTELLECTUAL DISABILITIES

Dreams defined as a form of mental activity that focuses on fulfilling desires, aims, and plans regarding one's life are a synthetic reflection of a human being's past and presence, and his or her vision of the future. Exploring dreams has cognitive, ethical, and practical dimensions. It provides knowledge of a person's inner life and the quality of his or her experiences. Analysis of the dreams of people with moderate intellectual disabilities expresses respect for their humanity. The findings of explorations regarding the dreams of this group of people can serve as a predictor in developing practical solutions to improve the quality of their lives. The paper presents information on the dreams of women with moderate intellectual disabilities. Their dreams refer to something that is beyond them – to the issues of self-esteem, independence, social response to disability, and the features of their situation in life. Their dreams show exclusion from the privilege of adulthood, that is – from independence. They show a strong bond between the women and their mothers, their desire to enhance their lives, and their aiming at stabilization and being among familiar, close people. Observations made in the study suggest the need for institutions that will replace motherly care in the future and will allow an enriched life.

Keywords: dreams, intellectual disability, social exclusion

Introduction

A benchmark for the effectiveness of rehabilitation, as a long-lasting process of kneading or restoring fitness, is the place occupied by a person with an inborn disability in adult social life and their access to such normalization attributes as work, having a partner, functional and mental autonomy. If the process of improvement was to be successful, a man suffering the effects of birth defects should have access to these states of affairs and experiences that are considered important for the majority of people of a given age and sex living in a given cultural circle. In the case of adults with disabilities, it would be about access to employment, self-determination, having a partner, own apartment, a group of friends, life passions.

There are, however, social groups that are excluded from the rite of adulthood because of the type and degree of dysfunction. One of them includes people with moderate intellectual disabilities. Identified with the category of eternal children, whose existence passes in asylum, they are sometimes deprived of the attributes of mature life, such as decisiveness, employment, sexuality, and money disposition. Their situation is at odds with the ideology of rehabilitation in its normalizing and integrating paradigm. Doubts arise as to whether people who are interested in us aspire to set standards of life at all. Searching for the answer to this question, I undertook research into the dreams of the group mentioned. I refer to the vision of dreams as a kind of auto narration through which a man tries to understand the world around him and in which he projects his life situation. I have adopted a non-reductive vision of a man with deeper intellectual disability, according to which intellectual disability is one of many features shaping the functioning of man, and the whole of its functioning depends on the multitude of factors that affect it. Such a vision of a man with disability and his life makes that when analysing his situation, we reach out to its social context and get to know the reaction of the community towards disability and its oppressiveness. Just getting to know your dreams is to allow you to capture the subjective aspects of social exclusion, manifested by fears, uncertainty and unbelief in your abilities.

I also treat a person suffering from the effects of birth defects as a creature capable of making a critical assessment of living conditions and noticing the barriers imposed by society, which are not reduced by the best even programs for equalizing opportunities. The analysed issues of analysis are situated in the critical trend towards official ideologies of equality. It is a form of reflection on the problems of exclusion from adulthood. It makes us aware of the durability of social divisions. It shows common problems in the lives of people with and without disabilities – and these are dreams. In the study I showed a compendium of theoretical knowledge concerning the dreams and situations of people with moderate intellectual disabilities. I also presented the methodological orientations of my own research and their results.

Dreams – definitions, features, functions

The concept of dreams occurs both in colloquial speech and in the vocabulary of science. The dictionary-related term that we are interested in has three connotations. One of them defines it as “a sequence of images and thoughts that are imaginative reflecting desires, often unrealistic.” The second option captures it as “the object of desires and aspirations.” The third indicates the relationship of dreams with a specific time dimension and defines them as “a series of thoughts and ideas arising during sleep” (Dictionary... 2006, T. 1, p. 814). We

find similar definitions in the *Popular Encyclopaedia* (1995, p. 491), which captures dreams as a “loosely connected course of thoughts, imaginations and fantasies, which is a reflection of their own desires, usually strongly coloured with feelings”. Dreams so understood have 305 synonyms in 25 semantic groups (*Dictionary...*, 2006, T. 1, p. 814). Dream is a form of delusion, desire for something, delusions, something invented, a kind of purpose or object of desire. The dream is combined with the pattern, perfection, expression of longing; drive; wishes; passion; will; hobby; desire, hunger, interest, needs, instinct and desire, hunger, accusation, willingness to do something, to achieve something, desire, ambition, desire to have or experience something. A dream can be perceived as an activity or its effect, and as a trigger factor. The dream has its own synonyms in such terms as: fantasizing, imagining.

Although dreams occur throughout the life of a man, devotion to dreams is attributed to the period of childhood and youth, including fantasizing in the scope of privileges of the young age. The belittling of their importance later in life probably results from the ignorance of the role that dreams play also in further, one would like to say – serious and rational stages of life.

Currently, dreams are the object of interest in many fields of knowledge, but the most extensive considerations are found in psychological works (Adler, 1986; Bruner, 1990; Singer, 1980; Zimbardo, 2000; Matuszewski, 2002; Drebing et al., 1995; Freud, 1997; Levinson et al., 1978, 1996; Łukaszewski, 1984; Obuchowski, 1993).

In psychology, dreams are defined as “imaginative-thought activity, the object of which is to satisfy desires, aspirations, intentions concerning one’s own life, often strictly personal” (Dymara, 1999, p. 21). Dreams are also expressed as one of the forms of creative and non-directed thinking (autistic) (Matuszewski, 2002, p. 342). They are characterized by independence from situational factors and intentionality, because they either do not assume any purpose or they accept the adopted decisions vaguely. They do not have any fixed rules, thanks to which they combine various insights and ideas that are independent of each other. Literature analysis allows to see a significant convergence between concepts: plans and dreams. In establishing unambiguous criteria defining the scope of dreams and plans, the distinction made by Tadeusz Mądrzycki (2002), which is a specific synthesis of the presented positions in the subject literature, is helpful. According to this author, plans are made when choosing valuable goals takes place and there are real chances to make them happen. Meanwhile, dreams are dictated mainly by emotions and desires. As such, they do not take greater account of the conditions for their implementation. Planning understood in this way consists in deciding on future activities, while dreams are an act not directly related to specific provisions, but remain in the sphere of imaginations and free creations. Another important term that shows convergence with both dreams and plans is life goals. They are cognitively represented, achievable,

possessing value and regulatory power, future states of things to which man strives through action. They refer to the future time. They are potential states, anticipated in the human mind (Czerwińska-Jasiewicz, 1999a, p. 129). Life goals are an expression of the desired change that can affect a person or his environment. Their achievement requires taking action, and the fact that they result from human needs has a mobilizing effect. The object of aim (goal) is conscious and realistic, subject to valuation, and its implementation usually requires time and effort.

Features of a dream description

Dreams are characterized by many specific properties. One of them is the participation of consciousness and the relationship with time. These criteria allow to distinguish day and night dreams. The first ones occur with full awareness and have a wide time span (they can refer to the past, present and future). The content of daytime dreams are most often social relations, success (including heroism), and highly emotional events. They are the object of interest of psychologists of cognitive emotions and psychologists (Matuszewski, 2002; Łukaszewski, 1984; Obuchowski, 1993). They are composed of a set of events, actors (the main protagonist is usually a dreamer) and scenography (desirable or displaced objects) (Matuszewski, 2002).

Night reams resemble hallucinations, often characterized by visual or sound clarity and are embedded in real, everyday matters (often unresolved problems) and for this reason they are usually less pleasant than intentional aroused and constructed day dreams. They are characterized by lack of continuity and variability, which often presents difficulties in perception. Because the occurrence and content of dreams are only partly subject to the influence of the dreaming entity, as well as its social environment, it is less possible to get to know them and register them (this factor made me consider daydreams in this study).

Another feature of the dreams description is their sign. They can be positive and negative. In addition to those oriented towards the future, there are also distracting plans and plans that have a negative colour (Singer, 1980). They are associated with anxiety, fear, guilt, and bad intentions of other people. Another feature of dreams is their nature. The application of this criterion allows to distinguish between compensatory, utopian, real, magical and fairy dreams. Another property is duration. There are continuous dreams, sequential, fragmentary, long-lasting, short-lived and comprehensive (Pedagogical Encyclopaedia..., 2004, Volume III, pp. 82–84). In addition, the lyrical dreams are distinguished by longing for what exceeds the rigid frame of real reality that you want to beautify. They are characterized by lyrical fantasies, silent, close to a dream; introduction of mood-emotional elements; descriptiveness and static of imaginative structures (Adamczykowa, 2001, p. 161).

Other dream properties are their frequency (sequential appearance in time), content (object they concern), size (range – number of constituent plans, time and effort necessary to make them happen), diversity (one or more areas of life), degree of difficulty (reflecting the level of aspiration), degree of importance (more meaningful plans require more time and work, they also give more satisfaction), detail (creating a plan outline or a meticulous map, short-term plans are more carefully prepared than long-term plans), realistic (adequate assessment of external conditions and internal implementation of the plan), flexibility (adaptation of the plan to operation), time span, level of integration (hierarchy), compliance with moral standards (concerns objectives and ways to implement them) (Mądrzycki, 2002, pp. 133–138).

Dream functions

In the age of positivism, romantic imagination and imagination for technological progress were rejected. The concept of phantasmaticity and phantasmagoricity, or phantasm transformed into an object of admiration, fascination and aesthetic pleasure was erased (Janion, 1991). Nowadays, their role is appreciated, assuming that the dream is born of human needs and his desire to improve life resulting from perfect aspirations. It is a form of delight, a means of lasting in a certain hope that cannot be real at a given moment.

A dream can limit human activity, it can give rise to a critical attitude to many things. It can arouse anxiety-depressive states, inducing you to escape into the world of dreams. In this approach, dreams have a compensatory function – then they are a defense mechanism, escaping from reality into a world of fantasy (escapism – a dream, detachment from reality, avoidance of contemporary problems). Dreams can serve as a catharsis or anticipation function, i.e. refer to the past and be the starting point of human life plans and activities that want to make their dreams come true (Dictionary of Psychology, 2000, pp. 846–847).

Dreams, as personal-image visions, help to improve interpersonal relationships, increase morale, strengthen communities, achieve common goals. They do not maximize only personal or non-personal interest, but both interests together. What counts is a story about dreams for all who just want to listen. This story organizes awareness, creates a kind of force field that makes our dreams come true (Levesque, McNeil, 2001). Dreams also have activating values: “the dream is an imaginary satisfaction of the manifested needs that constitute their image. Dreams can overtake making efforts to make things happen and make their way easier, but they can also be a substitute, imaginary fulfilment of desires that are not realized, or wishes that have no chance of being realized” (Sujak, 1992, p. 103). Dreams play an important role in the child’s development. They are: the driving force of action; form of therapy; self-knowledge and purification; the category of targeted change; ways to develop intentions and a contemplative attitude, and

help in reading cultural symbols. They help to consolidate memories, integrate seemingly divergent ideas and plans. They give you a chance to get to know yourself. By penetrating your own daydreams, you can finally get to know your true desires, those that have been somewhere forgotten because of the unbelief in the chances of their implementation. Dreams as driving visions are an opportunity to optimize one's own destiny, to discover the path in itself, to transform the adventure into destiny. They bring an improvement in well-being. Dreaming about positive things, dream scenarios of future events, you can feel better.

The state of research on the dreams of people with intellectual disabilities

Studies on dreams cover diverse issues, such as their formation in the course of human life, show their meanings and diversity depending on the life situation.

The research shows that the dream crystallizes between the ages of 16 and 24. According to research, this is the period of spending the greatest amount of time on active dreaming (Singer, 1980). It is also worth mentioning the role of dreams in shaping identity during adolescence. Life dreams formulated at the threshold of adulthood are subject to further transformations after many years (Oleś, 2012). Middle age is the period in which dreams play an important role, because a person mentions experiences from the period of early adulthood, referring them to youthful dreams. He can judge his life in the past period depending on whether he succeeded in achieving these dreams (Levinson et al., 1978; Levinson, Levinson, 1996).

Dreams show differences depending on gender, age and social position (Singer, 1980). Women more often formulate branched dreams – concerning more than one sphere of life (Drebing et al., 1995; Lankin, 1983; Levinson et al., 1978; Levinson, Levinson, 1996; Roberts, Newton, 1987). Social changes, affecting, among other things, the role models of women, are also subject to intense transformations. For example, more and more women are interested in combining personal (family) life with a professional career.

Researchers dealing with the dreams of people with intellectual disabilities came to similar conclusions. The view in which the dream reflects the whole life situation of a person is of fundamental importance in this context: "someone who lives in a factory can dream about dressing up nicely on Sunday, going to church, and then dropping in for a donut. Or that parents would visit him just once... Who has a family home and donuts galore, does not miss it. The levels of desires are different. Some dream that they are not in pain or that someone caresses them. Others dream about winning at the Olympics... or going on a date." In my book, I present, among other things, the dreams of a young boy who states: "I would like to find a girl who would understand me." "Many disabled dream about home, love" (Kościelska, 1998, p. 120). Researchers also pay

attention to the relationship between dreams and the threat of stigmatization. Ewa Pisula pointed to the pursuit of people with mental disabilities to avoid stigmatization: "To avoid stigma and the inherent sense of inferiority, they use strategies to deny, unrealistically assess their own capabilities, minimize the scope of disability and believe that if they work hard and are sufficiently obedient they can become «normal». A person who sees himself like that cannot be happy. Often they are also condemned to social isolation, because on the one hand they experience rejection by skilful peers, and on the other they reject people who are similar to them (see Cunningham, Glenn, 2004). «Toxic identity», under which the conviction is based not only on its own dissimilarity, but even worse status, cannot be conducive to developing its potential and achieving satisfaction with life. Certainly, it can cause many negative consequences related to health and well-being" (Pisula, 2008, p. 22).

Works on the dreams of people with intellectual disabilities are not numerous. The ones that exist mainly concern people with a slight form of mental disability of different institutional affiliation.

Elżbieta Włodek (2013, pp. 5–12), based on studies of slightly intellectually disabled WTZ participants, indicated that "40% of adults with intellectual disabilities want to have non-material values, such as health, family, friendship or professional work." According to the cited author, this indicates that the respondents want to shape their private and social life. Among material goods, the most important are electronic equipment, own home, vehicle. The respondents wanted to perform specific professional activities and have basic vocational skills. Less numerous (15%) sought to achieve independence in life, and even less often (8%) were signalled the dreams of mastery of elementary school skills. Piotr Plichta (2015), also basing on the research of students with slight intellectual disabilities, pointed out the main topics of dream analysis, such as lack of dreams (or difficulty with wording), escape dreams (abandonment of place, family, way of life), dreams of professional life and career related and possessive (material). He also identified topics less frequently represented, such as dreams about the overtones of the general good (idealistic), on the willingness to meet someone famous, small dreams "here and now" and being a mix of these categories. Researchers point to the similarity or even identity of dreams of people with intellectual disabilities to the dreams of typically fit people (Kijak, 2011; Rusinek, 2014).

Methodological basis of own research

The subject of the research was the content of dreams, that is, their orientation to specific objects. We also learned their hierarchy by determining the order of declared dreams, their reality/realism, transparency, frequency, complexity, compliance with standards. The research also took into account the subjective aspects

of exclusion, which emanated from dreams. The symptoms of exclusion were sought in the narratives of the subjects. Exclusion indicators would be beliefs about own deficiencies, frustrations and barriers that make the dreams come true.

The aim of the research was to learn about the social exclusion of people with deeper intellectual disabilities from the forms of existence appropriate to adults. The basic research question was: whether and to what extent the contents of dreams reflect the social exclusion of people with deeper mental disabilities.

