



Edited by

Beata Szluz, Tatiana Matulayová, Ilona Pešatová

CROSS-SECTORAL COOPERATION IN ORDER TO SOLVE SOCIAL PROBLEMS



Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Rzeszowskiego

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Prof. PhDr. ANNA TOKÁROVÁ, CSc.

Vel'ki tvoria vel'ké veci, dobrí trvácne
Great people create great things, good people create permanent things
Wielcy tworzą wielkie rzeczy, dobrzy trwałe

Marie von Ebner-Eschenbach

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INTRODUCTION

In the countries of the European Union, the idea of partnership has a strong relationship with modernising the traditional models of social policy (Książopolski 1999). A shifting of the traditional model of the *welfare state* in the direction of a *welfare society* is taking place. An important aspect, therefore, is the socialisation and enlargement of the range of shared responsibility of particular individuals, their families and the local community, to ensure dignified living conditions and social cohesion.

The cooperation of representatives from the various sectors of social and economic life, defined as cross-sectoral partnership, is becoming more and more popular. The initiators of such partnerships are public institutions, NGOs, and businesses that operate at the local, regional, as well as national levels. J. Wygnański emphasised that: *The principle of partnership has, from the axiological and political aspect, another much more crucial (and specifically European) root, namely the principle of subsidiarity. This principle has a long-standing European tradition. (...) The principle of subsidiarity denotes the specific “division of labour” between particular communities. It means, that whenever a smaller (more local or generally speaking, grassroots) community is capable of solving a given problem, the community (institution) located “higher” in the hierarchy can and should support that community in its efforts, but it should not, through its own actions, encroach on its territory and thereby (at least indirectly) incapacitate its citizens* (Wygnański 2012: 9). Activating cooperation of the greatest number of diverse entities possible creates an opportunity for the permanent realisation of certain public purposes, among which social integration should be primarily mentioned.

The international debate on the topic of cross-sectoral partnerships in terms of solving social problems, allowed for the preparation of a monograph, containing the results of research, analysis, and proposals posed by researchers representing several countries: the Czech Republic and Slovakia, Ukraine, Kazakhstan, as well as Poland.

Šarka Ulčáková joined the discussion concerning understanding the concept of social entrepreneurship in the context of its development in European countries within the past few decades. **Beata Szluz** has addressed the topic of partnership for combating social exclusion, using the example of social cooperatives operating in the Subcarpathian Voivodeship, which are

a specific form of social enterprise. Working in a cooperative creates an opportunity for social integration and raising the professional skills of individuals at risk of social exclusion due to unemployment, disability or mental illness, those having problems finding a job, as well as social integration.

Katarzyna Błaszczuk revealed good practices which oppose exclusion through the example of entities engaged in social economy activities in the Subcarpathian Voivodeship. Next, **Piotr Frączek** and **Sylvia Drozd** presented the operation of the Centre for Social Integration in Sanok (Subcarpathian Voivodeship), as an example of initiatives aimed at social reintegration.

Ester Denihelková noted that the priority of the social economy is the employment of individuals who are socially excluded or those at risk of social exclusion. Chronic unemployment and the need to reduce the national budget deficit are factors that cause difficulties in the fields of social policy and social work. She posed the question, to what extent can the social economy help to solve these problems? The aim of her the article is to present the current state of both the Czech social economy and Czech social enterprises. **Vendula Gojová** emphasised interaction in the context of interdisciplinary social work and social entrepreneurship, which could support the capacity of civil society. She attempted to answer the question of whether social assistance can use the ideas of social entrepreneurship.

Polish accession to the European Union has created new opportunities for economic and social development – stressed **Paweł Walawender**. Cross-sectoral cooperation takes place in different areas and is also realised by the actions undertaken within the framework of projects financed through European Union Funds. Creating a partnership is a difficult task, as it requires close cooperation with representatives of organisations whose priorities, objectives and methods of operation may vary considerably. The article introduces the concept of cross-sectoral partnerships based on the author's experience with projects implemented in the Subcarpathian Voivodeship, the aim of which was to assist individuals at risk of social exclusion. Cultural anthropology and its practical dimension in projects which include cross-sectoral partnership, constitutes the focus of considerations by Mateusz Sikora.

Tatiana Matulayová, **Ilona Pešatová**, and **Zdeňka Michalová** took up a discussion on the issues connected with the possibilities of the development of social work in schools. **Maria Shved** drew attention to trends in the development of higher education and the growing demands in the preparation of social pedagogues (and social workers). She presented the functioning of graduates in the labour market, referring to their professional competence in light of the analysis conducted by American, German and Ukrainian scientists.

Monika Łagowska-Cebula dealt with the subject of the situation of graduates in the labour market and partnership for solving their problems. According to the author, the completion of education and then entering the labour market is a key step in the life of every young person. Cooperation between the various entities seems to be the key in the context of tackling the issue of unemployment among graduates. Then, **Dana Rosová** presented the results of research on the meaning of life for the unemployed. She attempted to gather recommendations for social work, bearing in mind that more attention should be paid to the long-term unemployed, in order to encourage them to again take up employment.

Jitka Reissmannová presented innovations in the field of education aimed toward the prosocial development of students. She put emphasis on activities connected with education and first aid, and now also for instance, in the prevention of ageing. **Marie Chrásková** presented the perception of health problems in the community, taking into account the views of Czech and Polish students, and drawing attention to the activities of voluntary work with respect to the sick and disabled. Next, **Małgorzata Stępa** commented on assistance to the terminally ill and the entities tasked with providing assistance to those individuals and their families. **Aleksandra Rachwał** illustrated institutional support for families caring for a sick person. She presented the issues of communication, cooperation, promotion and information. She emphasised the need for long-term support for the family of an individual with an oncological disease and (re)building trust toward aid institutions in public life.

Michaela Hřivnová and **Jana Majerová** stressed in their articles that within the framework of cooperation between educational institutions in the Czech Republic, optimal solutions in terms of hazardous or pathological behaviour are being sought. **Dana Rosová**, **Olga Orosová**, and **Eva Žiaková** presented the results of research into the meaning of life, self-esteem and the social support provided to homeless persons, as well as the degree of satisfaction with the social support provided by different entities. **Elżbieta Szczygieł** presented the results of research into the phenomenon of homelessness among children and adolescents. She made an attempt to portray the cooperation of entities in combatting this social problem.

Consideration was given by **Helena Kalábová** and **Jan Jihlavec** to the issue of the importance of family and the home. As the authors depict, the so-called eco-friendly way of life which is often discussed nowadays, can also refer to the family and interpersonal relationships. The cooperation of educational institutions and social institutions in solving the problems of the contemporary family became the focus of **Svitlana Kohut**. Then, **Magda Urban-**

ska outlined the topic of cross-sectoral cooperation in solving the problems of working parents.

Voluntary activity is the basis for the establishment and development of civil society. **Serhiy Troyan** and **Paweł Troyan** pointed out that in the last 10-15 years, the number of people participating (declaring their participation) in volunteerism in Ukraine has increased significantly, reflecting the increasing role and influence of the voluntary movement in the country. In Ukraine, volunteerism appeared in the early 1990s (in 1993). Its aim was to increase the participation of citizens in voluntary work, with a view to solving specific social problems.

Agnieszka Belcer and **Anna Wojnarowska** postulated development of partnerships and cooperation in order to oppose social exclusion. Partnerships are initiated by companies, NGOs, and public institutions operating at the local, regional, national or global level. Each party brings different experiences and skills, whereby cross-sectoral cooperation can become sustainable, efficient and effective.

The authors hope that the book will be of interest to sociologists, social workers, educators, as well as representatives of social services that are undertaking activities in terms of counteracting social problems.

Beata Szluz

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SOCIAL ENTREPRENEUR AND ITS CONNECTION TO THE MODERNISATION OF THE SOCIETY

INTRODUCTION

In this article, I would like to support a discussion about a deeper understanding of the concept of social entrepreneurship in the context of its development in European countries during the last few decades which is closely connected to the modernisation of society and some of its consequences. Therefore, I will first very briefly introduce the history of the concept and I will then focus on the modernisation of society and the changes it has brought to an individual, families, communities and the welfare state. I will argue that the concept of social entrepreneurship as it is being perceived and has been developing during the last decades might be connected to the modernisation of society in two possible ways which I would like to describe in this article.

HISTORY OF THE CONCEPT

Although the modern concept of social entrepreneurship has been developing during the last decades, the socio-economic way of thinking and solving problems has its origin in ancient times with the thoughts of Plato, Aristotle or Seneca. The beginning of social economy and the cooperative movement themselves is connected to the social philosophy which emerged in the 19th century. The basis of social entrepreneurship was created approximately 160 years ago and the cooperative in Rochdale (established in 1844) is considered to be the first social enterprise.

Since the 1990s the transformation of European welfare states has been ongoing. At this time the modern concept of social entrepreneurship has become a more and more frequently discussed topic in relation to increasing interest in unconventional business. In 1991, Italy introduced and passed Act No. 381/1991 which gives special legal status to social cooperatives. Gradually, new forms of social economy entities that are part of the third sector have been estab-

lished. There have also been changes inside some of the traditional social economy entities that had been established before (Dohnalová, Průša et al. 2011).

EMES (research network of established university research centres and individual researchers which was established in 1996) was the first organisation which explored new trends in the area of social economy and proposed a new definition of a third sector entity – the social enterprise (Dohnalová, Průša et al. 2011). However, “social entrepreneurship” as a term has actively been associated with social economy” after the year 2000 (Bednáriková, Francová 2011).

I argue that the modern concept of social entrepreneurship is connected to the modernisation of society as it is trying to face some of the social problems that are considered to be consequences of that modernisation, and as it is a concept, that it is reflecting some of the characteristics of this phenomenon as well. In the following text I will briefly introduce those characteristics and why I think that they are closely connected to social entrepreneurship.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MODERNISATION OF SOCIETY

The modernisation of society is a phenomenon that has brought changes to society, not only during the transition from traditional to modern society, but also after this transition, as an important factor for the development of modern society. In European countries modernisation is connected to the emergence of new or relatively new social problems. According to Giddens (2004), the process of modernisation should not be seen only in a negative way, but the fact is that it brings a whole new set of problems and situations that society has never experienced before or to such an extent. Some authors and sociologists are trying to define these problems and to describe the ongoing processes that are causing them.

Zygmunt Bauman (2002) focuses on the society of the liquid phase of modernisation, which, according to the author, occurred after the solid “Fordist” phase. The author describes the notion of modernisation as a process that is characterised by its compulsiveness, obsessiveness, instability, unstopplability and is devouring, ineradicable and has an unquenchable thirst for “creative destruction”. Bauman argues that the most significant characteristics of the modernisation of society are emancipation, individuality, changes in the perception of time and space, a different conception of work, and changes in the importance of the community.

Czech sociologist Jan Keller (2007) claims that the most important characteristics of modernisation of society are individualisation, the changing

nature of work, a higher level of generalisation of relationships, the functional differentiation of the society, the high level of rationalisation of the society and new social risks.

Ulrich Beck (2004) considers risk as the most important feature of modern society, and even speaks directly about a “risk society”. Among the other phenomena characteristic for modern society, which Beck is addressing, belongs individualisation, a change in the nature of work, changes in gender, the generalisation of science and politics, and the threat of terrorism.

Last but not least, Gøsta Esping-Andersen (2002) is an author who reflects demographical and social changes related to the modernisation of society, such as the changes in gender which are closely connected to changes in the perception and structure of families, changes in the labour market, the process of individualisation or an increasing occurrence and intensity of social risks.

The sociologists mentioned thus coincide on several concepts that are characteristic for contemporary society. These include individualisation, changing perceptions of the work, the new importance of risk and uncertainty. These processes led to new conditions for individuals, families, organisations and the state, leading to the transfer of wealth and risk (wealth is moving up, risks down) (Keller 2011), towards the mastery of all subsystems of society by the economy (Bauman 2002). In my opinion, the risks, individualisation and changing nature of work also represent the most important processes (connected to the modernisation of the society) that are relevant for the concept of social entrepreneurship, as this concept might be directly connected to modernisation itself. In order to develop this idea I will briefly introduce the processes and connections to the history and development of the concept of social entrepreneurship.

INDIVIDUALISATION

Individualisation can be described, for example, as a process of transformation *within modernism, in which people are freed from social forms of industrial society – which represent classes, social strata, gender status of men and women – like during the “reformation” were they freed from worldly dominion of the Church in society* (Beck 2004: 115). According to Bauman (2002), individualisation is a process in which human identity is being turned from something that had been “set” into a “task” in which the responsibility for reaching the goal of this task, and for the consequences of its fulfilment are shifted towards its actors. This author also argues that the individualisa-

tion stands for a freedom which however brings many risks as well. Ulrich Beck (2004) introduces seven theses about the individualisation and in one of them he points out a similar aspect of individualisation like I have mentioned above – an individual is more and more often blamed for social problems which were caused by the system and they are even forced to deal with those problems individually. Beck is among the authors who describe skills that are necessary for individuals to live in a risky modern society. According to him those are *the ability to anticipate and endure dangers, to deal with them biographically and politically* (Beck 2004: 101).

Individualisation is one of the most significant characteristics of the modernisation of society that are reflected in the concept of social entrepreneurship and especially in work integration social enterprises or social firms whose main goal is to provide jobs to people who are disadvantaged in the labour market. In these organisations we can often identify an idea about the responsibility of an individual for their behaviour, their problems and the actual solving of those problems (although these are very often caused by the system and not by the individual and although the individual has only limited options to solve the problems on his own). Principles of individualisation are probably most reflected in solving unemployment through work rehabilitation which provides jobs only for a certain period of time. Here, an individual has an opportunity to level up his job competencies and increase his competitiveness in the labour market. However, in my opinion this is meaningful only in a case where the organisation also helps to access another job that would follow after the work rehabilitation (for example through cooperation with other employers from the market). Of course, social policy measures also play an important role. If the opportunities of the participation in the open labour market are low, the probability of integration into major society through work (*if we consider work as a means of integration into major society*) might be low as well.

CHANGES IN THE NATURE OF WORK

Changes in the nature of work represent an important characteristic of modernisation of society which has many consequences, especially due to the fact that work plays a significant role in the subsistence of every individual these days. Work is the central concept of every man's life since his childhood until his old age and it serves to measure someone's abilities, economic and social status. However, as Beck (2004) points out, work has lost its former security and protection functions in modern society. The idea of a "uni-

fied form of lifetime day job" is no longer accepted in this society and flexibilisation of three supporting pillars of labour – the labour law, workplace and working hours – has been an ongoing process during the last decades. According to Bauman (2002), the flexibilisation of work has an influence on the types of employment that are being preferred the most often, such as employment without any signed contract or employment with only short-term or open contracts.

The criteria that an individual must meet in order to integrate into the labour market have been changing as well. In connection to those changes, Ulrich Beck (2004) reflects an increasing dependence on education. This has led to the creation of new internal differentiation and social hierarchy. Since the 1980s, however, a situation occurs where education and diplomas are requested, although they do not ensure a position in the labour market. In the foreground are other characteristics that an individual must possess to be able to ensure their material existence (such as behaviour, connections, communication skills, etc.). A higher level of education thus becomes a prerequisite for an individual to even get a chance to apply for a position in the labour market, even though there is no guarantee that they will succeed.

In my opinion, changes in the nature of work are significantly reflected in social enterprises providing work rehabilitation or jobs for people who are disadvantaged in the labour market. The concept of social entrepreneurship itself reacts on increasing unemployment, on the demand for a higher level of education and job competencies, especially by the creation of jobs for people who are disadvantaged in the labour market or by providing work rehabilitation (whose goal is to improve education, work competencies and the competitiveness of an individual in the open labour market).