The study method was a case study carried out using in-depth interviews, carried out individually. Documentation and observation of the behaviour of selected people were also used. For the purpose of interviews, a list of instructions was created – issues covered in the interviews. These included issues such as the content of dreams and the significance attributed to them by the respondents. The researcher followed the examined person in their statements. He supplemented general dispositions on a regular basis, inquiring about issues arising in the interlocutors' statements. The interviews conducted in this way took the form of a partially guided conversation, which allowed to maintain the order of statements and at the same time provided an opportunity to flexibly adapt the researcher to emerging threads.

Data collection took place in 2015/2016. The respondents were informed about the recording of their statements on electronic media. After the interview, the content was transferred to paper. It was subjected to qualitative and quantitative analysis, which allowed to capture the multiplicity of threads and indicate the dominant tendencies among them.

The research covered a homogeneous group in terms of gender, level of intellectual disability, family situation, education and institutional affiliation. Analyses were made of biographies and statements of 10 adult women from the Environmental Self-Help Centre in J. in the south of Poland. These people are called residents or participants in the article. Each of these women was affected by moderate intellectual disabilities. All participants of the SDS expressed their willingness to participate in the research. They wanted to talk about their issues, which in itself is valuable information. It shows the desire for communication, being noticed and an important partner of conversation.

In the surveyed group there were women aged from 20 to 51, outnumbering people over 30, who lived in the area for a long time, in which there is ŚDS, and therefore rooted in the local community. Participants came from families with no pathological phenomena that had a caring potential. They lived in conditions of living needs. They were the only disabled people in the family. They were usually taken care of by mothers, fathers were absent – busy working outside the home.

The collected information is presented in the form of tables and descriptions. The initials of the names of the participants are placed in the top rows of the table – they are present for ordinal reasons. They are not their real names, and all convergence is completely unintentional and accidental.

R. – Romana, 45,
 B. – Bronisława, 34,
 A. – Alina, 30,
 N. – Niusia, 39,
 K. – Katarzyna, 54,
 M. – Maria, 24,
 T. – Teresa, 53,
 An. – Aniela, 40,
 L. – Leokadia, 43,
 W. – Wiesława, 27.

Literal statements of the women surveyed in their language are presented – in Orava dialect. The nationwide language is called by them the “speech of the Lord” and although they are familiar to it, they are more eager to speak in the highland speech, captivating with the simplicity of the simplified code, showing being rooted in the local community. I would like to thank Katarzyna Jasiura, a therapist at ŚDS, without whom it would be impossible to obtain such detailed, honest information.

The results of own research

Dream content

Table

The content of dreams of people with deeper mental disabilities

Lp	Dream content	K.	R.	A.	B.	N.	T.	An.	M.	L.	W.	Sum
1.	Book	X	–	X	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2
2.	Cell phone	X	–	X	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2
3.	Mother’s long life and health	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	10
4.	Journey	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	10
5.	Studying	X	–	X	–	–	–	–	X	X	–	4
6.	Self-reliance	–	–	X	X	–	–	–	X	X	X	5
7.	Own health	–	–	–	–	–	–	X	–	–	–	1
8.	Sex	–	X	X	X	X	–	–	X	X	–	6
9.	Stay at SDS	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	10
10.	Longer use of television and Internet	X	X	–	X	X	–	–	X	X	–	6
	Sum	7	5	8	6	5	3	4	7	7	4	

Dreams concerned issues related to everyday life. On the one hand, they expressed their willingness to maintain the status quo (health, long life of the mother, attendance at ŚDS), and on the other hand they indicated the need to enrich the experience with the element of travel. The narrative method also indicates self-limitation, an escape from thinking about the future, which appears to be unfriendly, lonely, uncertain.

Teresa's statement is typical: „Kciolałbyk, co by mamusia była zdrowo i nie umarła. Wyncy nic byk nie kciola! Niy! Nie łosprowiomy ło takich sprawach. Nie kcym myśleć ło takich sprawak. Nicego się nie bojym. Śmierci się bojym. Nie wiym jako tam be?.”

The relatively rare occurrence of dreams concerning independence and education can be a sign of both the socialization of the described people and the roles of dependents, as well as the satisfaction of their needs.

Maria's statement is significant: „Jo nie marzym! Mom syćko, co mi trzeba. Hmm ... chciałabym się nauczyć dobrze cytać i licyć. Sama byk se chłodziła do sklepu i kupowała, co mi się widzi. Nie znam się na piniondzach.”

Less often dreams about objects and activities appeared. The subjects surveyed wanted to have a mobile phone and a longer use of the media, which proves their competence in using the computer and is a peculiar sign of modern times. Younger people, 20–30 years old, wanted greater access to the computer.

Wiesława's statement points to the limitations introduced by her mother: „Co byk mogła na komputerze i se cosik pisym, lubiym śpiywać i se włoncom youtoba, miałak fejsa, ale mama mi kosała go usunąć. Bo za duzo zek siedziła na fejsie. Ale chcym.”

Alina wants to have a mobile phone – a useful item every day: „Kiebyk dostała komórke, to byk se mogła dzwunić do Marii, pogodałabyk se śniom.”

There were also dreams related to the sphere of culture. Older women, like 54-year-old Katarzyna, declared the need to have books: „Kupiyłabyk se tako fajno ksiazke z łobrozeckami. wycinom i se klyjym do takiego zesytu. Mom dužo ksiazek i se łobziyrom.”

Alina says the same way: „Chciałabyk dostać takom fajnom ksionzke z łobrozkami albo do malowania. Chciałabyk się nauczyć grać na skrzypcach (uśmiech), pan Bartek by mnie mógł nauczyć i byk grała jak un!?”

The presented information indicates the introduction of the surveyed women into the world of culture, the elements of which are books. They make use of them the way they can: browse, cut pictures, colour them. They associate with the book as with an old, well-known medium that presents a certain value for them. The way of using the book shows similarity with the child's age. The obtained information indicates that the book has significant value for the respondents, which makes the people described culturally integrated and expresses their needs for cultural participation.

Hierarchies of dreams

The sequence of revealing dreams is shown by Romana's statement (45). She had thought for a long time before she answered, and her first wish was, „I want my mother to be healthy and without any pain.”

The presented statements show the importance of ties with mothers of calendar-grown adults, but looked after by mothers - usually older, tired, sick, but everyday support. Dreams express the significance of the role of mothers and the tendency to stabilize, satisfy the need for security, dependence.

This is shown by subsequent statements.

Maria: „No, to stajam rano, mama mnie budzi.”

Bronisława: „Czasem mama mi pomaga skończyć (obrazek). Jak jest niedziela, to idę z mamą do kościoła, nie lubie, jak jest duso ludzi w kościele. Boje się, jak jest duso ludzi, i tsyam mamę za rękę.”

Leosia: „Pomagam mamie, sprzątam, bawie się z dziewczynkami. W niedziele ide z mamą do kościoła, casym idymy tys na wiecór w taki normalny dżyń.”

Wiesława: „No, to wstajam rano i pumogom mamie sprzątać. Jak posprzon-tom, to moge iść na komputer albo się bawie z siostrą. Casym cytom książki. Niy umim gotować, mama gotuje, jo i jacy pumogom.”

Dreams refer to typical matters, important at the same time, refer to the satisfaction of important life needs, such as the need for love, security, contact and having a meaningful activity that fills life. This last desire is most clearly manifested in the statements about attending the Community Home of Self-help.

Alina: „Jo tam kcym chodzić do kuńca zycio! Tam jes fajnie! Syćko mi się tam podobo. Panie som fajne, mom tam koleżanki. Musi być Barka! Siedziałybyk w dumu. Ani nie godojcie mi takik rzeczy, musi być Barka.”

Bronisława speaks in a similar way: „Myślę, że dobrze, że jest, bo mogę tam być ze swoimi koleżankami. Mogę się tam czegoś nauczyć, porozmawiać, powyglupiać i cas mi zleci. W domu się nudzę czasami. Nie ma co robić i cuje się samotna. Mama mnie nie rozumie i moge z panią porozmawiać, psytulić się. Dobrze, że jest Barka.”

Teresa also sees many benefits: „Życie bez ŚDS? No, tak jako piyrwi, kiek tu nie chłodziła. Siedziolabyk w dumu i się nudziła, bo już teraz nie gazdujemy i nima co robić. Hej. Jo się ciesym! Lubiym tu przychodzić. Cosik tu zawse robimy ciekawego, cosik się naucymy i mi się nie kotwi. Pogodomy, pośmiejmy się i cas mi warci zleci. Dobrze ze mogym tu chłodzić. Mom kolegów i kolezan-ki. Jo jes bardzo zadowolona.”

Wiesława declares finding a chance of joy and learning: „Hej, lubiym. Mom tam koleżanki, pośmiejmy się. Ucyam się tam.”

Aniela recalls: „(...) w ŚDS mom kolegów i koleżanki. Nie trza mi nic wiyn-cy. Kiesik zek mioła inne kolezanki ze skoły, ale teraz nie widze, to gdzie do

ludzi?! No jasne, że dobrze. Chłociaz cosik się dzieje. Pogodom z ludziami, pośmiejmy się. Wiym chłociaz jak dziyń, cosik robim, a nie siedzym soma. Bardzo dobrze ze moge tam chłodzić. Z tobom pogodom ło głupotach z Justysiom. Mógbyma tam chłodzić cudziynnje. A co?! W niedziele do kościoła a potym do ŚDS!."

Leokadia: „Bardzo lubie chodzić do Barki. Mam tam koleżanki, bawimy się, to jest taka moja robota. Kazdy musi cosik robić, jo chłodze do Barki. Fajnie tam jest. W domu mi się casym nudzi. Wakacje mi wystarco na odpoczynek."

With similar high frequency, though not in the first place, dreams of a stimulative-cognitive type were said about travel to the sea or to a distant family. Their presence testifies to the desire to enrich life and is a common element for many people who are full and disabled.

Maria declares: „Chciałabym jechać nad morze, ale nie umiym pływać, jesce byk się utopiyła (laughter)."

Bronisława: „Chciałabym pojechać do Franci. Siostra mi pokazywała zdjęcia i mówiła, że to miasto zakochanych. Znam parę słów po francusku. Fajnie byłoby tam pojechać z mamą. Do Paryża, to miasto zakochanych."

Teresa: „Hmm, kciołabyk płynąć statkim. Pojechałabyk nad morze, lubiym się kąpać."

Wiesława: „Chciałabym lecieć samolotem do Ameryki. Bo tam momy rodzinne i downo zek ik nie widziwała."

Romana: „Chciałabym pojechać tam, gdzie objawiła się Matka Boska. I tu, i tu, syndzie."

Dreams in the perspective of subjective aspects of exclusion

Threads appearing in dreams indicate fears, frustrations and a sense of incompetence. There is a conviction about their own nuisance.

Niusia's statement is typical: „Muszę pomyśleć... hm, pojechałabyk do siostry do Krakowa, ale ona by ze mną nie wytrzymała, ona musi chodzić do pracy i jeszcze się uczy. Kupiłabym sobie rower, ale nie mam karty rowerowej. Chciałabym mieć swój dom, ale sama nie mogłabym mieszkać, bo nie dam sobie radę sama. Musiałby ktoś ze mną mieszkać. Chciałabym wyjść za mąż, ale Jurek (kolega poznany w SDS) potrzebuje pomocy, a ja nie dałabym sobie z nim radę."

Frustration and a sense of deprivation are expressed by Angela, who was blinded after the accident:

„O czym ja moge marzyć. Chciołabyk widzieć! Chłociaz na jedno łoko. Syćko byłoby łatwiyjsze! Cosik byk zrobiła, pumógła bratu, a tak co! Nic nie robiym! Nic mi nie trzeba, nika nie pojade, bo po co. Nie widze i jesce wom robie kłopot, bo musicie mnie prowadzić."

Dreams of people with moderate intellectual disabilities show their sense of threat and awareness of many deficiencies. These people are afraid of the

future, the time after the deaths of mothers - their everyday companions. They run away from the thought of the future, which appears to be threatening and lonely. The dream of the respondents is to live as long as possible with their parents, especially with their mothers. They do not rebel against parental plans. Rather, they are resigned, uncertain.

Romana declares her unwillingness to think about the future, which is already designed for not as an inefficient but useful person: „Nie chce o tym myśleć! Chyba bede mieszkać z bratem w J. albo w Sz. u drugiego brata, bede bawić mu dzieci, cosik uwarzom , posprzontom tak myślom, chce być z mamom. Sama nie dom sobie rade, chyba ze mi kto pomoze?! Skoda ze już taty nie ma! Dobrze, że jest jeszcze Barka i moze tu chodźć. Bardzo panią lubie i moze z panią pogodać o cym chce.”

Maria also tries not to think about the future: „Przyszłość (po śmierci rodziców): No, godałak z mamą ło tym, s kiyom bem bywać: albo z Marzynom, albo z Ankom, nie wiyom z kiyom, nie myślom ło tym.”

Alina similarly avoids thinking about the future, although in the tone of her speech you can hear a certain optimism: „Przyszłość, gdy rodziców zabraknie? Wiyom, ze bede bywać z Elom (siostrą). Mom mieć swój pokój i będzie dobrze. Nie myślom teraz ło tym.”

Bronisława's statement expresses the uncertainty of the future, dissatisfaction and rebellion against what is happening to her - conflicts in the family home: „Przyszłość, życie po śmierci mamy, nie wiem, co będzie dalej ze mną jak mamy nie będzie. Mam mieszkać z siostrą, ale nie lubie Edka – to mąż siostry. On mnie nie rozumie i tylko krzyczy na mnie. Dzieci (siostry) ciągle coś chcą i ksyca, a ja muse mieć spokój. Mąż (siostry) tes casem ksyca, bo słyse, jak Edek ksyca na Magde. Mam go dosyć. Magda (siostra) jest fajna i mnie rozumie, ale Edek nic nie rozumie. Pewnie ucieknę albo zostanę w Barce i nie będę wracać do domu. Boje się śmierci, nie wiem, co będzie dalej ze mną, jak mamy nie będzie.”

Aniela also avoids thinking about the future and agrees with his fate: „No, jak zostane z bratym i bedymy musieli se poradzić jakosik łoła. Nie chce nawet o tym myśleć!”

The people described are focused on the present and turned to the past. This type of man can be called retrospective (Zimbardo, Boyd, 2009). Such people live in grief for what has passed.

This thread appears in Katarzyna, who so willingly talks about her dead father: „Mój tata był kochany! Jo zek całowała ino swojego tate. Tata mnie kochał. Tak my się całowali jak kasik seł albo jechoł. Nie całowałak się z nikim innym. Skoda ze taty ni ma! Umar, a razym było nom dobrze. Kie umar, to jo go rano budziyłak «tato stawoj», a un był jesse ciepły, ale się nie ruszył. Poleciałak po brata, ale tata juz nie zył! Przyjechał doktor, ale stwierdził zgon. Jo zek się juz taty nie tykła, bok się boła. Brat społ sy mnom w domu. Teraz spiyom sama i sie nie bojym, mom zdjyncie taty i kie mi smutno, to go całujmy.”

A turn to the past may be a defensive tendency. Turning to past experiences is a search for a sense of security that the future does not guarantee. In this approach, it is an anxious escape from the unknown.

The information presented indicates that women with moderate intellectual disability can be considered as retrospective with typical low self-acceptance, a belief that they are subject to small changes, wishful thinking, low unspecific motivation to act for the self-esteem, a small nonspecific impact on the states own person and experiencing negative emotions at the moment and anticipating experiencing negative emotions in the future (ibid.).