Changes in the nature of work are closely related to the increasing role of risks in today's society. According to Esping-Andersen *groups that once could count on security, like the standard manufacturing worker, now face major job risks. Similarly, young families with children are increasingly vulnerable* (Esping-Andersen 2002: 8). However, the same author also points out that new social risks affect not only those groups mentioned, but a large part of society.

RISKS

As I have mentioned above, risks play an important role in postindustrial society. Jan Keller (2011) focuses on social risks that threaten a large part of the population, especially the middle class, and that consist not only of the "classic" social risks (such as poverty or social vulnerability), but also of those

which Keller calls the "new" social risks (for example an increasing occurrence of unpredictability or the absence of efficient insurance). The "classic" social risks were primarily associated with the fact that some people could not find work and thus could not participate in insurance systems. These risks had a relatively fixed position within the framework of social stratification. New social risks cause a situation where, due to the failure of the insurance systems of a welfare state and due to the changes in the labour market, many people are not able to insure themselves with private agencies. Unlike the old social risks that were linked to relatively permanent positions in the framework of social stratification, the *new social risks may affect members of different social classes in specific stages of their lives* (Keller 2011: 42).

Also Ulrich Beck (2004) claims that risk represents a very important characteristic of modern society. Although it is not a new phenomenon, the difference between risks in traditional and modern society lies in its extent, because those that appear in today's society have a global character and modern causes. Beck not only defines risks associated with situations of social threat (under which today are not only people from the poorer classes, but also rich and powerful ones) but another five theses concerning the areas in which risks are present as well, such as the market where risks are more and more frequently present and exploited. However, the author points out that threats in the market are not only perceived as threats, but as market opportunities as well.

Social entrepreneurship as a concept is closely related to the idea of risk. Social enterprises must conduct market risks which might be even more striking than in the case of regular for-profit entrepreneurship (especially because of the special conditions of the employment of people who are disadvantaged in the labour market). Those risks might be partly compensated by some public resources that are not accessible (or not to such an extent) to "regular" for-profit business. However, this makes social enterprises in a way of vulnerable, just as any other organisation in the social sphere that is dependent (or partly dependent) on the support of the welfare state at a time when the European welfare state is experiencing its crisis. For example, the existence of organisations providing social services operating on other than purely market principles might be endangered because some of those services might be considered as "insufficiently competitive" on the market (Vanický, Truhlářová 2008). However, in my opinion here lies the potential for social entrepreneurship as it applies the economic paradigm to a certain degree (and so it is not strictly opposing neoliberal thoughts of competitiveness, effectiveness, efficiency etc.) and because it might represent a space where social and economic goals together play the role of "coworkers" and not "competitors".

I argue that social entrepreneurship might also contribute to an attempt to reduce some of the negative consequences of the modernisation of society. Social entrepreneurship is trying to cope with increasing inequalities and the number of people threatened by poverty and exclusion by activities aimed at the social integration of those people, by integration of excluded localities or communities and by the suppression of various forms of discrimination. Work integration social enterprises or social firms promote the idea that the integration of an individual can be achieved through employment, which corresponds to the significant importance of work within the human life cycle. However, as I have already mentioned, if social enterprise does not provide long-term jobs (and only focuses for example on work rehabilitation), it should help to ensure that the employee will have an opportunity to get another job (for example at a partner organization) after the end of the current contract. Policy measures should support the creation of new jobs and the effort of social enterprises to ensure the subsequent employment of their employees (after the end of the current contract).

In postindustrial society, bonds of primary sociability (relationships with relatives, friends etc.) have been weakened, together with the increasing instability of families in general (Keller 2007). Social entrepreneurship might help people to strengthen these bonds. For example, social enterprises that provide jobs to those who are disadvantaged in the labour market usually also provide psychosocial support to them which might be focused not only on the problems connected to employment but on solving personal problems as well. This support, together with the provision of a job itself, might help employees improve their relationships with family members or friends (and other people from their surroundings) to solve some of their personal problems or to fulfill their needs.

The development of European societies and welfare states in the last decades is closely related to the increasing inability to meet the demand for social services, help and support in certain areas. Social entrepreneurship might play an important role since it is located on the border between the non-profit and private for-profit sector and since it is able to meet some of the needs of individuals, communities and welfare states and to provide the demanded services or products. In this society, where the economy has a strong influence on every subsystem, the ability to partly (and in few cases completely) produce capital, that is needed for the development or maintaining of some of the activities of an social enterprise connected to its social objectives, is highly appreciated (and in recent years also supported by a number of measures).

To summarise, I claim that social entrepreneurship as a concept that has been developing during the last decades is connected to the modernisation of the society and this connection might be perceived in two possible ways. The first one sees social entrepreneurship as a concept that is supposed to reduce some of the negative consequences of the modernisation of society, and the second one sees it as a concept that is reflecting some of the characteristics of modernisation such as individualisation, increasing the importance of risks, changes in the nature of work (but also other characteristics – for example increasing the tendency to rationalise the social sphere, the dissemination of economics as a paradigm, the colonisation of public space, etc.). Social entrepreneurship represents any idea that is trying to combine social and economic principles and objectives together in order to face new challenges that have emerged. However, it is important to remember that in the practice of social entrepreneurship these two seemingly incompatible areas must always be equally balanced, otherwise it would not follow the principles and main idea of the concept anymore and would tend to become just a “regular business” or a “regular nonprofit (or rather “not-for-profit”) activity”. In my opinion, to achieve this balance it is important to realise the context of the development of this concept and all the consequences it has for the practice of social enterprises and for the people from target groups which those organisations are focused on. If so, social entrepreneurship might help individuals, families and communities to face some of the problems which cannot probably be completely eliminated, but which we can try to at least reduce.

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Summary

In this article, I would like to support a discussion about a deeper understanding of the concept of social entrepreneurship in the context of its development in European countries during the last few decades which is closely connected to the modernisation of society and some of its consequences. Therefore, I will first very briefly introduce the history of the concept and I will then focus on the modernisation of society and the changes it has brought to an individual, families, communities and the welfare state. I will argue that the concept of social entrepreneurship as it is being perceived and has been developing during the last decades might be connected to the modernisation of society in two possible ways which I would like to describe in this article.

Key words: social entrepreneurship, modernization of society, changes

PARTNERSHIP FOR COMBATING SOCIAL EXCLUSION, ON THE EXAMPLE, THE SUBCARPATHIAN SOCIAL COOPERATIVE

INTRODUCTION

Social exclusion is associated with situations, in which an individual cannot normally participate in the activities of citizens in a given society. It is essential to note that such a restriction is not due to internal beliefs, but is beyond the control of that person. Societal exclusion is a multidimensional phenomenon, meaning, that a person cannot participate in political, economic and cultural life as a result of a lack of access to resources, goods and institutions, as well as restrictions of social rights or a deprivation of needs. The groups or social categories in which individuals are most vulnerable to exclusion are: the disabled, the mentally ill, addicts, the long-term unemployed, individuals with low professional skills, those released from correctional facilities, single mothers raising children, victims from pathological families, children and youth from neglected environments or raised outside of the family, the elderly, the homeless, immigrants, and members of ethnic minorities. The cause or effect of social exclusion is poverty. A combination of several of these noted problems increases the risk of experiencing exclusion.

In the field of social assistance, the problems which an individual and their family experience are the stimuli or task for action to be taken. J. Wygnański stated that, with respect to clients, they are: (...) *often those for which the existing instruments of social assistance or labour offices do not work. For many, it is not assistance, just control, and they do everything to dodge it. Some have limited their aspirations to the level of their existence, i.e. the necessity to earn money to purchase the cheapest alcohol. Can you reach such people with the tale of the fishing rod and fish? They are fixated on fish, not even salmon, but anything. They do not believe in a chance for independence, but they know how to navigate in the system of assistance offered by the state and non-governmental organizations, to receive something. Hence the need for new ideas for assistance – so that these people will be willing to help themselves. We are not the only one in Europe that has managed to create a welfare system perpetuated on passivity and exclusion, making it impossible*

for the welfare state to bear (Mateja 2008). The cited formulation indicates that long-term use of benefits generates the formation of a dependency on assistance. Effective social assistance should therefore be orientated towards activating, and cannot be deactivating and overwhelming.

In the context of the aforementioned social exclusion, social enterprises which perform different functions have important tasks to fulfill. Social economy or social entrepreneurship are terms referring to social economy, combining both social and economic objectives. Competences mentioned in the catalogue of social enterprise: social integration and activity in the labour market, provision of public services: social (educational, custodial care, in the field of healthcare) and technical (of a reciprocal nature, in the open labour market, the supply of public goods and the development of local communities, and business and production activities) (*Co to jest ekonomia społeczna?*; Szluz 2010: 257-273). A specific form of social enterprise is a social cooperative which is mainly made up of individuals at risk of social exclusion due to unemployment, a disability or mental illness, or having trouble finding work. Activity and work in social cooperatives gives them a chance of social and professional activation, integration, as well as upgrading their skills. Unlike other social economy entities, the social cooperative requires a high degree of independence and responsibility from its members. A collegial method of decision making applies. Members of the cooperative are entirely responsible for the cooperative's affairs, and learn independence and long-term planning. They care about the financial aspects, manage their own business, and set the direction of development.

The cited issues have become the impetus for undertaking analysis and considerations, whose aim is to demonstrate cooperation for combating social exclusion. The Subcarpathian social cooperatives have become very good examples, which arose as a result of actions taken within the scope of the partnership.

THE SOCIAL COOPERATIVE AS AN ENTITY OF SOCIAL ECONOMY

The social cooperative is a legal form of entity that combines the characteristics of an enterprise and NGOs. Its aim is to enable members, those particularly vulnerable to social exclusion, to return to social life and activity in the labour market. The entity operates business activities, although earning a profit is not in itself the goal, but a means of achieving statutory objectives. The cooperative can develop social and educational-cultural activities

for the benefit of its members and their local environment, as well as socially useful activity in the sphere of public duties, specified in the act on public benefit and volunteer activities (Act of 24 April 2003). In accordance with the provisions adopted in the legal regulations, social cooperative is working towards:

1. social reintegration for its members, which means taking initiatives with the aim of rebuilding and maintaining the skills for participating in local community life and performing social roles in the workplace, at home, or where one stays;
2. vocational reintegration of its members, which is connected with rebuilding and maintaining the ability to independently benefit from work in the labour market (Act of 27 April 2006: art. 2, pt. 2).

These actions listed by the legislator are not carried out within the course of social cooperative business activities.

The social cooperative can be established by a minimum of five individuals, who fulfill certain conditions, and being entirely capable of having full legal capacity and simultaneously falling under at least one of these categories: unemployed individuals within the meaning of the act on promoting employment and labour market institutions (Act of 20 April 2004: art. 1) and individuals, who are referred to in the act on social employment (Act of 13 June 2003: art. 1, pt. 2), among which is included:

3. the homeless who implement an individual plan for exiting homelessness, as defined in the regulations on social assistance;
4. those addicted to alcohol, after completing a psychotherapy program in a substance abuse treatment facility;
5. those addicted to narcotics or other drugs, after completing a therapy program at a healthcare facility;
6. the mentally sick, as defined in the regulations on mental health protection;
7. the long-term unemployed as defined in the regulations on promoting employment and labour market institutions;
8. those released from correctional facilities, and having trouble integrating into society, as defined in the regulations on social assistance;
9. refugees who implement an individual integration program, as defined in the regulations on social assistance;
10. disabled individuals, as defined in the regulations on occupational and social rehabilitation and the employment of disabled individuals, who are subject to social exclusion and, as a result of their life situation, are not able to fulfill their own basic living needs and find themselves in a situation which results in poverty and prevents or limits participation in vocational, social, and family life.

Other categories of individuals that are able to form a membership base are also identified: private citizens authorized to establish a social cooperative with limited legal capacity; other individuals who possess specific qualifications (if their number does not exceed 50% of the total number of members of the social cooperative); non-governmental organisations; religious juridical person; local government entities; individuals employed for twelve months by juridical persons – founders of the cooperative (Act of 20 April 2004: art. 2, sect. 1, pt. 2). The founders of the cooperative may: receive a one-time grant from the Labour Fund for the creation of cooperatives, enjoy benefits from the State Fund for the Rehabilitation of Disabled Persons, the European Social Fund, as well as apply to the County Authority for a refund of contributions for social insurance (in the context of a formula for supported employment). Social cooperatives also benefit from tax and court fee exemptions. The most important organ of the cooperative is the general assembly which appoints the Board, approves the annual report, and grants acknowledgement of the fulfillment of duties of the said board. The resolutions of the General Assembly shall be adopted by way of a vote. If the entity gathers more than 15 people, it must appoint a supervisory board, which will serve as a control mechanism. The cooperative may create foundations, companies, as well as join a corporate and worker's cooperative and cooperative associations. It has the ability, as a supporting member, to join NGO trade associations (federation). Social cooperatives may operate public benefit activities while at the same time benefit from public funds. They cannot however, obtain public benefit organisation status and take advantage of the 1% tax, donated by taxpayers. The assets of the cooperative remain the property of the cooperative members. The act explicitly indicates, for what purposes the allocated balance sheet surplus may be intended (increasing current reserves – at least 40%; objectives of social and vocational reintegration of the cooperative members, social and educational-cultural activities as well as socially useful activities – at least 40 %; and the remaining funds – for an investment fund) (Act of 27 April 2006). It cannot be distributed among the members of a social cooperative; it cannot be used to increase an equity fund or allocated on the interest from shares.

A legal basis was introduced in Poland, which enabled the creation and functioning of social enterprise; it provided the basis, which resulted in the dynamic development of these entities. In 2012, 447 cooperatives were registered in the country, which were mainly set up by unemployed individuals (83%), as well as the disabled (38%). Authorised people, representatives of i.e. former prisoners, addicts, and refugees were not among them. There were predominately small cooperatives, numbering from five to nine members,

and only 10% of the entities had more members. Services such as cleaning activities, home and garden maintenance, construction and repair services, and catering dominated in their activities. Cooperatives had problems securing orders from both private, as well as public entities; as well as experienced both a lack of support from local self-government authorities, and financial problems (*Prawie 500 spółdzielni socjalnych. Jak sobie radzą?* 2012). Data regarding the number of social cooperatives was based on the 2009 National Court Register catalogue, and therefore cannot unequivocally state whether the stated parties were still operating, as some could, within the context of difficulties that emerged, terminate their functioning. Therefore, it seems important, to portray examples of good practice in the creation and continuation of cooperative activities, meaning their survival in the market.

INTERSECTORAL PARTNERSHIP FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT AND FUNCTIONING OF A SOCIAL COOPERATIVE BASED ON THE SUBCARPATHIAN EXAMPLE

In 2009, the Social Economy Centre in the Rzeszow Regional Development Agency was opened, whose main task is to support and promote social economy entities in the territory of the Subcarpathian voivodeship. The 'Subcarpathian social cooperatives' project was implemented within the scope of the said agency, and whose goal was to provide financial support, training and consulting for individuals who intended to establish a social cooperative and support already functioning existing entities¹. The beneficiaries of the project were 200 individuals, including 120 individuals who were experiencing social exclusion, 60% were women (93 individuals received a financial support in the form of a one-time grant in the amount of 20 thousand zloty, as well as comprehensive consultative-training support; individuals receiving grants benefitted from interim aid of 1300 zloty per month for the first 6 months of the operation of the cooperative, which could be extended for a further six months in justified cases) (Rzeszow Regional Development

¹ The Operational Human Capital Programme (OHCP), co-financed by the European Social Fund (contract number: UDA-POKL.07.02.02-18-040/10-00), under Priority VII: *Promoting social integration – the number and name of the activity: 7.2. Combating exclusion and strengthening the social economy sector*, the number and name of the sub-activity: 7.2.2 *Supporting the social economy – the implemented project Subcarpathian social cooperative*. The application was filed at the Voivodeship Labour Office in Rzeszów (competition number 10/POKL/7.2.2/2010). The term of the project is scheduled for the period 1.03.2011 to 31.12.2013. The area of the project was the Subcarpathian Voivodeship, with the designer being the Rzeszow Regional Development Agency S.A.