Their statements reflect the essence of the situation of adults with intellectual disabilities, who are afraid of changing housing conditions for the worse, exchanging their living with their beloved mother for living with their sister and her partner. They are afraid of who will help them when their mum is gone. They are usually convinced of their limited capacity, the need to use help. They are reconciled with family plans. The future brings them a vision of limiting decision-making and social participation. So they have no reason to be happy.

Latent dreams

Somewhat less frequently, in a way secretive, sleepy or with difficulty and embarrassment, the dreams about sex appeared in the last place. This proves the existence of erotic needs, but also their suppression, most probably as a result of parental interactions. Speaking of sex, the described people declare embarrassment, which is manifested by the blush on Maria's face. The described women, however, feel the need to talk about sex and are satisfied with the conversations that the SDS psychologist is conducting with them.

Aniela admits dreams and withdrawal from the thought of sex due to blindness. The sphere of eroticism remained in her memories: „Kiedyś się rozmawiało o wszystkim. Teraz się wszystko skończyło. Eee dobra, dobra, nie godojmy już to tym. W szkole był taki Marek, kolegowaliśmy się, a co, nie można?! Kolegowali my się jacy. Nic wiynicy.” Asked if she would like to have a family, she answers in the affirmative: „No, kto by nie chciał. Pewnie kiebyk była zdrowa, to byk się łożyniła, miała dzieci, ale teraz ni ma szans. Nie widze. Mowy ni ma to tym.”

Wiesława declares her lack of interest in sex matters. Asked if she had ever been in love, she states: „Nie, jo kochom jacy swojo rodzine i nikogo wiynicy!.” Asked if she would like to have her family, husband, children, she points out: „Nie, jo bierym lyki. Mom duzo lekarstw.”

Sometimes statements are inconsistent. Once examined, people point to the lack of interest in sex, and then they cautiously mention something. An example is Bronisława's statement, which declares embarrassment during a conversation about sex matters and lack of interest: „Casem się wstydze, to są moje sprawy in-

tymne, nie chce, żeby ktoś o nich słuchał. Jak kogoś kocham, to moja sprawa. Seks mnie nie interesuje. To nie dla mnie. Ja lubię się tylko psytulać.” However, love and sex remain in Bronisława’s memories: „Teraz nie mam, ale miałam takiego z Z. Uśmiechał się do mnie i mrugał do mnie. Fajny był. Napisałam wiersz o nim do mojego pamiętnika. Pan Bartek też mi się podobał, ale teraz już go nie lubię, bo chce, żebym dużo ćwiczyła, a ja nie mam siły i boją mnie mięśnia.”

In Romany, sex appears at the end of the list of dreams and memories. The woman describes her attitude to sexual dreams as critical: „Chciałabym, ale to głupie (pojawily się rumieńce na jej twarzy) widzieć się z taki kolegom, co kiedysik przyjeżdżał do J., a on był z Częstochowy i huštaliśmy się razem w parku i było fajnie.”

Alina (homosexual) dreams of meeting her favorite friend: „Chciałabym pojechać do Z., do Moniki. Dostałabym tam na noc, a pote una by przyjechała do mnie. Byłoby fajnie!”

Bronisława declares and dreams, and the desire to have a partner. Her statement about dreams shows negative home experiences: „Marzę o kapłanach, śnią mi się w nocy. Casem bym chciała wyjść za mąż, ale dzieci nie chce. Dzieci ciągle coś chcą i ksyca, a ja muszę mieć spokój. Mąż też casem ksycy, bo słyszę, jak Edek ksycy na Magde. Mam go dosyć. No (blush), casym godomy z dziwywczynami o chłopokach, który sie mi widzi albo im, o seksie to łosprawimy z paniom psycholog, una nom godo jako to jest z dziwywcyntami a jako z chłopcami. Cym się różniemy i jak to jest, no z tymi sprawami. Lubiym paniom psycholog, casym się wstydze, wole, jak jezek sama. Z paniom tys moze o tym godać, nawet wole, lubiym paniom (smile). Pani psycholog tak sy mnom nie łosprawio. Czasym nie wiym ło co i chłodziło?! No (blush) roz chłopok Anki mi klon, jak przysłał do nik do pokoju, ale ino roz, bo był pijany. Nie godałak mamie, bo by się wkurzyła, a po co?!”

Conclusions

The dreams of people with moderate intellectual disability refer to something that is beyond them – to the issue of self-esteem, independence, social response to disability and the characteristics of their life situation.

They show ordinary but unrealizable issues in their case, such as sex matters. When these people remain under the supervision of families, especially mothers, there are no chances for sexual fulfilment. People with disabilities are to remain in the family as unpaid home help. This stay and leave in the family indicates the treatment of disability as a family matter. It shows the traditional division of roles with the indication of women as sitters.

Dreams were relatively simple, everyday, rooted in the present. They gripped the fear of the future. They rarely expressed the pursuit of standards of normal-

ity, such as sex, deciding about themselves, and functional independence. They were rooted in the present with the will to extend it over time – being in maternal care. They referred to ordinary matters, but difficult to implement due to the existence of barriers both inherent in and perceived by persons as well as those found outside. They concerned satisfying elementary life needs: safety, love and physical closeness, and having a meaningful occupation. They were in accordance with ethical norms, typical for most people – such as the desire to go to the seaside.

They were a kind of projection of the life situation of the group we are interested in with the typical exclusion from access to the attributes of adulthood, such as sexuality and independence. They showed the importance of sanctuaries in which existence subsists, and the special role of mothers-nurses.

Women's dreams are rooted in the realities of life, but with a small chance for implementation, maybe outside of ŚDS. They are not diverse – they mainly concern relationships with other people. The described people are looking for closeness in the literal sense of the word. They want to cuddle up to someone, to be listened to, to be important for a while though. They also want to satisfy their psychological needs. Enrich their lives with sensible activities and activities that are typical of non-disabled people (trips to the sea, to the family, use of the media).

Some dreams, although they concern ordinary matters, have no chance of implementation. This applies especially to sexuality.

Taken together as a whole, they resemble the dreams of children, dependent creatures, deeply connected with mothers. Dreams show the subjective aspects of exclusion with its unbelief in its own abilities, with the conviction of its own inefficiency and inconvenience of the described people for the environment. All these threads appeared in the statements of the surveyed women.

Bibliography

- Adamczykowa, Z. (2001). *Literatura dla dzieci. Funkcje, kategorie, gatunki*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Adler, A. (1986). *Sens życia*. Warszawa: PWN.
- Bagby, R.M., Taylor, G.J., Parker, J.D.A. (1992). *Reliability and validity of the 20-item revised Toronto Alexithymia Scale. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Psychosomatic Society*. New York.
- Banach, C. (1979). *Modyfikacje i rekonstrukcje planów życiowych*. Warszawa: WSiP.
- Botkin, J. (1999). *Smart business: How knowledge communities can revolutionize your company*. New York: Free Press.
- Bruner, J. (1990). Życie jako narracja. *Kwartalnik Pedagogiczny*, 4(138), 3–17.
- Brzezińska, A., Appelt, K., Wojciechowska, J. (Eds.). (2002). *Szanse i zagrożenia rozwoju w okresie dorobności*. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Fundacji Humaniora.

- Cunningham, C., Glenn, S. (2004). Self-awareness in Young Adults with Down Syndrome: I. Awareness of Down syndrome and disability. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 51, 335–361.
- Czerwińska-Jasiewicz, M. (1997). *Decyzje młodzieży dotyczące własnej przyszłości*. Wrocław: Wydawnictwo UWr.
- Czerwińska-Jasiewicz, M. (1999a). Cele i plany życiowe młodzieży w kontekście rozwoju orientacji przyszłościowej. In: B. Dymara (Ed.), *Dziecko w świecie marzeń*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls.
- Czerwińska-Jasiewicz, M. (1999b). Nadzieje i obawy młodzieży dotyczące przyszłości w okresie przemian społecznych w Polsce a jej cele życiowe. In: B. Dymara (Ed.), *Dziecko w świecie marzeń*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls.
- Drebing, C.E., Gooden, W.E., Drebing, S.M., van de Kemp, H., Malony, H.N. (1995). The dream in midlife women. Its impact on mental health. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development*, 40, 73–87.
- Dymara, B. (1999). Droga do marzeń, czyli o potrzebie rozwijania wyobraźni. In: B. Dymara (Ed.), *Świat marzeń dziecka*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls.
- Encyklopedia pedagogiczna XXI wieku* (2004). T. Pilch (Ed.). Tom III (M-O). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Encyklopedia popularna PWN* (1995). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Freud, S. (1997). *Poza zasadą przyjemności*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Janion, M. (1991). *Projekt krytyki fantazmatycznej. Szkice o egzystencjach ludzi i duchów*. Warszawa: PEN.
- Kałużna-Wielobób, A. (2013). Marzenia współczesnych kobiet w różnych okresach rozwojowych. *Teraźniejszość – Człowiek – Edukacja*, 1(61), 109–136.
- Kijak, R. (2011). Oblicza seksualności osób niepełnosprawnych. *Niepełnosprawność i Rehabilitacja*, 4.
- Knowles, M. (1980). *The Modern Practice of Adult Education*. Chicago: Association Press.
- Kościńska, M. (1998). *Oblicza upośledzenia*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Lankin, L. (1983). A Description of Adult Development in Women Following a Career to Tradition Life Pattern. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 44.4, 1222.
- Levesque, P., McNeil, A. (2001). The Art of Dreaming Big, the Science of Making It Happen. In: P. Levesque, A. McNeil, G. Bohlander, S.A. Snell, A. Sherman. *Managing human resources* (12th ed.). Cincinnati: OH: South-Western College Publishing.
- Levinson, D.J., Darrow, C., Klein, E., Levinson, M., Mckee, B. (1978). *The Seasons of a Man's Life*. New York: Knopf.
- Levinson, D.J., Levinson, J. (1996). *The seasons of woman's life*. New York: Knopf.
- Łukaszewski, W. (1984). *Szanse rozwoju osobowości*. Warszawa: Książka i Wiedza.
- Matuszewski, T. (2002). *Psychologia poznania*. Gdańsk: GWP.
- Mądrzycki, T. (2002). *Osobowość jako system tworzący i realizujący plany*. Gdańsk: Wydawnictwo UG.
- McAdams, D.P. (2001). Generativity in midlife. In: M.E. Lachman (Ed.), *Handbook of midlife development*. New York: Springer Verlag.
- Obuchowski, K. (1993). *Człowiek intencjonalny*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Oleś, P. (2012). *Psychologia człowieka dorosłego*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Parker, J.D., Bagby, R.M., Taylor, G.J., Endler, N.S., Schmitz, P. (1993). Factorial validity of the 20-item Toronto Alexithymia Scale. *Europ. J. Pers.*, 7, 221–232.

- Pisula, E. (2008). *Dorosłość osób z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną. Szanse i zagrożenia*. Warszawa: PSOUU.
- Plichta, P. (2015). O czym marzą uczniowie z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną? *Interdyscyplinarne Konteksty Pedagogiki Specjalnej*, 8, 32–42.
- Roberts, P., Newton, P.M. (1987). Levinsonian studies of women's adult development. *Psychology and Aging*, 2, 154–163.
- Rusinek, K. (2014). Aspiracje życiowe młodzieży z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną w stopniu lekkim. *Annales Universitatis Mariae Curie-Skłodowska*, XXVII(2), 101–122.
- Singer, J.L. (1980). *Marzenia dzienne*. Warszawa: PWN.
- Singer, J.L. (1976). *Daydreaming and fantasy*. New York: George Allen & Unwin, Ltd. *Słownik języka polskiego*. (2006). L. Drabik (Ed.). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Słownik psychologii*. (2000). I. Kurcz, K. Skarżyńska (Eds). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Sujak, E. (1992). *Rozważania o ludzkim rozwoju*. Kraków: Znak.
- Taylor, S. (1984). Przystosowanie do zagrażających wydarzeń. *Nowiny Psychologiczne*, 6–7, 15–38.
- Todd, S., Shearn, J. (2002). *The Social Construction of Intellectual Disability*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Włodek, E. (2013). Terapeutyczne znaczenie aktywizacji osób niepełnosprawnych. In: B. Grochmal-Bach (Ed.), *Pedagogiczna refleksja nad życiem i śmiercią*. Kraków: Wydawnictwo WAM.
- Zaleski, Z. (1998). *Od zawiści do zemsty. Społeczna psychologia kłopotliwych emocji*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Akademickie Żak.
- Zimbardo, P.G. (2000). *Psychologia i życie*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Zimbardo, P.G., Boyd, J. (2009). *Paradoks czasu*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.

REALITY IN BLIND PEOPLE'S DRAWINGS. RESEARCH PROCEDURES AND TOOLS

The study presented in this article looks at how the phenomena of reality are constructed in totally blind people's drawings. Analysis focuses on drawing skills and their development seen based on drawings made by people who have been blind since birth. Raised-line drawings made on a special drawing film for blind people were analyzed. The analysis covered:

1. Blind people's cognitive abilities – the way they see phenomena.
2. Abilities and ways of presenting phenomena in drawings.
3. Determining stages in the development of drawing skills in blind children as compared to the development of drawing skills in sighted children.

The study was motivated by the desire to answer the following questions: What similarities and differences are there in the process of drawing by people with disabilities and in their drawings? What esthetic features (content, form, uniqueness of presentation, manner of displaying emotions) do blind children's drawings have? How are the phenomena of reality depicted in blind people's drawings? What difficulties do blind people encounter in making a drawing on a two-dimensional surface? Does blind children's artistic development take place in a similar way as sighted children's artistic development? Are blind children at a similar level of artistic development as their sighted peers?

I proposed a model of artistic creation that takes into consideration the content and form of drawings and the artist's creativity and emotionalism which was used as a tool in the analysis. All aspects of the analysis refer to the stages of drawing development in sighted children proposed by: Stefan Szuman, Viktor Lowenfeld, W. Lambert Brittain, and Georges-Henri Luquet.

Keywords: blind people, drawings, stages of artistic development, cognitive development, model of artistic creation

Introduction

To speak in visual form has been a living human need since prehistoric times. It is known that the basis of every field of artistic creation is drawing. Art theoreticians agree that drawing is at the origin of fine arts and has been used to clarify the designer's intention from the very beginning

(Żuchowski, Dudzik, 2001). It is also a source of knowledge about the author. The creative act is a creation in which at least the following components participate: the subjective experience of creators acquired according to their cognitive abilities (mental, intellectual and sensory); intersubjective knowledge resulting from participation in culture; emotions that are closely related to the value system in which the creator shaped his attitudes towards himself and the world; the way and possibilities of performing the work, which also result from the technique of artistic activities.¹ In children, all these components are still in the stage of development, therefore the drawing is a picture of this development illustrated.

The definitions of visual arts usually emphasize the leading role of the visual factor. This position raises the question about the aesthetic condition of people who are blind (Szubielska, Niestorowicz, 2013). Studies on the visual development of blind people (e.g. D'Angiulla, Maggi, 2003; Kennedy, 1993; Kennedy, Juricevic, 2003; 2006) prove that these people go through similar – as seen – stages of artistic development. These stages appear in people with sight dysfunction with a certain delay. The problem researchers point out that almost unobtainable for the blind is the so-called visual realism (see Szubielska, Niestorowicz, 2013). It seems, however, that a blind pupil can discover, with a little help from a teacher, some rules related to the two-dimensional representation of objects on the plane that are consistent with the conventions of visual perception, e.g. interposition.² It is also available as a drawing technique, because blind people can create convex drawings on a micro formed film. They press shapes with a stylus and touch control their creative idea.

Do the blind need a drawing?