Agency). The support received accounted for the impetus and allowed for taking up activity to create and develop within the social cooperative.

Many activities at several levels were undertaken with the aim of carrying out promotional-informational campaigns, among them: media promotion on regional media (television and radio); designed posters and leaflets, which were distributed in cooperation with, for example, the county labor office, the city social assistance centre, the community social assistance centre, etc.; promotion of this project was carried out on public and inter-city transportation; 15 information sessions were organised to address private citizens in the Subcarpathian Voivodeship with the participation of representatives from: the three aforementioned entities and the local self-government authority, non-governmental organizations, the county family assistance centre, and the correctional facility. Conferences at which beneficiaries also attended were held in connection with the start and end of the project. As part of the project, external training workshops (6 days) were held concerning the establishment and operation of cooperatives, during which the following took place: integrative-motivation workshops; training on the topic of social economy specifics, within the context of social cooperatives, and involving the aspect of the creation and operation of co-operatives; training which included the practical aspects for the functioning of these entities and associated barriers and risks; as well as creating proposals, which are the basis for applying for financial support, financial management and the basics regarding management and marketing. Groups and individuals who are establishing an entity had the opportunity to benefit from advice aimed at acquiring knowledge, which is necessary when establishing and implementing such a venture. The financial support provided became the basis for the creation of 15 new cooperatives, which received: interim aid of 1300 zloty per person for 75 members, who received the grant (contribution to the cooperative); guardian/mentor support for 1 month before establishing the entity and 6 months after establishment; training-advisory support: individual advice and counseling, workshops, practical training for the management team; as well as an extension of interim aid for 57 individuals (Rzeszow Regional Development Agency). 22 cooperatives took part in the project, besides those established, 7 existing entities took on new members. The partnership between the entities, for example the Rzeszow Regional Development Agency and cooperatives allowed for the appointment, as well as support during the establishment and functioning of the social enterprise. The idea behind the creation of social cooperatives was to create jobs, and activating individuals, instead of supporting them, as for example, with welfare.

In 2013, surveys were conducted in 15 up and running social cooperatives in the Subcarpathian territory, meaning interviewing respondents directly on the premises, also using a survey technique which diagnosed the condition of cooperatives, as well as a survey among the “leaders.” It can be certainly said that an important aspect is the mission of the analysed entities. Thus, in Table 1 the principles are illustrated, and the direction each of the social enterprises are taking.

Table 1. The mission of social cooperatives (15) formed as part of the “Subcarpathian social cooperative” project

No.	The mission of the social cooperative
1	assisting the elderly, lonely, abandoned, and disabled; concentrating on services that ensure maximum professionalism
2	making a good brand name for itself, professional catering services
3	assisting individuals who are facing social exclusion, mainly those with a moderate level of disability
4	assisting with exiting unemployment, a difficult financial situation
5	the mission of our cooperative is based on employment, we would like to expand, to assist the unemployed
6	assist unemployed individuals, those at the risk of social exclusion
7	“our dreams do not come true, it is we who fulfill our dreams”
8	assist chronically unemployed individuals, assist those wishing to establish a social cooperative
9	assist unemployed individuals
10	Restoration of agricultural lands, developing them
11	Make everyone feel valued, useful for what they do
12	Hold a job
13	Hold a job
14	Set a goal for oneself, to have a place of work, to better one’s financial situation
15	Ensure an economic minimum for members of the social cooperative, assist those individuals who are at risk for social exclusion

Source: Barwińska-Małałowicz 2013: p. 31.

The indications of the respondents were primarily directed at assisting individuals experiencing, and at risk of, social exclusion, for example the unemployed, the disabled, the elderly, the lonely (the unemployed and the disabled prevailed among the members of the surveyed cooperatives). Members therefore perceived their own problems, as well as other individuals, and

in the activities of the cooperative they saw the opportunity to resolve them and create their own personal development.

Members of the Subcarpathian cooperative pledged to cooperate with external entities, their indications are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Cooperation of the cooperative with external entities in the local and regional environment

External entity	1. no	2. yes	3. How many?*
Local enterprises (community/county)	10	5	3 (4) 1 (1)
Enterprises outside of the community and county, where the cooperative is located, and whose main headquarters are found in Subcarpathian voivodeship territory	11	4	5 (2) 10 (1) 4 (1)
Entities outside of the Subcarpathian voivodeship	13	2	7 (1) 2 (1)
Non-governmental non-profit organisations	12	3	1 (1) 2 (1) 5 (1)
Social cooperative	8	7	2 (2) 3 (1) 1 (3) 10 (1)
Local self-government authority	13	2	1 (2)
other (which?)	0	0	0

Explanation: * The numbers in the third column in the parentheses indicate – how many times cooperation with a given number of entities was declared?

Source: J. Piegza 2013: p. 110.

The data collected in Table 2 shows that the majority of entities cooperated with other social cooperatives (7), which allowed for the exchange of experience and the dissemination of good practice. There was also cooperation with the local enterprises functioning in the territory of the community or county, as well as other companies located in the Subcarpathian Voivodeship (4). One cooperative worked with 10 companies, and 7 declared cooperation, having a business type, with a minimum of 3 enterprises. Cooperatives were far less likely to cooperate with companies located outside of the community and county in which the cooperative is located, however having its main offices in the Subcarpathian voivodeship; and even more far less

likely to cooperate with enterprises located outside of the voivodeship. Only two cooperatives declared that there was cooperation with territorial local government authorities, in general ¼ of the total number of companies surveyed did not experience manifestations of a lack of goodwill on the part of local government. In the role of client, were also NGOs and local government. The partnership was based on, among other things, recommending and sharing information. Therefore the activity of the institutions supporting social economy in the field of creating social cooperatives was recognised, as well as the inspiring influence of the local community elite.

SUMMARY

The beginning of 2014 formally ended the period of implementation of the EU financial perspective for 2007-2013, within which many social economy entities received the resources to conduct business. There was an inability to satisfactorily shape the entire system in a manner which would allow for its operation after the end of financing from public coffers, which also included European funding. It was assumed that the new seven-year financial perspective (2014-2020) would create the basis for future social enterprise sector activities. The project partnership agreement (Portal Funduszy Europejskich), between the Polish government and the European Commission will allow the prediction that a greater pool of funds than which exists today will be disbursed by the various governments at the regional level. It is recognized that there is the need to prepare specialists in the field of social entrepreneurship who, through internships, will be orientated in the creation of activities in this field, and also stimulate the development of social economy entities, specifically at the level of individual regions, on the basis of the underlined cooperation.

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Summary

A specific form of social enterprise is a social cooperative, which is mainly made up of individuals at risk of social exclusion due to unemployment, a disability or mental illness, or having trouble finding work. Activity and work in social cooperatives gives them a chance of social and professional activation, integration, as well as upgrading their skills. Unlike other social economy entities, the social cooperative requires a high degree of independence and responsibility from its members. A collegial method of decision making applies. Members of the cooperative are entirely responsible for the cooperative's affairs, and learn independence and long-term planning. They care about the financial aspects, manage their own business, and set the direction of development. The cited issues have become the impetus for undertaking analysis and considerations, whose aim is to demonstrate cooperation for combating social exclusion. The Subcarpathian social cooperatives have become very good examples, which arose as a result of actions taken within the scope of the partnership.