Both the drawing process and the product in the form of a drawing support the cognitive development of the blind. As Szuman (1990) notes, drawing is a way of internal deed, which is the contemplation of the world. By drawing we expand our knowledge about the world analysing the imaged object and imagine it more accurately. “The drawing works on the image, not only the image on the drawing” (ibid., p. 110). By creating a drawing, we process a cognitive model of the phenomenon that has reference to the cognitive abilities of the illustrator. This model, I think, is a synthesis of his knowledge. By expanding the model-scheme, the blind person analyses the reality. But drawing activity also

¹ I find a similar interpretation of the creative process in the most important works in our literature: Popek, 2001, pp. 101–120; Hohensee-Ciszewska, 1976, pp. 60–70; Morawski, 1960, pp. 17–36; Wallis, 1968, pp. 63–75; Nęcka, 1995; Pietrasiański, 1969, pp. 10–15.

² Interposition means “mutual obscuring of non-transparent objects located deeper into the visual scene. The obstructed object is perceived as being further from the observer than the object that obscures it” (see Francuz, 2013).

plays the role of synthesis – it forms a complete character from touch-sensitive parts of the phenomenon.

Drawing plays an important role in information processing. The blind must perform a whole series of operations, such as: building a flat construct that imagines a three-dimensional object, placing it on a two-dimensional plane of the canvas and rescaling the image and adjusting the scale to the dimensions of the image plane. "Teaching drawing and an independent drawing of a student influences the understanding of relationships in space, that is, understanding the spatial character of the world" (Więckowska, 2003, p. 4). Therefore, these activities prepare for conscious participation in spatial orientation activities (Chojecka, Magner, Szwedowska, Więckowska, 2008, p. 6).

Targeted drawing tasks as well as free drawing expressive for improving manual skills, motor coordination and general dexterity. The stimulation of motor and manual development is extremely important, because one of the developmental disorders in blind children is lowered level of motor development. Drawing activities can also unload accumulated emotions, give you the opportunity to free yourself from the created tensions. The drawing statement creates the possibility of expressing oneself and the drawing process stimulates creativity and expression of emotions at the same time.

Research proceedings

The research presented in the article concerns the construction of reality phenomena in drawings of completely blind people. The subject of the analysis is drawing efficiency and its development, shown on the basis of drawings made by two people blind since birth. This research falls within the definition of basic research, in the area of humanities, special pedagogy in the field of typhoidagogy, developmental psychology, semiotics and art.

The drawings on the film for the blind have been analysed. The tool of analysis was the model of plastic art that I proposed, which took into account the content and form of the drawing as well as the creativity and emotionality of the creator (Niestorowicz, 2007). All aspects of the analysis refer to the stages of child's drawing development in the standard, proposed by Szuman, Lowenfeld and Brittain as well as in Luquet's work (Szuman, 1990; Lowenfeld, Brittain, 1977; Luquet, 2001/1927).

My analysis concerns:

1. Cognitive abilities of the blind - the way of seeing phenomena by these people.
2. Possibilities and methods of capturing phenomena in drawings.
3. Determination of the stages of development of the drawing skills of blind children against the background of the development of this efficiency in sighted children.

The motive for the research was to answer the following questions:

What are the similarities and differences between the drawing and drawing process in blind people?

What are the aesthetic features (content, form, uniqueness of the intake, the way of expressing emotions) of the drawings of blind children?

What is the picture of reality phenomena in blind drawings?

What are the problems faced by the blind in constructing a drawing on a two-dimensional plane?

Is the visual development of blind children similar to that of sighted children?

Are blind children at a similar stage of drawing development as their seeing peers?

The research procedure regarding drawing skills and its development was subordinated to my original procedure, which includes the following stages:

1. Drawing training on film, continuous line, dashed line, geometric figures.
2. Reaching knowledge about the phenomenon through a conversation about the child's experiences: sensory (gained in the tactile perception, and with the participation of other senses) and knowledge about the phenomenon contained in the mind (cognitive model).

To obtain this knowledge, I used the interview method, implementing the following scenario:

- 2.1. What / Who is this?
- 2.2. What do they look like?
- 2.3. What do they do? (animated) / What is it for? (inanimate).
- 2.4. Where does he live (revived) / Where is it? (inanimate).
3. Blind children's performance of 9 drawings in accordance with the principle of gradation of difficulties: from drawings of the easiest phenomena, through increasingly difficult drawings of objects, to the drawing of a genre scenario (situation).
4. Evaluation of the work by the author after the drawing.
 - 4.1. Evaluation of aesthetic values of the drawing: Do you like your drawing (is it nice or ugly)?
 - 4.2. Creativity: Do you think your drawings are original, unique performances?
 - 4.3. Do you like drawing?
5. Analysis of drawings: I made it using a model constructed on the basis of knowledge about art, knowledge of the child's artistic development³ stages

³ Based on the stages of drawing development according to the classifications proposed by Szuman, Lowenfeld and Luquet (see Szuman, 1990; Lowenfeld, Brittain, 1977; Luquet, 2001/1927).

and based on a questionnaire assessing the content and form of the drawing, creativity and emotionality of the illustrator.⁴

Themes of drawings: pole/stick, ball, plate, tree, table, house, dog, mum/person/I (choice), I go for a walk / children play ball / play in the yard (choice).

The reality being examined are objects and phenomena from the immediate environment of children, which are most often drawn by sighted persons and are the subject of analysis of artistic psychologists involved in the visual development of sighted children.

The selection of drawings takes into account the complexity of shapes: from the simplest, represented by lines, circles, (pole/stick, ball, plate), to more complex shapes, including objects in the form of regular three-dimensional geometric solids, which tactile cognition involves large motility (e.g. house), through an irregular body constituting an element of nature (e.g. a tree), this principle was inscribed by living beings: a dog, a man. The experiment ended with the drawing of a genre scenario: the respondents were able to choose the theme of their favourite way of spending free time, e.g. I go for a walk / children play football / games in the yard.

The test group

The article presents only human drawings made by two blind girls and the interpretation of these drawings in the perspective opened by the presented description model. The presented examples are an exemplification of wider, carried out by me studies, in which the studied group consisted of 35 people completely blind from birth, in intellectual norm, at different ages. The research was carried out at prof. Zofia Sękowska Special School and Educational Centre for Children and Young People with Disabilities in Lublin, at the Special School and Education Centre for Blind and Visually Impaired Children in Krakow, as well as at the Louisa Braille Special School and Education Centre for Children and Youth Visually Impaired and Blind in Bydgoszcz. Blind students of the Catholic University of Lublin also participated in the study.

The summary will also take into account general conclusions from the analysis and interpretation of drawings obtained in the whole research project.

Difficulties encountered by blind children during drawing activity

Presenting a three-dimensional object on a two-dimensional sheet, on which an object existing in space should be presented as a flat construct and a refer-

⁴ I used the model contained in the book Niestorowicz (2007).

ence to its actual shapes should be found, is certainly a challenge for the blind. These people, who function in 3D reality on a daily basis, must process known objects and phenomena, creating a line composition on the plane.

At the beginning, attempts to depict shapes will certainly be distorted. Geometric shapes on the foil, especially the shape of the circle, are very difficult. You have to dose the pressure force accordingly so that it is not too small, because you will not create a tactile line. If the pressure is too high, cuts may form on the film. It is necessary to hit the point from which it started to draw, and it is still difficult to lead your hand to create a perfect circle. It is much easier to manipulate an ordinary pencil on a piece of paper. Sighted children also have such difficulties, however, the drawing tool, which is a pencil, a coloured pencil or even a pen, requires less effort and less pressure, making it easier to draw the shape of a circle. You cannot make corrections on the foil, if you made a mistake, you cannot use the elastic band. Every mistake is visible, you can only start drawing from scratch. Sighted children draw constantly, drawing is an occasional activity for blind children. I noticed that as the exercises are performed during even one class, more and more shapely drawings are made.

Analysis of drawings

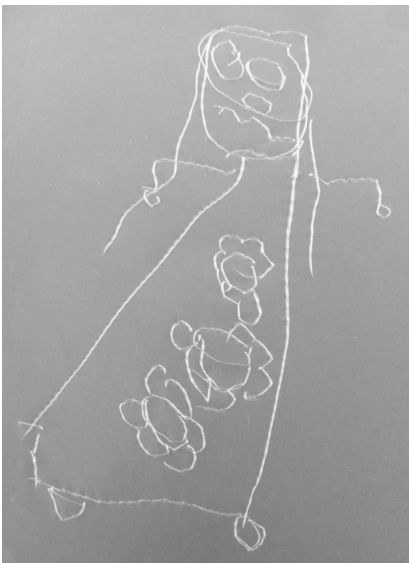


Figure 1. Karolina's drawing

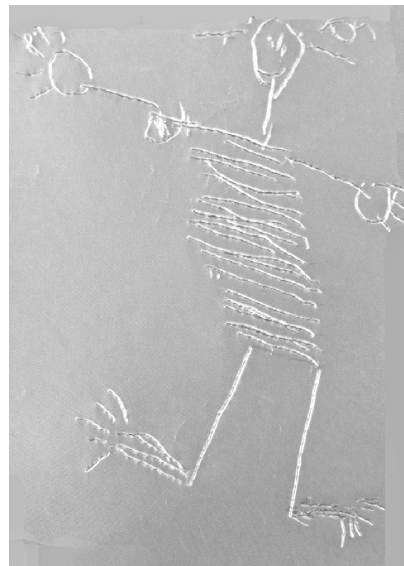


Figure 2. Oliwia's drawing

Subjects: Oliwia, 16 and Karolina, 17 years old. Both girls go to technical school. They are completely blind since birth. They like to draw on the foil. The theme of the drawing is a human being.

Comments of the subjects during drawing

The respondents claim that although they draw very rarely, they have already had the opportunity to draw a human. But this task is difficult for them, they want to receive instructions. Olivia asks the question: Do you draw all the details, e.g. your fingers? Karolina is satisfied with the eyes of her character, she claims that "her man has large eyes and it is a pity that there are no crayons, because then she would draw those eyes in blue". Both respondents believe that the character they draw is a woman. Olivia draws her hair. Karolina thinks that a woman should be dressed in a dress, she draws flowers on her dress, which "always makes her drawing difficult, but she is happy with these dresses". She thinks that her character "has ears, but is covered by hair". She is satisfied with her drawing, she claims that "her character looks like a girl at a wedding, she is elegant, in a dress".

Both girls began uncertainly, during drawing they demanded confirmation that their drawings are good, they also asked if you can recognize the gender of the character.

I. Content.

The content of the drawings has been imposed.

The way of capturing reality.

Both drawings are a simplified icon of reality, containing a prototype idea about the characteristics of a woman (in the form of a simplified general scheme), although there will be more accidents – specific features of a given character: flowers on a dress, braids (see Szuman, 1990).

II. Form.

1. Recognition of the phenomenon.

1.1. The ability to combine elements of the object into a whole (synthesis of the whole).

Synthesis of the whole: individual elements of the characters are connected, although there are problems with closing individual geometrical figures or hit the point, which is caused by the difficulty in finding the element in the space of the card. It is particularly difficult to find the point from which one began to draw. The drawings show the whole, full figure of the object being pictured.

1.2. Relations of parts of the phenomenon in relation to the whole (proportions, arrangement of parts in their entirety):

a) Number of parts drawn.

The figure drawn by Karolina (Figure 1) does not have a neck, the head is placed directly on the dress, the hands do not have fingers, the shoes are presented in an interesting way – in the form of geometric rings. The hands are also shown with the help of wheels. Olivia dresses only her torso in her drawing (Figure 2). We do not know what it is:

a dress or a sweater. She drew the correct number of fingers in three limbs, on one foot there are too many, the figure has no ears, all parts of the body are simplified.

b) Proportions of individual elements within the phenomenon.

Some parts of the body are exaggerated (e.g., feet and hands in Oliwia's drawing) in relation to the small head. In Karolina's drawing we see too small hands, big head, exaggerated eyes and tiny feet.

2. Contour.

It should be emphasized that the contour drawn on the film requires a completely different pressure than a pencil or pencil, it is also difficult to differentiate it. Thus, the way of drawing, the type of canvas and the tool, which is harder to manipulate, forces to a certain extent the visual form of the drawing. It also affects the contour. However, each of the drawings has its own unique character and contains features characteristic of the author, which can also be seen in sighted children.

The contour has geometric features, and at the same time has an individual style of each of the authors. The outline in Oliwia's drawing is determined, drawn with some strokes of the stylus. The author does not try to differentiate him. The lines have similar thickness and similar force of the drawing tool. Contour lines usually close individual elements of the form and are arranged according to the schematic period. The outline in Karolina's drawing is more sophisticated, the lines are characterized by strokes of different strength.

3. Shape.

In both cases there is a simplified geometric shape, which is characterized by a reduced number of elements and a change in their proportions. Thus, the following shapes can be observed in the drawings:

a) linear:

- point, point-based, multi-point – eyes of the figure in Oliwia's drawing;
- elongated, built on the line – hands on Karolina's drawing, limbs on Oliwia's drawing, as well as lips and hair with a linear character in both drawings examined;

b) geometric:

- oval, built on a circle – in Oliwia's drawing, the head and palms are oval, and the feet are built on the basis of a distorted ellipse; in Karolina's drawing, a round head, hands, eyes, nose and a floral pattern on a dress; it is difficult to clearly determine the trunk shape in Oliwia's drawing – on the right side it is based on a distorted ellipse, and on the left based on a rectangle;
- polygonal, built on a polygon – dress based on a triangle in a drawing by Karolina.

4. Space.

4.1. Space components:

a) Size indicators.

Both drawings are quite large, and even too big in relation to the image plane, therefore they do not include so-called canonical size.⁵ This probably happens because the human figure in the tactile perception is a large, complex object. Both characters are slim and too tall (relative to the plane of the picture).

4.2. Space organization.

Both drawings represent the figure frontally, from a single point of view. Characters are two-dimensional, do not include depth and perspective indicators, and do not have plans and do not include the baseline.

5. Composition – the place of the image in space.

5.1. Spatiality – the place of individual components of the drawing in space.

The figure drawn by Karolina is placed symmetrically on the plane of the canvas and is characterized by a central composition located in the middle, while Oliwia's figure shows a symmetrically drawn figure, however asymmetrically arranged on the canvas (left), the figure is not a central composition. In Oliwia's drawing there are elements of rhythm in the form of repetitive strips on the figure's clothing.

5.2. The location of the individual elements of the phenomenon.

The individual parts of the body of the figures being depicted are simplified, but arranged correctly, although some elements are omitted, as shown in the figure of the schematic period. In Oliwia's drawing there are problems with the placement of eyes – one eye is outside the oval of the head, parts of the hair also do not go to the destination, that is to the drawing of the head.

6. Movement in the drawing.

Both drawings show the figure in stillness. Oliwia claims that the character she has drawn has her hair shattered. To show this movement, the author shows hairlines horizontally, not vertically.

III. Creativity and emotionality of the product.

1. Evaluation of aesthetic values of the drawing (evaluates the subject).

Both studied authors are satisfied with the drawings of a human figure. They think that the drawings came out the way they wanted, but – they say – some details could have been drawn better.

2. Creativity.

They do not consider their drawings to be original, unique.

⁵ The canonical size is the most preferred size of the object in the representation on the image plane (see Francuz, 2013).

Interpretation/evaluation

Both drawings certainly show elements characteristic of the schematic period (ideoplastics) – according to Szuman, this period occurs in 3.–12. the year of life in sighted children (see Popek, 2010, p. 193; Szuman, 1990). Thus, one can notice a considerable delay in the drawings of blind children, but despite this delay, plastic development is similar to that of sighted children.

The figure, as in the drawings of sighted children, is drawn taking into account all the most important parts: the head, trunk (sometimes replaced with clothing), legs, hands, hair, and even the neck. Drawings also contain parts of the face – eyes, mouth and nose. According to the simplified scheme period, they represent geometric shapes. The head is a circle, the body in one figure is an ellipse, in the other it has a triangular shape, the limbs are made up of straight lines, eyes with points or circles. Certainly, in the blind people one can observe a greater distortion of the illustrated shapes. Characters are two-dimensional, and both schematic symmetrical, in a standing position, frontal, devoid of movement. Oliwia presents a figure with dishevelled hair. To show movement, she applies the repositioning of the hairline from vertical to horizontal; it is also a treatment used by sighted children who are in the period of a schematic drawing.

Characteristic for the work of blind children is the fact that sometimes there is no hit in the point, i.e. the place in which the child intentionally tried to hit. There are problems with the closure of the figures, i.e. a hit to the place from which the drawing began, e.g. wheels. Such features are characterized by the drawing of Oliwia. Both of the drawings examined present a prototypical drawing pattern similar to the drawings of the schematic period in sighted children.

I think that the reason for such a long delay in drawing development is also the fact that blind children draw occasionally, so they cannot develop their skills both in manual and intellectual – the ability to analyse and synthesize characters. Both subjects, although they encountered the drawing at school, draw very rarely and do not have access to the foil. Observing their drawing process, you can see that they gradually gain more and more self-confidence and manual efficiency. They say they like to draw very much and this willingness was visible throughout the duration of the research.

Summary

The people subjected to the examination were a technical school student, completely blind since birth: 16-year-old Oliwia and 17-year-old Karolina. I analysed 9 drawings of each of the respondents – together there were 18 of them. In the article I presented only an analysis of the figure of a human figure. The

interpreted drawings certainly show features characteristic of the period of the scheme according to the classification proposed by Szuman (1990), the period of ideoplastics, in the phase of simplified schemes occurs in the 5th–7th of the year of life in sighted children (Popek, 2010), the classification of Lowenfeld (1977) also takes into account the schematic stage (which covers the 7.–9. year of life of sighted children), while the typology of Luquet (2001/1927) determines this period with the phase of visual realism that appears around 7.–8. year of life (Schaffer, 2005).

The examined persons certainly present in their drawings a simplified diagram of a human figure, but at the same time they include elements characteristic of the gender of the depicted person (so-called “gender specific features”: flowers on the dress, braids) (see Szuman, 1990).

It is extremely difficult to determine the phase of plastic development in the analysed drawings unambiguously. Looking at the classification proposed by S. Szuman, they show features characteristic of the phase of simplified schemes, but there is also the enrichment of the scheme in “excipients”. According to the classification of Lowenfeld and Brittain, the studied work can be referred to the initial schematic phase or to the final pre-chemical phase. Similarly, in Luquet’s typology, it will be the initial stage of visual realism or the final realism of intellectual realism.

It can therefore be noticed that there is a considerable delay in the drawings of blind children, but despite the delay, cartoon development is similar to that of sighted children.

A characteristic feature of most of the drawings studied is their two-dimensionality, as well as the fact that they do not take into account perspectives, have no plans. Sometimes attempts are made to obtain a depth by means of a rectangular projection from the top, so a few points of view are introduced to the drawing, which is also characteristic of the schematic period in sighted children who try to show all the knowledge about the object in the drawing and the most characteristic, typical views (in the so-called canonical perspective⁶).

The drawings contain both a socialized prototype idea with general schematic features and subjective imaginations built on the basis of individual sensory experiences. Some of the drawing performances show the cognitive path of a blind person, e.g. drawing a tree, table or dog. In these drawings we can also encounter a canonical view, but characteristic of a different sensory perception. Some of the listed items are shown using the so-called a stuck mock-up – the term by Lowenfeld (1977), while Luquet (2001/1927) calls it a drawing in the form of a “folding-out”. These are the ways of performances that are also

⁶ The canonical view – the imaged object is presented in the most typical view, characteristic of it, in the so-called the canonical perspective (see Francuz, 2013).

used by sighted children in a schematic period: this is the most common way of illustrating space, surroundings, e.g. landscape, although there are also presentations of selected objects. The space resembles a mock-up model, and some objects are shown upside down. In blind children, such patterns often appear when imaging individual objects (dog and table, sometimes home). This is certainly related to the tactile cognitive pattern characteristic of blind children, but the way of dealing with imaging objects on the plane is similar.

Drawings according to the schematic period represent geometric shapes. Characteristic for blind children is the fact that sometimes they do not hit the point, they also have problems with closure of figures, or a hit to the place from which they started drawing. Geometric shapes are characterized by greater distortion, which can also be seen in attempts to draw straight lines and geometric shapes.

Such problems are also experienced by sighted children, however, the drawing tool, which is a pencil, a coloured pencil or even a pen, requires less effort and less pressure, thanks to which it is easier to draw a circle or a straight line. The drawing can also be improved, for example using an eraser, which is not possible when drawing on a foil. Sighted children practice a lot, because they constantly draw, while blind children draw occasionally. The way of drawing, as well as the type of support and the tool, which are harder to manipulate, force to some extent the visual form of the drawing and also affect the contour. Blindness also affects the proportions, asymmetric arrangement of elements in the whole imaged object, incompetent composition of the object on the plane of the canvas (e.g. the object is too small, placed in the bottom corner of the page, and the remaining space of the canvas is undeveloped). Each drawing, however, has its own unique style and contains features characteristic of its author.

In selected drawings, the blind make an attempt to show the movement, e.g. to activate the character by changing the position of the limbs. It is also a treatment used by sighted children who are in the period of schematic drawing.

Despite the described difficulties, most of the drawings examined present a prototypical drawing pattern, similar to drawings of the schematic period (in the simplified scheme stage) in sighted children. In summary, when comparing drawings of blind people with drawings of sighted people, the following differences can be observed:

1. Greater distortion of the shapes being pictured, there is also no hit at the point or the lack of closure of the shape.
2. More demolished proportions of the character.
3. Problems with the symmetrical arrangement of some elements of the object.
4. Problems with composing the imaged object on the canvas plane.
5. There are fewer details in the imaged objects.
6. Lack of selection of the base line.

7. People who are in primary school (especially at a younger school age) are still dismembering objects.
8. The canonical view of blind people (in the case of such objects as a table, house, tree, dog) often illustrates the tactile cognitive path of the author, which results in showing a different view of the object being pictured.

Despite these differences, cartoon development, although very delayed, is similar to that of sighted children.

In the blind, one can observe progression to a certain stage of developing a simplified scheme that they achieve without being most often stimulated. As it turns out, in the minds of the blind people are created patterns that reach a certain stage of artistic development. Just like in folk or ethnic art, artists come to their own stage without copying from nature. Perhaps the awakening of a creative attitude in the blind would result in activity and further development in this field – it is certainly a task for a creative teacher or art teacher.

Interestingly, as Szuman (1990) notes, also few sighted children reach the next stage, the so-called drawing type, because at some point children are not interested in drawing. There are several reasons for this, e.g. children while observing nature, photos, paintings of artists are beginning to notice more and more discrepancies between their images of objects that they are unable to render naturalistically. In addition, teaching drawings turns to dead objects that lie outside the child's sphere of interest. The most important thing in art is survival (Szuman, 1990) – the lack of experience during drawing causes a lack of interest in this type of activity. The natural joy of creation is characterized by a child who sees up to 14 years of age (*ibid.*), Whereas in blind children, little stimulated in this area, discouragement and lack of motivation may occur almost at the beginning along with the conviction that they cannot express themselves in this form, because they were encouraged to this type of activity.

It should be emphasized that most of the respondents had occasional contact with drawing, they were even convinced that they could not draw. Observing the creative process, one could see how gradually these people gain more and more self-confidence and begin to enjoy this activity.

Bibliography

- Bendych, E. (1994). Badania nad rysunkiem niewidomego dziecka (part. I). *Szkoła Specjalna*, 5, 276–287.
- Chojceka, A., Magner, M., Szwedowska, E., s. Więckowska, E. FSK (2008). *Nauczanie niewidomych dzieci rysunku*. Łaski: Towarzystwo Opieki nad Ociemniałymi.
- Czerwińska, K. (2008). Rysunek wypukły jako pomoc dydaktyczna w nauczaniu języków obcych – doniesienia z badań. In: K. Czerwińska (Ed.), *Adaptacja pomocy w nauce języków obcych osób niewidomych i słabo widzących*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.

- D'Angiulli, A., Maggi, S. (2003). Development of drawing abilities in a distinct population: Depiction of perceptual principles by three children with congenital total blindness. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 27, 193–200.
- Francuz, P. (2013). *Imagia. W kierunku neurokognitywnej teorii obrazu*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe Scholar.
- Hohensee-Ciszewska, H. (1976). *Podstawy wiedzy o sztukach plastycznych*. Warszawa: WSiP.
- Kennedy, J.M. (1993). *Drawing and the blind: Pictures to touch*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Kennedy, J.M., Juricevic, I. (2003). Haptics and projection: Drawings by Tracy, a blind adult. *Perception*, 32, 1059–1071.
- Kennedy, J.M., Juricevic, I. (2006). Blind man draws using diminution in three dimensions. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 13, 506–509.
- Lowenfeld, V., Brittain, W.L. (1977). *Twórczość a rozwój umysłowy dziecka*. Warszawa: PWN.
- Luquet, G.H. (2001/1927). *Children's Drawings/Le Dessin Enfantin*. London: Free Association Books.
- Morawski, S. (1960). O realizmie jako kategorii artystycznej. *Etyka*, 2, 17–36.
- Nęcka, E. (1995). *Proces twórczy i jego ograniczenie*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls.
- Niestorowicz, E. (2007). *Świat w umyśle i rzeźbie osób głuchoniewidomych*. Lublin: Wydawnictwo UMCS.
- Niestorowicz, E. (2012). Komunikat wizualny w twórczości osób głuchoniewidomych. In: P. Francuz (Ed.), *Komunikacja wizualna*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe Scholar.
- Niestorowicz, E. (2017). *The World in the Mind and Sculpture of the Deafblind Persons*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Pietrasiniński, Z. (1969). *Myslenie twórcze*. Warszawa: PZWS.
- Popek, S. (2001). *Człowiek jako jednostka twórcza*. Lublin: Wydawnictwo UMCS.
- Popek, S. (2010). *Psychologia twórczości plastycznej*. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Impuls.
- Schaffer, H. (2005). *Psychologia dziecka*. Warszawa: WN PWN.
- Szubielska, M., Niestorowicz, E. (2013). Twórczość plastyczna jako forma wspierania rozwoju osób niewidomych i głuchoniewidomych. In: D. Müller, A. Sobczak (Eds.), *Rozwój i jego wspieranie w perspektywie rehabilitacji i resocjalizacji*. Łódź: Wydawnictwo UŁ.
- Szubielska, M., Marek, B., Niestorowicz, E. (2016). The recognisability of representational drawings made by congenitally deafblind students. In: E. Domagała-Zyśk, A. Borowicz, R. Kołodziejczyk (Ed.), *Język i wychowanie*. Lublin: Wydawnictwo KUL.
- Szubielska, M., Niestorowicz, E., Marek, B. (2016). Jak rysują osoby, które nigdy nie widziały? Badania niewidomych uczniów. *Roczniki Psychologiczne*, 19/4, 659–680.
- Szuman, S. (1990). *Sztuka dziecka*. Warszawa: WSiP.
- Szuman, W. (1967). *O dostępności rysunku dla dzieci niewidomych*. Warszawa: PZWS.
- Wallis, M. (1968). Dzieje sztuki jako dzieje struktur semantycznych. *Kultura i Społeczeństwo*, 2, 63–75.
- Więckowska E. (2003). Rysunek w nauczaniu początkowym dzieci niewidomych. Referat. In: *Nowoczesne techniki kształcenia niewidomych i słabowidzących*. Europejska Konferencja w Owińskach, 25 kwietnia 2003 r. Poznań: Oficyna Edukacyjna Wydawnictwa EMPI.
- Żuchowski, T.J., Dudzik, S. (Eds.). (2001). *Disegno – rysunek. U źródeł sztuki nowożytnej*. Toruń: Wydawnictwo UMK.

ECONOMIC EDUCATION – CHILDREN WITH MILD INTELLECTUAL DISABILITIES ON THE ROAD TO ADULTHOOD

The article presents the issue of children and adolescents with mild intellectual disabilities acquiring basic economic skills. Their taking on the roles of the participants of socioeconomic reality in adulthood requires training in an area that is neglected in school and home education. In the contemporary world, preparing a conscious consumer and participant of the economy, starting from the earliest age, becomes one of the most important tasks of education. That is why the economic education/socialization of children with mild intellectual disabilities should start early – from gradually introducing them into the world of a small household economy in the family and educational interventions at school. The article provides both a definition and a short description of the economic socialization of children; it also presents study findings regarding the understanding of the monetary system by children with intellectual disabilities and their ability to count money in buy/sell situations as well as findings and educational guidelines on the economic education of children with intellectual disabilities, including parents' role in teaching children to manage their pocket money in a rational way.

Keywords: children with mild intellectual disabilities, economic education/socialization, monetary system, pocket money, money management

Introduction

In the modern world one of the basic skills, dispositions needed for a man to live independently in society, participation in a market economy, even as a consumer, is a conscious, rational economic activity. Effective economic functioning in the conditions of limited resources and unlimited needs depends on the level of knowledge and individual skills including: understanding the monetary system, well-planned and successful cash management, making the right consumer and financial decisions, including controlling expenditure, saving, understanding the rules of borrowing money and paying off debt, anticipating and bearing the consequences of own economic decisions, as well as understanding basic economic relationships in the area of economic phenomena such as: work, pay, money, production, goods, market, price, income, demand, profit, etc.

The acquisition of economic awareness and of rational money management skills are particularly important in the process of upbringing and socialization of children with mild intellectual disability that, difficult to learn, but achievable for most of them. They are indispensably needed in shaping responsibility and resourcefulness, and thus features that in the future may contribute to achieving independence necessary to run a household and gain financial independence. Lack of basic knowledge and skills falling under the so-called small home economics limits, and even prevents independent functioning of people with intellectual disabilities in adulthood.

A person with intellectual disability – educational conditions for developmental opportunities

When recognizing intellectual disability, the most important are the constitutive factors of the disorder, such as: 1) a significant limitation in terms of cognitive and intellectual functioning, which is the following norm; 2) the appearance of disorders in the early stages of development (before the age of 18); 3) lowering the social adjustment capacity, occurrence of deficits in the scope of adaptive behaviours (Sturmeijer, 2010; Kupisiewicz, 2013). There are therefore clinical diagnostic criteria, definitive criteria, considered primary – the first two of them – they occur with varying intensity in every person with intellectual disability – and those that are treated as a consequence or secondary effect of disability. The American Psychiatric Association in the publication *Criteria for the Diagnosis of Mental Disorders DSM-5* (2017), defining the diagnostic criteria for intellectual disability, also indicates the limitations of adaptive skills (criterion B), such as: communication with others, independent action, fulfilment of household duties, the ability to use the resources of the community in which the person operates, and self-determination about themselves, work, the form of spending free time, skills related to ensuring their safety (Puzyński, Wciórka, 2000). It should be added that the level of adaptive skills is determined taking into account the age of a given person, expectations of the socio-family environment, socio-cultural environment in which he or she resides, and thus depends on external factors (Richards, Brady, Taylor, 2014). Thus, the type and scope of support for development from an early age is extremely important. For if primary disorders at the organic level are affected by the secondary effects of disability, as well as their consequences, then the problems that people with intellectual disabilities face in their daily functioning, gain in strength, becoming a multiplied burden. The influence of social and family factors on the overall harmonious development of the individual is of crucial importance. Two areas of problems can be distinguished: 1) limiting by parents, guardians of the child the opportunity to experience sensory and social sensations: limiting activity, isolation; 2) improper interaction with the closest family, social and cultural environment: overprotection, limiting independence, exhortation in performing basic activities and making decisions. It is emphasized that in people with intellectual disability

this dependence on others is a factor hampering development, limiting the ability to learn how to function efficiently in social situations (Wehmeyer, Schalock, 2001).