Key words: social cooperative, partnership, social exclusion

GOOD PRACTICES AGAINST EXCLUSION. AN EXAMPLE OF SOCIAL ECONOMY IN PODKARPACKIE VOIVODESHIP

INTRODUCTION

Systemic transformation is an opportunity for the development of democracy. Changes occurring in the area of public life allow individuals and social groups to develop in an individual and sustainable way, as well as plan their own lives in both private and public space in line with their individual choices. However, difficult situations in the labour market and economic crises lead to the unemployment and impoverishment of households which results in the widening of financial and social gap between the well-educated and creative persons on one side, and those who are unable to adapt to the new reality for either personal or random reasons on the other. These are the individuals who have lost their jobs or social security, helpless in practical situations, inadequate, homeless, ill or disabled, the caregivers of ill or disabled family members, members of large and single-parent families, families suffering from alcoholism, and persons who have completed a prison sentence. The concept of social economy is one of the forms of actions aimed at the elimination of exclusion, as well as a method of solving the problems of persons/groups that have been excluded because of social maladjustment.

This study presents various forms of social activation aimed at improving the situation of people threatened with exclusion, on the basis of literature on the subject, internet sources, and an analysis of official documents made available by institutions acting in the area of supporting social economy in the region.

SOCIAL ECONOMY – THE MEANING AND DEFINITIONS OF THE TERM

Social economy puts social objectives first, before purely economic and profit-oriented ones. It also used to be determined as: a social business activity, social entrepreneurship (Komorska 2012), or the economy of soli-

parity (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy 2013) The 19th century has seen the establishment of the first farmers' co-operatives; whereas in the 1930s, during the period of the Great Depression, various other forms of enterprise have developed (Mike, Žbik 2010). The beginnings of the modern social economy, superior functions of which are the elimination of poverty and unemployment, can be found as early as the 1970s, especially in economically weaker regions.

The most valuable are initiatives undertaken for the liquidation of social problems in local environments, thanks to the knowledge of the hierarchy of problems and needs. These initiatives play an auxiliary role with respect to systemic solutions on the global level where the responsibility rests with the state. The activeness of residents in their local environment, involvement of legal persons, territorial self-government representatives, businessmen, and representatives of the third sector, when undertaking initiatives supporting the management of socio-economic change at the local and national level is beneficial to both individuals and groups threatened with social exclusion.

P. Sałustowicz identifies five functions of social economy from the perspective of:

- employment and the labour market (new job offers for marginalised persons);
- social policy (provision of social services for individuals and local communities);
- social integration (increasing social capital);
- democratisation process (involving individuals and groups in the process of making political decisions);
- social change (as a place for the creation of an alternative economic and social system) (Mike, Žbik 2010).

Social economy entities operate on a 'not-for-private-profit' basis. They may generate profit, but financial benefits are subjected to various restrictions, with the most important issue being the achievement of "certain social objectives for their members or for the wider spectrum of local communities, in environments within which they operate" (Grewiński 2007). This distinguishes them from the commercial and market-oriented entities driven by a maximisation of net profit. In literature on the subject, four areas of development of social economy are identified:

- social, democratic, and participating enterprise;
- employment and social cohesion;
- local development;
- mutual social protection (Grewiński 2007).

NATIONAL PROGRAM FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL ECONOMY

The Team for systemic solutions in the area of social economy, acting at the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, has developed a project entitled 'National Program for the Development of Social Economy' (*Krajowy Program Rozwoju Ekonomii Społecznej*, KPRES) published on 16 September 2013. The project comprises 6 chapters with a number of annexes and includes: diagnosis (social economy strategy, development status, and finance), KPRES objectives, result achievement indicators, and priorities (development supporting, regulative actions and the social economy supporting system, including the social economy in the main stream of public tasks on both national and regional level, KPRES implementation monitoring, basic assumptions of the implementation system, and financial plan) (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy 2013)¹.

The 1997 European Summit in Luxembourg initiated co-ordination of the employment policy at the European level. It was the first reference to social economy and *entered in the collection of main employment policy directions in its part devoted to »entrepreneurship«*. (...) *The social economy (...) becomes an acknowledged method of operation in the framework of the EQUAL 2000–2008 initiative and more generally, of the European Social Fund*. In 2003, the EU published a communication for European governments and institutions on the *promotion of co-operative movements in Europe*². In 2002, the 'First European Social Economy Conference in EU Candidate Countries' was organised in Prague. The circle of participants included representatives of the civic, co-operative, and public administration sector. Between 27–29 October 2004, the Second European Conference was held in Krakow with the participation of approximately one thousand representatives from 31 countries.

Important stages for implementation of the idea of social economy in Poland were various initiatives undertaken starting in 2004, among which one should count:

- Program of the EQUAL Community Initiative (from August 2004 to 2008), in the framework of which methodological assumptions have been

¹ Annexes to the document determined indicators and results to be achieved on the level of individual measures as well as and detailed terms and conditions for granting loans and bank guarantees in the framework of the national program for social economy development after 2014, *National Program for Development of Social Economy*.

² Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and International Labour Organisation (ILO) have recognised the social economy on the international level (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy 2013: 2)

worked out concerning the development of social economy and specific solutions supported by legislative measures at the state level);

- National Development Strategy (2007–2015);
- National Program for Social Security and Social Integration for the years 2007–2008;
- Civic Initiatives Fund (since 2004);
- Human Capital Operating Program (since July 2007) (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy 2013).

On 27 June 2008, at The Gdańsk Shipyard, the ‘Economy of Solidarity’ Social Economy Conference was held, its aim being the integration of domestic and foreign circles considering social economy as an important tool for solving social issues. The Social Economy Manifesto has been announced and a plan presented for supporting government actions undertaken in the area of social economy. One of the postulates states: *It is necessary to create a robust mechanism of communication and dialogue between the decision-making circles (representing both executive and legislative authorities) and the social economy environment. It would allow, following the example of other countries, to agree in Poland on a long-term strategy concerning actions towards the development of social economy as a part of a wider enterprise supporting the development of civic society. Such a strategy should be worked out in the framework of a partnership co-operation – between an inter-sectoral governmental team and social economy circles* (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy 2013: 2).

On 15 December 2008, on the basis of Ordinance No. 141 of the President of the Board of Ministers, the Team for systemic solutions in the area of social economy was appointed as a body whose main task was to work out a social economy development strategy. In March 2009, the Group for Strategic Affairs, chaired by Prof. Jerzy Hausner, started to work in co-operation with representatives of the government and the third sector. OECD experts have indicated that in Poland, *it is necessary to develop a national strategy aimed at overcoming the extreme fragmentation and complications of Poland’s political and administrative system, especially with respect to the issue of social economy. Such a strategy should have a multilevel and horizontal character. It should be worked out in close co-operation with representatives of voivodeships, counties, and communities, whereas in this context it is necessary to put special emphasis on the co-operation between county labour offices and social aid centres. To allow the social economy to contribute effectively to improving the living conditions of individuals and communities, it is necessary to include it into policies that concern health, social issues, education, natural environment, labour market strategy, development of enterprise, etc. Through ensuring*

full integration of social economy with these policies, it is possible to effectively use the potential contained in a social economy organisation. Thanks to increasing in local communities and making use of local resources, social economy may contribute to the better efficiency and effectiveness of the above-mentioned policies (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy 2013: 4).

Before the end of 2009, the Group for Strategic Affairs prepared a conception and draft version of the 'Pact for Social Economy in the Modernisation of the Polish Social Model 2030', approved by the Committee of the Board of Ministers in October 2009. However, the document has not been fully adopted as a result of a change in the strategic planning model in Poland, covering the national development strategy that has been presented by the Minister of Regional Development during a meeting of the Team held in January 2010. In view of the above, a decision has been made to start work on the document named 'Long-term Regional Development Policy.' The study has not been included in the package of strategic documents; instead, the issues of social economy, starting from the year 2010, became a subject of interest of 'The Efficient State Strategy', 'The Social Capital Development Strategy', 'The Economy Innovativeness and Effectiveness Strategy', 'The Human Capital Development Strategy', and 'The Strategy for Sustainable Development of Rural Areas, Agriculture, and Fishery'.