The perception by the environment of a person with intellectual disability as an “eternal child” inhibits or even blocks all attempts of independence and activity at every stage and in every area of development (Olszak, 1995). Such a model of interaction promotes passivity, limits shaping of responsibility, experiencing own effectiveness and the ability to influence what is happening. Dependence on others and their care, the inability to choose and exercise control over an individual’s events directly concern the factors conducive to the formation of learned helplessness (learned helplessness). The emerging difficulties are conditioned by a more social context of functioning, socio-educational disadvantage of these people than intellectual deficits. (Pisula, 2008; Heward, 2006).

The nature of interaction between a person with intellectual disability and its surroundings acquires a special meaning in the light of the arguments provided. It is becoming a priority to create the right conditions, thanks to which these people will be able to develop and learn to function efficiently in everyday life. It is connected with building social interactions in which the right of people with intellectual disabilities to self-determination, making choices and making decisions is accepted; support is provided in the maximum – but adapted to individual potential – experience of the surrounding reality; it becomes possible to broaden their functional skills and strengthen their power of agency (Markowetz, 2000; Ehmeier, Schalock, 2001). The attitude of parents, guardians, teachers and educators conducive to self-empowerment, self-determination, independence of children, adolescents, and later adults with intellectual disabilities cannot be overestimated (Schuppener, 2009; Markowetz, 2000). The pursuit in the process of education and upbringing and socialization of children and youth with intellectual disabilities to prepare them for independent functioning in social life requires equipping them also with specific economic competences. All considerations should therefore concern how to support children with intellectual disabilities in acquiring knowledge and skills in the field of so-called small economy, and not whether it should be done at all and whether children with limited intellectual capabilities can make money available for independent use.

Socialization/economic education of children

According to Christina Roland-Levy (2004, p. 277) “Economic socialization involves the child’s acquisition of knowledge, concepts, skills, behaviours, opinions, attitudes, values and cognitive representations related to the world around them”. Its effects depend to a large extent on all environmental influences per unit, including the intended impacts of the educational environment.

A special dimension of children’s socialization is undertaking activities in the field of economic education. It involves gradual approximation of elemen-

tary rules and economic dependencies to children and implementation of them for undertaking independent economic activities. The shaping of the understanding of the value of money and the regularity of economic exchange is of key importance. The task of economic education is the intentional, planned and systematic equipping of children with the basics of economic knowledge and elementary skills of using it in specific situations.

Thus, economic education of children with intellectual disability should aim at organizing such experiences for them, which will allow them to acquire competences in the field of the ability to distinguish money, to know their value, and to deal with cash calculations in the situation of buying and selling. This is the basis for understanding the meaning of saving and the simplest principles of the so-called small economics: how to manage monetary resources, make economic decisions, predict their consequences and bear the consequences, including making a choice between the various purchase options or purchasing, and abstaining from it, save and plan expenses.

Economic education should begin with the gradual introduction of a child into the world of a small home economy in the family and educational activities undertaken at school. Meanwhile, in Poland, economic education of children and youth with intellectual disabilities is practically non-existent. In the pedagogical and psychological literature concerning the education and upbringing of children with intellectual disability, this issue is virtually absent. In the world, the acquisition of knowledge and economic skills begins already in early childhood, so that people with intellectual disabilities in adulthood could avoid wrong economic decisions, such as irrational household budget management or excessive indebtedness (Kupisiewicz, 2004).

The process of socialization/economic education of children is presented by researchers – psychologists and educators – in terms of economic maturation, which includes parallel and mutually interacting, cognitive and social development. Therefore, the findings regarding the correctness of children acquiring competences in the field of elementary knowledge and economic skills refer to the theory of cognitive-development Jean Piaget (1999) and the theory of social learning Albert Bandura (2007). Anna E. Berti and Anna S. Bombi (1988), referring to the stages of Piaget's intellectual development, distinguished four stages, stages of children's reasoning referring to various phenomena and economic dependencies, including the money function in commodity-monetary exchange: 1) pre economic stage (3–6 years of age), in which scripts¹ are built related to situations of an economic nature, which children observe and in which

¹ A script is a kind of cognitive and executive scheme, which is a mental representation of sequences of events, patterns of behaviours internalized in the process of education. Thanks to the scripts, the child interprets certain events, memorizes them and knows how to behave in a similar situation.

they participate. They are strongly associated with the experience acquired in the purchase – sale circumstances. Initially, children believe that you can buy only one item for one coin, then discover that the amount to be paid is related to the price of the goods. However, giving money, receiving a chosen item and sometimes accepting the rest recognize the binding behaviour that results from the exchange itself during the purchase; 2) in the intuitive stage (6th–7th year), children are already familiar with the relationship price – commodity and understand the function of money in this exchange, but it is still difficult to know what economic relations are based on which the profit of the seller is generated. They have problems understanding the links between the monetary and economic systems; 3) at the stage of specific operations (7–10 years), children's economic relations are more and more understood by children. They combine them not only with buying and selling activities, but they perceive globally as part of the functioning of the economic system, in which the seller must buy products that he sells and achieve profit from their sales. Existing scripts are expanding with new experience and information of an economic nature, e.g. understanding what ownership is, objects that make up property and their monetary value, bank functions; 4) the stage of formal operations (11–14 years) is the period in which the scope of economic knowledge expands and merges into a cohesive system.

One of the basic components of knowledge and economic skills of younger children is to know what money is, how it is obtained by people, and understanding the value of money in the monetary system and the related skills of making financial calculations and rational disposition: spending and saving. The level of cognitive development and the independently acquired experience is of significant importance in understanding children's value of money. These experiences depend on environmental and educational conditions. Parents' views are significant, because it depends on them whether the child has access to money, has their money received in the form of a pocket money and can manage them independently, or participates in buy-sell transactions not only as an observer. Therefore, the level of cognitive development, the child's own activity, socio-cultural determinants, relations with other people and patterns of economic behaviour have a significant impact on the development of economic thinking (Goszczyńska, Kołodziej, Trzcińska, 2012).

Taking this into account, I conducted research and found:² when children with mild intellectual disabilities are able to recognize money and differentiate their denominations; when they understand the fixed value of money in the monetary

² The description of the research methodology and their results are presented in: Kupisiewicz, M. (2004, chapter 6, 8, 9 and 12). These studies were repeated in (according to the same procedure) 2016/2017 in a group of 60 children with slight intellectual disabilities – unpublished materials.

system; how their skills in the field of monetary calculations grow. In addition, I attempted to identify the views of the parents of these children regarding the familiarization with money, making money available to them in the form of a pocket money and bringing closer the elementary rules and economic principles.

Competences of children with mild intellectual disabilities in terms of understanding the monetary system and the ability to make cash calculations in buying and selling situations

In the course of research, I determined the following state of affairs in the area of elementary economic skills of children with slight intellectual disabilities:

- Recognition of coins and banknotes at their face value.

Five-year-olds and most six-year-olds can not recognize and name coins or banknotes. They still have problems with recognizing numbers and are not aware of the importance of denominations. Seven-year-olds and eight-year-olds, choosing the money they want, pay the most attention to the number stamped on it, omitting or mistaking the denominations of zlotys and pennies. With the age, the competences of children with slight intellectual disability gradually increase, but not all ten year olds are able to recognize and correctly name denominations of coins and banknotes.

- Understanding the gradation of the face value of coins and banknotes.

Children aged 5–7 do not cope with the gradation of the value of denominations of coins and banknotes. The higher value for them is the money, which has a larger size or is in gold. The vast majority of them do not know the denominations of money well, they do not understand their value and, comparing, for example, PLN 0.5 and PLN 1, they do not see which coin has more value.

- Understanding the fixed value of money in the monetary system.

The formation of an understanding of the constant value of money in the monetary system in children with intellectual disability is associated with three strategies of reasoning, corresponding to the Piagetian stages of the formation of operational reasoning at a concrete level. The pre-operative level is characteristic for the majority of 5–7-year-old children with mild intellectual disability. They believe that the value of money is determined by its size (the banknote or the coin is the larger, the greater the value) and the colour (golden coins have a higher value than silver). The sum of money, which consists of a larger number of coins, has more value. The level of transient operational thinking represents approximately 40% of 9-year-olds and 75% of ten-year-olds with mild intellectual disabilities. They begin to understand that the value of money is determined by its denomination and how the money is distributed, but they are not yet able to compare the value of one banknote with the sum of several coins. The level of specific operations

is characteristic for reasoning of approximately 45% of 9-year-olds and approximately 60% of ten-year-olds with slight intellectual disabilities. These children know that the value of money is determined solely by its denomination and can sum up the nominal values of coins (mainly in the zloty), setting the equivalent of a banknote.

- Ability to make cash calculations in buying and selling situations.

For children with a slight intellectual disability aged 5 to 7, the situation of buying and selling is understood primarily in terms of exchanging an object for another one. They know that money must be given to the seller to receive the chosen “item”. Most often they give one coin, and when the item seems more valuable to them – a few coins, do not pay attention to their denomination. They are not interested in the price and are not aware of its role yet, nor do they understand what the rest is about.

8-year-old children understand this better. They attempt to deduct money corresponding to the price of the item they want to buy. Some manage it when the amount to be paid is easily expressed in PLN coins, while others give up counting money. With age, the number of children who can deduct the right amount to pay increases. About 60% of ten-year-olds with mild intellectual disability can pay for goods using PLN and PLN coins and banknotes in simple situations, for example, PLN 2.30 and PLN 25.

Parents’ participation in the process of economic education of children with mild intellectual disabilities

My research³ shows that the reasons for the fact that only 10-year-olds with a slight intellectual disability (about 60%) demonstrate knowledge of the monetary system and the basic skills of making cash calculations in buying-selling situations are manifold because not everything explains the reduced intellectual level of these children. It turns out that they have very few economic experiences compared to their non-disabled peers. This is indicated by the information I collected during interviews with my parents: up to 77% of children with moderate intellectual disability have very limited access to money, get it irregularly when they ask (most often it is PLN 2 or PLN 5) or as a gift (from parents or relatives). However, it is worth paying attention to the fact that children get this money for a moment to hold and immediately give it to adults for safekeeping. It means that they have no chance of having them. Only a few receive pocket money, but they do not have a buying or selling situation in which they could use money. They do not talk to

³ Unpublished data from interviews with 30 parents of children with mild intellectual disabilities, conducted in 2016/2017.

them about the family budget, about the value of money and how to manage it. Most parents (over 70%) believe that their 10-year-old children with intellectual disabilities do not have to have their own money at their disposal, because they meet all their needs. Parents most often justified the limitation of access to money for their children with their low intellectual abilities, poor accounting skills and lack of understanding of the value of money. They used similar arguments explaining the correctness of their attitude regarding limiting the participation of children in discussions related to the family budget. It turns out that such petrified attitudes of parents also make themselves known in the lives of their adult children. Some parents have full remuneration for their working, adult children with intellectual disabilities. Although they work, they do not experience that they earn money - they do not see them (they affect their account), they do not receive them from their parents, even in part, for their expenses. This is a very unfavourable situation, conducive to the development of passive attitude, dependence on others, as well as demobilizing influences, especially when the main motivation to take up employment is to earn money. The described parental attitude is not conducive to the education of responsibility and resourcefulness, features that can contribute to the acquisition of financial independence (Burton-Smith, Morgan, Davidson, 2005).

My research shows that in acquiring the economic competences of children, and later adults with intellectual disabilities, there is a significant overlap of unfavourable conditions:

- 1) children with a slower intellectual development need more independent experience to develop cognitive and executive patterns, this also includes understanding the value of money, the monetary system and making monetary calculations in the situation of buying and selling;
- 2) parents, limiting children's access to money and justifying their intellectual and emotional immaturity, significantly impoverish the scope and quality of their economic experience;
- 3) deprivation of these experiences is expressed in the low level of competence in the understanding of the value of money and the acquisition of knowledge, skills and dispositions in the field of economics.

Fundamental importance in acquiring competence in the field of small economics (microeconomics) therefore lies with personal experiences of a child with intellectual disability.

Pedagogical arrangements for the economic education of children with mild intellectual disabilities

Economic education should begin with the gradual introduction of the child into the world of so-called small home economics in the family and educational

activities undertaken at school. At the beginning, it is necessary to visualize to children with mild intellectual disabilities that the source of raising money is work. Adults go to work every day and earn money there. Because children are rarely able to see their parents at work, their attention should be paid to working adults, for example in a shop, on a construction site, during a doctor's visit (clinic – a place of work of a doctor, nurse and other people), and explain that they receive money for this work. Talks should be conducted with the children, in which we refer to specific everyday situations directly and indirectly connected with economic activities that children observe or passively participate in.

Guided by Berti and Bombi (1988) stages of reasoning of children, referring to various phenomena and economic dependencies, which I described earlier, I propose the following order of experience for children with mild intellectual disabilities, thanks to which they will be able to understand the meaning of exchange one for one, because money is treated by young children as an object to be exchanged, so the exchange takes the form of an object, and contracts for trade – the sum of money to be paid must correspond to the price of the item purchased.

Gradually, it is necessary to shape the understanding of the essence of the Polish monetary system in children, performing step by step exercises related to:

- determining what is money and what is not;
- recognizing and differentiating coins and banknotes;
- gradation of the nominal value of coins (gr, PLN) and banknotes, segregating them by value;
- understanding of the fixed value of money in the monetary system – expressing a certain amount of money using various denominations of coins and banknotes;
- understanding the function of money as a means of payment in buying and selling situations – developing the ability to make cash calculations (deducting the amount to be paid, the remainder received, estimating whether the amount of money you have is enough to buy a certain thing).

When children with mild intellectual disabilities will understand the meaning of monetary relations (values of coins, banknotes), they can be implemented to acquire, what is money management, home budget, expenditure planning (I have such a sum of money, what can I buy for it; these purchases, how much I lack), and also to differentiate between needs and whims (what is the purpose and purpose of saving, borrowing money, the need to pay the debt, what are the basic functions of the bank).

It is fundamental to make children aware that parents receive money for their work and they must be enough to support the whole family. Satisfying the child's needs is only part of the expenses. The concept of budget is still for 10-year-old children with mild intellectual disability something incompre-

hensible, inaccessible to their reasoning, so explanations and actions based on particulars are necessary. It is worth introducing monthly budget meetings into your family. Children should be gradually implemented to get to know and to understand what makes up the whole family's living costs. I suggest that parents at the beginning of each month (for at least 3 months) pay their salary out of the account and bring it home. They sit with the child at the table, where there is a pile of real money, and explain that it is a reward for their work and this money is enough to keep the whole family. Then they put bills for the flat, water, gas, electricity, Internet, etc. on the table. Next to each bill, they place the deducted amount of money that is needed to pay it (taken from the pile of all the money they have at their disposal). In this way, they will show children planning the expenses in the home budget on real banknotes. They can then ask children what else everyone in the family needs money for. They point out that you need to buy food, clothes, cleaning products; they put more banknotes from the pile. Usually, children exchange still different items that they want their parents to buy. It is a good moment to talk about the difference between the necessary need and the whim. When all necessary expenses are settled, there are usually few banknotes left on the table. It is worth talking with the children about what you can spend the money for, what pleasures for the whole family, whether this money is enough and what it means to save. Conversations, however, are not enough. Children must participate in paying bills in cash, not by transfer from account to account or using a card, because this does not give children with intellectual disabilities an idea of what it is like to spend money; to do shopping with your parents according to a pre-prepared list.

Shopping with a child is an opportunity to explain how advertisements or promotions work and show specific behaviours. When an adult is shopping, he can loudly ask questions like: Is this something that we really need? Show your child how to deal with the dilemma to buy/not to buy, giving each other time to think and postpone the decision for the next day. A child should experience a situation in which to buy a more expensive thing you need to save time and that entering the store does not always mean that they buy something (Kobliner, 2017).

Pocket money – an important element of economic education

Independent economic activity of a child with mild intellectual disability is the basis of his knowledge and skills to manage money, understand and appreciate their value, rational disposition and conscious saving. By making economic decisions and experiencing their effects, children with mild intellectual disabilities have a chance to gradually enter the world of so-called small economy. It is possible when they have their money. School activities related

to the economic upbringing of children should therefore be strengthened by cooperation with parents. Giving money to children with mild intellectual disability (9–10 years) in the form of a pocket money can be a source of valuable economic experience for them, but not only. Pocket money is their first step into adulthood. Giving them money in the form of a regular pocket money is seen primarily as proof of parental approval, trust and acceptance, they realize that parents do not treat them as little children anymore. Having their own money at their disposal gives them a sense of importance, builds in their psyche such features as independence and responsibility.

In western publications addressing the problem of socialization of children with intellectual disabilities, attention is drawn to the fact that access to proper economic education and the use of opportunities for everyday, practical use of acquired skills, direct involvement in managing their own finances (pocket money), from an early age, in a fundamental way increases chances of making good financial decisions by adults with intellectual disabilities (Suto et al., 2005).

Regular spending by children with intellectual disability pocket money helps them understand the value of money, teaches them to decide on their own expenses, promotes gaining experience in rational management of money and incurring the consequences of wrong decisions, and teaches responsibility.

The educational value of a pocket money will increase when parents follow the following rules:

- Mom and dad agree and determine the amount of pocket money (they do not pay less or more than was agreed). Together with a child with intellectual disability, they determine (when they receive their first allowance for the first time): what they can buy for their money, and which of their needs are met by parents; What duties do all household members and the child also, and for what household chores it can get extra to pocket money (the point is for the child to associate receiving money with the work done).
- Transferring money to a child should be done systematically on a fixed day of the week. The child must be sure that he has a regular source of income, which he can always count on, he can then better plan his expenses and make choices.
- For at least the first three months of paying the pocket money to a child, parents agree with him on how much money he can spend in a single day.
- After a few months, parents should stop interfering in the way they manage their pocket money and if the child rationally expends their money, pay them once a week or once a month, encouraging the child to plan their expenses.
- It is beneficial if the parents allow the child to spend their money at their own discretion and will not give them extra money when they make erroneous, ill-considered decisions. The fixed sum of pocket money cannot be increased under the pretext that the child spent everything.

- Parents should not use pocket money as a punishment or reward: to withhold punitive amounts for bad behaviour or to increase the amount of money when the child performs his duties (actually behaving, diligently learning). The changing amount of pocket money (increased – reward, reduced – punishment) strengthens the association of money with something unstable in a child with intellectual disability, making it difficult to shape spending planning skills and understanding the meaning of saving. In addition, a child who is financially rewarded may become convinced that he should receive money for everything he does well.
- Every year, for example on the day of birth, you can increase the amount of your pocket money (depending on the possibilities of your parents).

Parents should encourage children to save, but not exert pressure, organize situations in which they can learn to manage their money rationally (Arndt, 2001).

First steps in implementing children with mild intellectual disabilities to manage their money rationally

When we want to teach children with intellectual disabilities to manage their finances properly, we need to help them set goals on which to allocate money. These are: expenses for needs and whims; saving; help to others. Worth recommending is the idea of using three jars to manage money, on which we label the Expenses, Savings, Help others (Shin, 2013). Parents should encourage the child to distribute each received amount, for example in the form of a pocket money or received from relatives, between these three jars, it is worth motivating them to put some of the money in the Savings jars and Help others.

By doing this, children learn important rules related to money management:

- You should not spend all your pocket money and/or received, for example, as a gift immediately.

Willingness to spend money without thinking, directly when they receive it, to satisfy the temporary whim, is manifested by the majority of children with intellectual disabilities. They are impulsive in their desires and demand and expect to satisfy them immediately. They have a big problem with acquiring the skills of deferred gratification (deferred satisfaction), they want to immediately realize the desire for something that, for example, they can buy, because they have their money. They do not think about it, they just hastily spend money because they want to get satisfaction from having things they suddenly want. The ability to defer gratification is associated with self-control, or the ability to control own reactions and behaviours. According to Paul Tough (2012), non-cognitive skills such as perseverance, self-control, as well as curiosity, diligence, self-confidence are more important than reasoning skills on the way to achieving

success. According to Walter Mischel (2015), the ability to self-control and defer gratification is more important for successful life than intelligence, significantly affecting better social and cognitive functioning as well as self-esteem. Cognitive and emotional skills responsible for self-control can assimilate children with intellectual disabilities so that they can actively use them.

Useful in the acquisition of economic competences, using the mechanism of postponing gratuities and developing the ability to self-control is saving. Saving is one of the most important habits, because it teaches you goals, patience, consistency and making sensible shopping decisions. At the beginning, it is worth to help children with intellectual disabilities to understand that saving is to collect money for a more distant purpose, when, for example, the purchase of a tablet and bicycle is missing and the desire to have it immediately cannot be met. It is important to clearly specify the purpose of saving and the amount that the child intends to collect (it must be written on a piece of paper). On the Savings jar, you can attach a picture of the things your child collects - to strengthen his motivation when he looks at his savings. Whenever he puts money into this jar, he should be helped to count how much he has, talk to him, how much he needs to achieve his goal. The point is for the child to understand that if he is armed with patience and consistently saved, he will realize his dreams. For younger children with intellectual disabilities, too long saving time is difficult and the reverse effect may occur - discouragement and resignation, so parents can introduce the principle of fair share of costs: I will give that much, and you will save the rest.

- You have to set preferences, what to allocate your money to.

Saving is not just putting money aside, but also a range of skills to reduce unnecessary expenses. It is important to understand by children with intellectual disability the difference that occurs between the need and the whim. In the first place money is for the needs, and then for pleasure. If a child allocates, for example, once a week part of a pocket money for the purchase of a favourite newspaper with stickers and it is important to him, we can include this expenditure in the child's needs group. If he buys another and another packet of chips, it is a whim. When it will spend money on whims, it may not be enough to meet his needs. If a child spends, for example, all his pocket money for cravings within two days, he will understand the consequences of such proceedings when he or she remains without money until the day when the next pocket money is paid. Independent experiences of children with intellectual disability and bearing the consequences of their own decisions are the most important.

- It is worth helping others, and at the same time derives joy and satisfaction from sharing money as well.

At the beginning, you can show children the purpose for which they will be able to spend money from the jar Help others. It is important for children

to enjoy the real goal directly and specifically, for example, they have raised money to buy dog food in the shelter – it is necessary that they buy this food themselves, bring it to the shelter and see the dogs that eat the food they bring.

Already ten-year-old children with mild intellectual disabilities can start to learn how to manage their own money, manage them rationally. We encourage children to plan expenses for a week or a month, depending on when they receive fixed pocket money. The table contains tips useful in implementing children with mild intellectual disabilities to manage their own finances.

Table

Own financial management by children with mild intellectual disabilities

INCOME	EXPENSES	
Pocket money + pay for work at home <i>Only count the money you receive regularly</i>	NEEDS	WHIMS
	Expenditure for the <i>needs</i> : amounts that you know you need to spend on something	Expenses on <i>whims</i> : amount for something you want
AMOUNT OF MONEY YOU HAVE PLN	AMOUNT OF MONEY, YOU WANT TO SPEND PLN	
BALANCE		
Compare the amount of expenses PLN and the amount of income PLN You have to plan in such a way that the amount of expenses coincides with or is smaller than the amount of income. If income is higher than the expenses, you will get some money, you can save them and / or spend on helping others.		
SAVING		
Specify what you want to collect money for and save the price PLN Check every week or month how much money you have collected PLN, and then decide how much you are missing PLN If the amount of money you have saved is small and is not enough to buy this item, look at your whims. Give up something, then you'll save some money.		

Own study

Children with intellectual disabilities may need help from their parents in making further calculations of money, and in comparing the amount of balance money. However, their independent and personal experience of managing money in expanding their economic awareness is extremely important.

Conclusion

Preparing people with intellectual disabilities for active, independent and responsible social functioning is associated with taking on new tasks and roles characteristic of the adulthood. Taking up the role of an employee is perceived as a prelude to economic independence and other types of responsibility, including bearing the consequences of own economic decisions located in the area of small home economics.

Understanding the monetary system, rational management of own financial resources, understanding the bank's functions and the basic rules of dependence of the economic market are messages and skills that are necessary to master. For people with intellectual disabilities an increased amount of time is needed, the number of independent experiences in the process of gradually acquiring new knowledge and economic skills and their practical real use, therefore activities related to economic education must be started early, when acquiring economic experience, including skills aimed at reducing the risk of making wrong decisions can take place in safe conditions, and the loss of financial resources is limited to sums obtained from pocket money and does not ruin the household.

Bibliography

- Arndt, K. (2001). *Pieniądże nie spadają z nieba*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Klub dla Ciebie.
- Bandura, A. (2007). *Teoria społecznego uczenia się*, rozdz. 2. Warszawa: WN PWN.
- Berti, A.E., Bombi, A.S. (1988). *The child's construction of economics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Burton-Smith, R., Morgan, M., Davidson, J. (2005). Does the daily choice making of adults with intellectual disability meet the normalisation principle? *Journal of Intellectual & Developmental Disability*, 30, 226–235, chapters 4–6.
- Goszczyńska, M., Kołodziej, S., Trzcińska, A. (2012). *Uwikłani w świat pieniądza i konsumpcji. O socjalizacji ekonomicznej dzieci i młodzieży*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Difin.
- Heward, W.L. (2006). *Exceptional Children: An Introduction to Special Education* (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
- Kobliner, B. (2017). *Make your kid a money genius (even if you're not): a parents' guide for kids 3 to 23*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Kryteria diagnostyczne zaburzeń psychicznych DSM-5* (2017). P. Gałęcki, M. Pilecki, J. Rymaszewska, A. Szulc, S. Sidorowicz, J. Wciórka (Eds. of Polish edition). Łódź: Edra Urban & Partner.
- Kupisiewicz, M. (2004). *Edukacja ekonomiczna dzieci. Z badań nad rozumieniem wartości pieniądza i obliczeniami pieniężnymi*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Kupisiewicz, M. (2004). Wychowanie ekonomiczne w rodzinach dzieci z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną. Wyniki badań i wnioski. *Szkoła Specjalna*, 3, 163–173.
- Kupisiewicz, M. (2013). *Słownik pedagogiki specjalnej*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Markowetz, R. (2000). Identität, soziale Integration und Entstigmatisierung. *Gemeinsam Leben. Zeitschrift für integrative Erziehung*, 3, 112–120.

- Mischel, W. (2015). *Test Marshmallow. O korzyściach płynących z samokontroli*. Sopot: Wydawnictwo Smak Słowa.
- Olszak, A. (1995). Rola rodziny w życiu dziecka głębiej upośledzonego umysłowo. In: M. Chodkowska (Ed.), *Dziecko niepełnosprawne w rodzinie: socjalizacja i rehabilitacja* (pp. 71–74). Lublin: Wydawnictwo UMCS.
- Orzeł, M. (2013). Zaburzenia psychiczne i zaburzenia zachowania u osób upośledzonych umysłowo. *Zeszyty Naukowe WSSP*, 16, 79–99.
- Piaget, J., Inhelder, B. (1999). *Psychologia dziecka*. Wrocław: Wydawnictwo Siedmioróg.
- Pisula, E. (2008). *Dorosłość osób z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną – szanse i zagrożenia*. Warszawa: Polskie Stowarzyszenie na Rzecz Osób z Upośledzeniem Umysłowym.
- Puzyński, S., Wciórka, J. (2000). *Klasyfikacja zaburzeń psychicznych i zaburzeń zachowania w ICD–10. Opisy kliniczne i wskazówki diagnostyczne* (pp. 189–192). Kraków–Warszawa: Uniwersyteckie Wydawnictwo Medyczne „Vesalius”.
- Richards, S.B., Brady, M.P., Taylor, R.L. (2014). *Cognitive and Intellectual Disabilities: Historical Perspectives, Current Practices, and Future Directions*. New York: Routledge, 2 Pap/Psc edition (1705).
- Roland-Levy, Ch. (2004). W jaki sposób nabywamy pojęcia i wartości ekonomiczne? In: T. Tysza (Ed.), *Psychologia ekonomiczna*. Gdańsk: GWP.
- Schuppener, S. (2009). Muss die Identität bei Menschen mit geistiger Behinderung beschädigt sein? In: G. Dobsław, T. Klaus (Eds.), *Identität, geistige Behinderung und seelische Gesundheit. Dokumentation der Arbeitstagung der DGSGB* (Bd. 19, s. 45–57). Berlin: Eigenverlag der DGSGB.
- Seligman, M.E.P., Walker, E.F., Rosenhan, D.L. (2003). *Psychopatologia*. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Zysk i S-ka.
- Shin, L. (2013). The 5 Most Important Money Lessons To Teach Your Kids. *Forbes X*.
- Sturmeijer, P. (2010). Diagnostyka zaburzeń psychicznych u osób niepełnosprawnych intelektualnie. In: N. Bouras, G. Holt (Eds.), *Zaburzenia psychiczne i zaburzenia zachowania u osób niepełnosprawnych intelektualnie*. Wrocław: Elsevier Urban & Partner.
- Suto, W.M.I., Clare, I.C.H., Holland, A.J., Watson, P.C. (2005). Capacity to make financial decisions among people with mild intellectual disabilities. *Journal of Intellectual Disability Research*, 49(3), 199–209.
- Tough, P. (2012). *How Children Succeed Houghton Mifflin Harcourt*. Boston–New York.
- Wehmeyer, M.L., Schalock, R.L. (2001). Self-determination and quality of life: Implication for special education services and supports. *Focus on Exceptional Children*, 33, 1–16.

**INDIVIDUALIZED EDUCATION AND THERAPY
PROGRAMS – LEGAL ASPECTS WITH A COMMENTARY.
Part 1**

In Polish educational institutions for each student under special education, teachers develop an individual educational and therapeutic program (IPET), taking into account the recommendations contained in the ruling on the need for special education (Act of December 14, 2016. Educational Law Article 127 paragraph 3, Journal of Laws 2017, item 59). Properly prepared IPET plays a fundamental role in the development and education of the student/pupil. In schools, kindergartens, the Internet, and many publications, very diverse models/examples are available. It happens that in the created program, the child's diagnosis, strengths and aptitudes, general information about the child's family situation, as well as recommended developmental and therapeutic goals are presented at the beginning, in other words, information from the decision about the need for special education is usually given, adding or not observations. These practices are not justified in the currently binding education law.