A team of experts (contracted by the Group for Strategic Affairs) has prepared a document entitled Assumptions for the Long-term Social Economy Development Policy'. On 6 October 2011, a meeting of the Team was held in which a new composition of the Group for Strategic Affairs was established. In the course of 12 meetings of the Group (from November 2011 to May 2012), consecutive elements of the project were prepared. Chapters concerning objectives and priorities of the program were prepared in April 2012 and presented in the course of conferences held in various regions. Objectives and priorities for the Podkarpackie Voivodeship were presented on 20 April 2012 at a conference held in Rzeszów under the name 'Social Economy in Podkarpackie Voivodeship – an opportunity or utopia?' (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy 2013: 5). Official presentation of the project occurred in the course of the '3rd All-Poland Fair of Active Aid Forms' in Byczyna (Opolskie Voivodeship) between 5–6 June 2012, with participation of the Minister of Labour and Social Policy. Interviews and articles concerning the new programming period were published on the web portals www.ekonomiaspoleczna.pl and www.ngo.pl in the period from March to May 2012. Then, in the period from 8 June to 28 September 2012, the project was put to public consultation. To get the wider public acquainted with the project, it has been posted on the websites www.ekonomiaspoleczna.pl and

www.pozytek.gov.pl as well as on several dozen regional and local internet portals together with an invitation to participate in discussion on the KPRES project addressed to self-governments, civic organisations, social economy entities, and entrepreneurs. The project was also presented to the assemblies of members of civic and self-government organisations, e.g. on 17 July 2012 in Rzeszów at the conference held in the framework of 'Co-operative Encounters with Social Economy in Podkarpacie'. In the period from 31 August to 28 September 2012, public consultations were held based on an internet questionnaire posted on the portal www.mamzdanie.org.pl.

On 8 October of that same year, a meeting of the Team for systemic solutions in the area of social economy and the KPRES was held where they together presented together the report on public consultation; whereas between 11–12 October 2012, the project was presented and brought up for discussion at the '6th All-Poland Social Economy Encounters' in Krakow. The Group for Strategic Affairs has held a total of 9 meetings (from 22 October 2012 to 27 June 2013). Finally, on 17 September 2013, the document was referred to the ministries for intra-government agreements and public consultations after unanimous acceptance by the Team for systemic solutions in the area of social economy and the top officers of the government's department of labour and social policy (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy 2013: 8).

REALISATION OF THE IDEA OF SOCIAL ECONOMY

Social economy is based on social enterprises, which are also known as social economy institutions or civic economy institutions (Grewiński 2007). Social enterprises are considered, on one hand, as a sub-group of a market-oriented social economy, and on the other, a new generation of non-profit organisations that "are driven in their activities by the spirit of entrepreneurship and classic solidarity with market orientation", as they make use of the work of volunteers and frequently do not generate any profit, this way making themselves similar to non-governmental organisations.

According to a stance of the European Standing Conference of Co-operatives, Mutual societies, Associations and Foundations expressed in 2002, *social economy organisations are those social and economic entities active in all sectors that stand out through their objectives and specific form of enterprise* (Grewiński 2007: 171). In view of extending the area of activity of the third sector with co-operatives and social enterprises, J. Wygański has proposed the adoption of the term 'third sector' that encompasses traditional non-governmental organisations together with entities representing both old and

new social economy. The concept of the third sector has been accepted in the framework of the monumental report prepared on the order of the European Commission by the Policy Research Institute in 1999 (Grewiński 2007).

According to the European Research Network EMES, a social enterprise *is a private autonomous organisation providing products or services for a wider community, for which the establishing or managing body is a group of citizens and in which the scope of material benefits is subjected to limitations. A social enterprise attaches a lot of weight to autonomy and readiness to taking economic risk related continuously with socio-economical activity* (Grewiński 2007: 172). EMES has formulated nine socio-economical criteria for an ideal social enterprise:

1. The business activity is carried out continuously and regularly based on economic instruments, i.e. sales of created goods or rendered services.
2. There is a high level of autonomy and independence with respect to public institutions.
3. There is an economic risk on the operations.
4. The enterprise employs a minimum number of permanently paid personnel.
5. There is an explicit aim of community benefit from the enterprise.
6. Grass-root, citizen-originated nature of the initiative.
7. A specific system of management, as democratic as possible.
8. Strongly participatory character of activities, based on the rule of empowerment, i.e. involving those to whom the activity is directed.
9. Limited distribution of profit (Grewiński 2007).

The definition of a social enterprise adopted in the United Kingdom reads: a business with primarily social objectives whose surpluses are principally reinvested for that purpose in a company or within a community, contrasted to the business activity carried out in order to maximise profits for shareholders or owners (Grewiński 2007: 173).

Social enterprises are characterised by: co-operative/mutuality-based and voluntary form of organisation, large number of stakeholders, usage of mixed resources, making use of social capital (strong bonds with the community and the users, involvement of employees). In the United Kingdom, it is assumed that social enterprises would generate about 50% of income, while in the development phase, 25% of income from unassisted market activity is allowed (Grewiński 2007).

Social economy is present in all European countries. The scope of activity carried out by social enterprises in selected European Union countries include:

- services offered to dependent and socially excluded individuals (taking care of infants; cèches; social apartments instead of traditional care/up -

bringing institutions for children and young people with difficulties; employing women on part-time basis for taking care of patients at their homes; rehabilitation and social integration of the mentally retarded; healthcare services and training, upbringing and rehabilitation of disabled children – Austria, France, Denmark, United Kingdom, Sweden, Italy, Portugal);

- restoring to employment through work (providing on-the-job training; inclusion in the labour market and actively restoring the social groups finding themselves in difficult situations; creating jobs and supporting economic development accompanied by an aspiration to the social and vocational integration of the long-term unemployed; re-employment through work and business activity in natural environment protection, agriculture, construction, and waste recycling; integration of people disabled or excluded from the traditional labour market through work; offering access to temporary employment to permanently unemployed individuals instead of the creation of supported employment jobs – Belgium, Italy, Germany, Luxembourg, Spain);
- local development (acting as subcontractors to other companies providing services corresponding to the skills of the co-operative members; offering the possibility to render paid work in the scope of the maintenance and repair of private apartments or common infrastructure or providing social services in a neighbourhood to residents who live in underprivileged quarters; providing accommodation, dining, and petty handicraft services by women from rural areas with a high tourist potential; business activity in the area of social housing construction; including employment; credit assistance – Finland, The Netherlands, Greece, Ireland) (Grewiński 2007).

In Poland, since 1997, on the basis of the Act on Vocational Rehabilitation and Employing the Disabled, Vocational Development Centres (*Zakłady Aktywności Zawodowej, ZAZ*) were created, whereas since passing the Act on Social Employment in 2003, Social Integration Centres (*Centra Integracji Społecznej, CIS*) and Social Integration Clubs (*Kluby Integracji Społecznej, KIS*) were also established. These were institutions acting in the area of the social and vocational re-integration of persons threatened with various forms of social exclusion who, through getting a job and vocational qualifications, could reappear in the labour market. The Act on Social Co-operatives of 2006 created a formal base for operation of social co-operatives. According to data available for the year 2006, Poland's social economy sector included:

- 58,000 associations and foundations;
- 5,500 economic self-government organisations;
- 12,800 co-operatives, of which 350 were established by disabled persons;

- 9 Mutual Insurance Societies;
- 880 other mutuality organisations;
- 45 social co-operatives;
- 35 Vocational Development Centres;
- 35 social integration centres; and
- 90 social integration clubs.