Pursuant to § 19 of the Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 25 August 2017 on the manner of publicly maintained kindergartens, schools and institutions of course documentation, educational and care activities and types of this documentation (OJ 2017, item 1646) for each foster child undergoing special education, an individual file is established in which a decision about the need for special education is collected, documentation of tests and complementary activities carried out in particular by a pedagogue, psychologist, speech therapist, vocational counsellor, pedagogical therapist, doctor and other specialist. In the file, as a separate document, IPET should also be included, which should not be combined with a multi-disciplinary evaluation of the student's performance level (WOPFU). This assessment is the basis for the IPET construction and must be repeated. It is carried out a minimum of two times a school year and as needed, while IPET is developed for the period for which the decision on the need for special education was issued, sometimes at the whole educational stage. Already from this fact, there will be several stu-

dent ratings, while IPET will be one, even if it needs to be modified – I would emphasize – the diagnosis gives the basis for the construction and modification of IPET, so it cannot be part of it.

Although you can understand the convenience of gathering all the information in one document, the consequences of doing so may be disadvantageous for the child/student. Functional diagnosis is in its nature open (continuous, dynamic), subject to changes, as long as it is needed, it is never final. The information from the ruling can only be a starting point, cannot be a reference to the whole period of IPET. Written in IPET, they are treated as a certainty, while the level of functioning of a child who is able to implement the core curriculum of general education evolves. Cognitive functions, communication and socio-emotional skills develop. The zone of the current and next development of the child is changing. This is reflected in subsequent diagnoses and therefore their results should be stored in the same folder, e.g. in the workbook, before IPET, with the current diagnosis result on top.

The detailed requirements for an individual educational and therapeutic program are contained in § 6. 1. Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 9 August 2017 on the conditions for organizing education, upbringing and care for disabled children and adolescents, socially maladjusted and endangered by social maladjustment (Dz. U. 2017, item 1578). Guidelines on the content of IPET are included in eight points.

In the first point of the program, the scope and manner of adapting the pre-school education program or educational requirements to individual developmental and educational needs as well as psycho-physical abilities of the student should be appropriately determined, in particular through the use of appropriate methods and forms of working with him. It should be noted that IPET is not a pre-school education program or a curriculum. It is the adaptation of the program implemented in the pre-school group or adapting the educational requirements resulting from the school curriculum implemented – it would therefore be necessary to mention the title and author/authors of the program to which we refer.

When discussing the contents of the first IPET point, it is necessary to consider such terms as: scope of adjustment, educational requirements, developmental and educational needs, psychophysical possibilities, appropriate methods and forms of work with the student.

The scope of adjustment

The word “scope” means the area covered by the borders (Sobol, 2003, p. 1224). Its feature is, among other things, that it can be narrow or wide. The scope may also be general, for example subject-specific, and also detailed – it

may refer to content within a specific subject of education. In accordance with the core curriculum of pre-school education and the core curriculum of general education (OJ 2017, item 356), the term “scope” at every stage of education means something else. This will be discussed on the example of kindergarten and primary school.

In the case of a pre-school education program, four areas of child development can be distinguished: physical, emotional, social and cognitive. In the first stage of education (classes I–III) ranges can be already 11 or 12 out of the thirteen indicated in the core curriculum. Within them, there are many detailed scopes, for example, in Polish language education, adaptation may refer to achievements in the areas of listening, speaking, reading, writing, language education, self-education. In the second stage of education (classes IV–VIII), the scope is determined by teaching subjects with their detailed requirements (up to 21 subjects). In the education of students with moderate or severe intellectual disabilities, no educational outcomes/requirements in individual spheres of influence are indicated in the core curriculum of general education. The scope of learning for each student is individual. The level of expected achievement adapts to the student’s ability. Only such areas of education are mentioned as: I (with 6 detailed scopes), I and the environment (15 detailed scopes), It helps me (2 detailed scopes). The teacher has the right to narrow or expand teaching content that is beneficial for student development (Journal of Laws 2016, item 1943, as amended, Annex 3).

In IPET, it would be advisable to refer to the specific scopes of particular areas of child development, subjects or teaching areas. However, it will not always be necessary to adapt the requirements in every respect. In this situation, the solution is: “there is no need to adapt ...” and here the name of the detailed scope – in this case, the scope of adjustment will be narrowed. At the same time, we point out that although we do not use adaptation, we have analysed the possibilities for the pupil to achieve the expected results.

Educational requirements

The wording “educational requirements” means the requirements that a student must meet in order to receive individual interim and annual classification grades from educational classes. They result from the directly implemented curriculum and should be presented to pupils and their parents at the beginning of each school year (Article 44b paragraph 8 point 1 of the Act of September 7, 1991 on the education system. 1943, with later changes). It should be noted that there are no educational requirements in the kindergarten – the child’s achievements are expected at the end of the pre-school education period. Adapting the pre-school education program or educational requirements

is aimed at equalizing the educational chances of a juvenile, as well as preventing secondary disorders of the emotional and motivational sphere. It must be adequate to the child's ability. The teacher should take into account the learning difficulties occurring in the pupil, as well as the need to achieve the expected achievements or requirements at the level that would allow to start the next educational stage. There is a requirement for achievement indicated in the core curriculum. If, despite the efforts of the student and the teachers, the person is not able to obtain the expected effects of pre-school education or meet the educational requirements, a psychological and pedagogical counselling centre should be requested for a new diagnosis and a change of the ruling on the need for special education. Adapting educational requirements is often a challenge for teachers. For example – at the end of early school education the expected effect of education in the field of Polish language education in the detailed "listening" was recorded in the following form: "The student listens carefully to the teacher's statements, other people in different life situations, requiring communication and mutual understanding." And our student is deaf and does not understand the information received through the auditory system. What will the adjustment be based on in this situation? Can we give up such activity of a deaf student? The teacher must find a creative solution, for example: "The student observes carefully the teacher's/translator's speech in sign language, observes the speech and body language of other people, including those who are flashing, in different life situations that require communication and mutual understanding." In a difficult situation, the pedagogue may also use the subject literature, ask for advice, consultations, workshops or training as part of psychological and pedagogical assistance provided to teachers in educational institutions (Journal of Laws, 2017, item 1591).

Developmental needs

The educational requirements are adapted to the individual developmental and educational needs as well as the psycho-physical abilities of the student. In this context, the term "need" should be interpreted as what is necessary to improve the functioning of a person or to ensure its well-being.

Developmental needs are related to the student's age, including the specificity of their development, resulting from disability, social maladjustment or the threat of social maladjustment. They can be internal and external, determined by individual, unique life experiences, universal developmental changes as well as the interaction of biological and social factors (Brzezińska, Jabłoński, Ziólkowska, 2014, p. 41). As the researchers point out (Jabłoński, 2009; Jabłoński, Wojciechowska, 2013), important developmental needs satisfied in a caring / educational institution are, for example, in pre-school children

the need to achieve their own goals without falling into conflicts with others – the institutional environment should support independent and in cooperation with others, solving conflicts by a child. In the school age, the need for social approval and the recognition of competences is important – for the child it is important to evaluate according to readable principles, non-discrimination, and clear feedback. In the period of growing up, the need for identity is important (determining yourself) – at school, the student should be able to play different roles, explore new fields, make various commitments. Theoretical discussions of child development issues can be found in many publications.

Educational needs

Educational needs are the conditions that must be ensured in order for a child to master specific competences and to meet educational requirements. Children and adolescents in special education require personalized didactic and educational methods, enabling the implementation of tasks despite deficits or limitations of perceptual-visual, perceptual-auditory, motor-locomotive, motor-manipulative and intellectual (see Brzezińska, Jabłoński, Ziółkowska, 2014, p. 47). Sometimes, additional specialist equipment and teaching aids are necessary. Students may need a supportive or alternative method of communication. Special educational needs may occur in the physical, didactic, social or related to the child's behaviour in the classroom. In the area of physical needs there may be problems in the perception of sensory impressions, difficulties in movement, lack of coordination, difficulties in undertaking physical activity requiring strength and endurance. In the area of didactic needs, the student's problem may be his weaker achievements in mastering program requirements. In the area of social needs, a child may have problems with establishing and maintaining relationships with adults and peers at school. In the area of needs related to classroom behaviour, the student's problems may be related to the difficulty in controlling his or her undesirable behaviour, disturbing the teaching/learning process of the teacher and other students (see Wiliński, 2005, p. 341).

Psychophysical possibilities

The student's psychophysical abilities are related to the properties of his psyche and organism, their mutual unity. The psychic sphere covers the individual's consciousness, its various mental functions (sensitivity, activity, cognition). Mental balance is what is colloquially called personality. Psychological orders can be innate and acquired, they develop under the influence of experiences or conditions (see Didier, 2002, p. 323; Sobol, 2003, p. 812). Two children

with the same type of disability and the same age can, for example, react differently to the nuisance of the actions taken, have different ability to concentrate, get tired faster or more slowly, adapt differently to the school environment, etc.

Appropriate methods and forms of work with the student

Indication in IPET of the appropriate methods and forms of work with the student means their detailed selection. As far as the methods of work are concerned, pedagogues have a wide range of possibilities – their use is evidenced by the fact that in individual educational and therapeutic programs there are usually meticulous methodical guidelines showing how the teacher intends to facilitate the implementation of individual educational requirements. The methods of work are extensively described in the didactics literature, including special didactics. There are many studies presenting work with students with a specific disability, at risk of social maladjustment or socially maladjusted (Głodkowska, 2017; Haring, Schiefelbusch, 1982; Olechowska, 2016). Favourable ways of dealing with a student are also indicated in the ruling on the need for special education. If, nevertheless, the teacher does not feel competent and prepared to work with a student who has such a decision, he/she can benefit from psychological and pedagogical help provided in an educational institution in the form of advice, consultation, workshops and training. Its aim is to support the teacher in solving educational and didactic problems and develop his professional skills, which in turn leads to an increase in the effectiveness of assistance provided to the juvenile. The kindergarten, school or institution director is responsible for organizing the help (Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 9 August 2017 on the principles of organization and providing psychological and pedagogical assistance in public kindergartens, schools and facilities. *Journal of Laws*, 2017, item 1591).

Teaching forms are ways to organize didactic work. They are divided according to various criteria – the teaching system, the selection of students, the didactic and educational work place, and the work time of students. By differentiating them, we create new didactic and educational situations conducive to the development of the student's personality, peer relations and intergroup relations are formed (see Kupisiewicz, Kupisiewicz, 2009; Okoń, 1998). Despite their abundance, teachers usually type in the IPET form of work (individual or collective – frontal). In the meantime, it is worth recalling that the description of forms of work can be richer, more suited. Individual and group work can take place under the guidance of a teacher or in his presence (it is then assumed that the pupils are more independent). In addition, the individual form may be individual, when the degree of difficulty of the task is adjusted to the capacity of the juvenile (Kupisiewicz, 2013). A form of group work can be work in diades or bands of various sizes (Brzezińska,

2008). Classes with the student are also carried out, for example, in the form of workshops, excursions, extra-curricular activities. Researchers also point to the special value of tutoring (Brzezińska, Appelt, 2013; and Sławińska, 2015). In the context of IPET, it is useful to distinguish such forms as: collaborative learning (peer cooperation), peer tutoring, parenting, teaching (Schaffer, 2009) and others.

Summary

The article contains information that broadens the view on the content of the first IPET point. In view of the many widespread models of an individual educational and therapeutic program, one should be guided primarily by the indications of educational law. It must be remembered that the diagnosis of functioning is not part of IPET. It would be advisable to collect diagnostic information in the student file, but in a separate workbook. No less important is the correct interpretation of each of the eight parts of IPET. It would be desirable that the program extracts the most important but non-vague information.

Bibliography

- Brzezińska, A.I. (2008). Nauczyciel jako organizator społecznego środowiska uczenia się. In: E. Filipiak (Ed.), *Rozwijanie zdolności uczenia się. Wybrane konteksty i problemy* (pp. 35–50). Bydgoszcz: Wydawnictwo UKW.
- Brzezińska, A.I., Appelt, K. (2013). Tutoring nauczycielski – tutoring rówieśniczy: aspekty etyczne. *Forum Oświatowe*, 2, 13–29.
- Brzezińska, A.I., Jabłoński, S., Ziółkowska, B. (2014). Specyficzne i specjalne potrzeby edukacyjne. *Edukacja*, 2(127), 37–52.
- Didier, J. (2002). *Słownik filozofii*. Transl. K. Jarosz. Katowice: Wydawnictwo „Książnica”.
- Głodkowska, J. (Ed.). (2017). *Dydaktyka specjalna. Od systematyki do projektowania dydaktyk specjalistycznych*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Haring, N.G., Schiefelbusch, R. (Eds.). (1982). *Nauczanie specjalne*. Warszawa: PWN.
- Jabłoński, S. (2009). Źródła hierarchii potrzeb w świetle koncepcji rozwoju człowieka. In: B. Ziółkowska (Ed.), *Opętanie (nie)jedzeniem* (pp. 75–89). Seria *Zastosowania psychologii*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe Scholar.
- Jabłoński, S., Wojciechowska, J. (2013). Wizja szkoły XXI wieku: kluczowe kompetencje nauczyciela a nowa funkcja edukacji. *Studia Edukacyjne*, 27, 43–63.
- Kupisiewicz, C., Kupisiewicz, M. (2009). *Słownik pedagogiczny*. Warszawa: WN PWN.
- Kupisiewicz, M. (2013). *Słownik pedagogiki specjalnej*. Warszawa: WN PWN.
- Okoń, W. (1998). *Nowy słownik pedagogiczny*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Akademickie „Żak”.
- Olechowska, A. (2016). *Specjalne potrzeby edukacyjne*. Warszawa: WN PWN.
- Schaffer, H.R. (2009). *Psychologia dziecka*. Warszawa: WN PWN.
- Sławińska, M. (2015). Tutoring rówieśniczy w edukacji, czyli jak uczniowie uczą się od siebie wzajemnie i co z tego wynika. *Forum Oświatowe*, 27(2), 41–56.

- Sobol, E. (Ed.). (2003). *Nowy słownik języka polskiego*. Warszawa: WN PWN.
- Wiliński, P. (2005). *Wiek szkolny. Jak rozpoznać ryzyko i jak pomagać?* In: A.I. Brzezińska (Ed.), *Psychologiczne portrety człowieka*. Gdańsk: GWP.

Akty prawne

- Ustawa z dnia 14 grudnia 2016 r. Prawo oświatowe*. Dz.U. 2017, poz. 59.
- Ustawa z dnia 7 września 1991 r. o systemie oświaty*. Dz.U. 2016, poz. 1943, z późn. zm.
- Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 25 sierpnia 2017 r. w sprawie sposobu prowadzenia przez publiczne przedszkola, szkoły i placówki dokumentacji przebiegu nauczania, działalności wychowawczej i opiekuńczej oraz rodzajów tej dokumentacji*. Dz.U. 2017, poz. 1646.
- Rozporządzeniu Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 9 sierpnia 2017 r. w sprawie warunków organizowania kształcenia, wychowania i opieki dla dzieci i młodzieży niepełnosprawnych, niedostosowanych społecznie i zagrożonych niedostosowaniem społecznym*. Dz.U. 2017, poz. 1578.
- Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 9 sierpnia 2017 r. w sprawie zasad organizacji i udzielania pomocy psychologiczno-pedagogicznej w publicznych przedszkolach, szkołach i placówkach*. Dz.U. 2017, poz. 1591.
- Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 14 lutego 2017 r. w sprawie podstawy programowej wychowania przedszkolnego oraz podstawy programowej kształcenia ogólnego dla szkoły podstawowej, w tym dla uczniów z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną w stopniu umiarkowanym lub znacznym, kształcenia ogólnego dla branżowej szkoły I stopnia, kształcenia ogólnego dla szkoły specjalnej przysposabiającej do pracy oraz kształcenia ogólnego dla szkoły policealnej*. Dz.U. 2017, poz. 356.