In total, the sector included about 75,000 entities embracing about 16–17 million members, and employing about 600,000 individuals. (Grewiński 2007) In the year 2006, the main areas of social activity carried out by co-operatives in Poland included: social services and social aid (20%); local development (16%); labour market (12%); employment and vocational activation (10%); education and upbringing (6.5%); culture and arts, sports, tourism, recreation, and hobbies, support for civic institutions and organisations (5.8%); healthcare (3%); natural environment protection (1.9%); vocational, trade, and worker's issues (1%), human rights and political activities (0.3%), and other activities (16%) (Grewiński 2007).

SOCIAL ENTERPRISE IN THE PODKARPACKIE VOIVODESHIP

The idea of social economy is realised in the region thanks to inter-sectoral co-operation in the area of employment promotion and the implementation of projects dealing with the social and vocational activation of school graduates, young people threatened with unemployment, the poorly educated, having qualifications inadequately adjusted to labour market needs, the long-term unemployed and people threatened with unemployment because of the loss of ability to work, liquidation of jobs and workplaces, the homeless, persons imprisoned and released from correctional facilities after serving their time, alcohol addicts, people raising ill and disabled children, impractical and inadequate people, the disabled, and people with mental disorders and illnesses.

The organisers of local development for social entrepreneurship are, *inter alia*: the Voivodeship Labour Office (*Wojewódzki Urząd Pracy*, WUP), the County Labour Office (*Powiatowy Urząd Pracy*, PUP), the Rzeszów Regional Development Agency (*Rzeszowska Agencja Rozwoju Regionalnego*, RARR), the Regional Centre for Social Policy (*Regionalny Ośrodek Polityki Społecznej*, ROPS), the Civic Academy Foundation (*Fundacja Akademia Obywatelska*, FAO), the State Fund for Rehabilitation of Handicapped People (*Państwowy Fundusz Rehabilitacji Osób Niepełnosprawnych*, PFRON), social assistance centres, Association B4, The St. Brother Albert Rzeszów Aid Association, the Regional Centre for Non-governmental Organisations (*Regionalne Centrum*

Organizacji Pozarządowych, RCOP), non-governmental foundations and organisations operating in the area of social aid, family assistance, care, education, culture, sports, and the protection of rights of people suffering from chronic diseases and disabilities. The above-listed institutions cooperate with local government bodies to acquire infrastructure as well as fixed and current assets from various national and international sources.

The list of entities representing the various forms of social enterprise in the Podkarpackie Voivodeship currently includes: 93 social cooperatives, 92 supported employment enterprises, 13 disabled workers co-operatives, 36 occupational therapy workshops, 8 vocational development centres, 10 social integration clubs, and 11 social integration centres. The list of the above-mentioned social enterprise forms broken down by quantity and location is presented in Table 1a (social co-operatives) and Table 1b (other forms).

Table 1a. Quantity and location of Podkarpackie social co-operatives

No.	Qty.	County	Registered seat
1	2	3	4
1	11	Rzeszowski Municipal	Rzeszów
2	11	Rzeszowski District	Kąkolówka, Zgłobień, Boguchwała (3), Niechobrz (2), Jasionka, Krasne, Trzebownisko, Sokołów Młp.
3	4	Stalowowolski	Stalowa Wola (3), Pysznica
4	3	Tarnobrzegi	Tarnobrzeg (2), Baranów Sandomierski
5	13	Przemyski	Przemysł (10), Rudawka, Duńkowiczki, Buszkowiczki
6	3	Kolbuszowski	Kolbuszowa (2), Górno
7	5	Miecki	Mielec (3), Wojków, Gawłuszowice
8	5	Leżajski	Leżajsk, Dębno, Nowa Sarzyna, Kuryłówka
9	6	Lubaczowski	Lubaczów (2), Cieszanów (2), Dąbków (2)
10	3	Jasielski	Jasło, Łubno Szlacheckie, Przysięki
11	2	Leski	Lesko
12	3	Miżański	Różniatów, Jeżowe, Zarzecze
13	6	Sanocki	Sanok, Besko, Nowosielce, Zarszyn, Poraż, Zagórz

1	2	3	4
14	3	Krośnieński	Krosno (2), Chorkówka
15	2	Strzyżowski	Strzyżów, Babica
16	1	Brzozowski	Wesoła
17	7	Jarosławski	Jarosław (3), Wólka Pełkińska, Laszki, Rokietnica, Duńkowice
18	2	Bieszczadzki	Ustrzyki Dolne
19	2	Dębicki	Dębica

Source: Ogólnopolski katalog spółdzielni socjalnych 2014: <http://www.spoldzielniesocjalne.org/podkarpackie.htm/09.05.2014>.

Table 1b. Other forms of social enterprise in Podkarpackie Voivodeship by quantity and location

No.	Entity form	Qty.	Powiat	Registered seat
1	2	3	4	5
1	Supported Employment Enterprises	29	Rzeszowski Municipal	Rzeszów
		5	Rzeszowski District	Głogów Młp., Rudna Mała, Zaczernie, Trzciana, Dynów
		13	Krośnieński	Krosno (11), Rymanów (2)
		2	Tarnobrzeski	Tarnobrzeg
		1	Przemyski	Przemysł
		2	Bieszczadzki	Ustrzyki Dolne
		9	Dębicki	Dębica
		1	Jarosławski	Jarosław
		7	Jasielski	Jaśło
		6	Kolbuszowski	Kolbuszowa, Przyłęk, Wi- dełka
		1	Lubaczowski	Lubaczów
		1	Łańcucki	Łańcut
		7	Mielecki	Mielec, Wadowice, Gawłu- szowice
		1	Niżański	Nisko
		2	Przemyski	Żurawica
		3	Przeworski	Przeworsk (2), Kańczuga
		1	Ropczycko-Sędziszowski	Ropczyce
		7	Sanocki	Sanok
		9	Stalowowski	Stalowa Wola
		10	Strzyżowski	Strzyżów (6), Czudec,
1	Tarnobrzeski	Frysztak (2), Pstrągowa Gorzyce		

1	2	3	4	5
2	Disabled Workers Cooperatives	3 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Rzeszowski Municipal Rzeszowski District Krośnieński Przemyski Jarosławski Łańcucki Tarnobrzegi Sanocki Stalowowolski Strzyżowski	Rzeszów Dynów Krosno Przemysł Jarosław Łańcut Nowa Dęba Sanok Stalowa Wola Strzyżów
3	Vocational Development Centres	1 2 1 1 1 1 1	Jarosławski Mieleski Leżajski Krośnieński Łańcucki Rzeszowski District Dębicki	Jarosław Chorzeliów, Malinie Nowa Sarzyna Rymanów Zdrój Wola Dalsza Wola Rafałowska Wola Żyrakowska
4	Social Integration Centres	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Rzeszowski Municipal Sanocki Lubaczowski Dębicki Kolbuszowski Przemyski Krośnieński Jarosławski Przeworski Mieleski Dębicki	Rzeszów Sanok Dąbrowa Dębica Kolbuszowa Przemysł Krosno Pawłosiów Lipnik Mielec Pilzno
5	Social Integration Clubs	1 1 1 1 1 1 2 1	Łańcucki Bieszczadzki Krośnieński Strzyżowski Mieleski Kolbuszowski Niżański Stalowowolski	Łańcut Ustrzyki Dolne Jedlicze Strzyżów Mielec Kolbuszowa Nisko Stalowa Wola
6	Occupational Therapy Workshops	2 3 1	Rzeszowski Municipal Stalowowolski Przeworski	Rzeszów Stalowa Wola Przeworsk

Source: Broszura informacyjna na temat ulg i uprawnień dla osób z niepełnosprawnością 2011.

One should also mention the so-called Local Community Self-Help Houses (*Środowiskowe Domy Samopomocy*, ŚDS), facilitating integration of and providing rehabilitation to persons with a mental disability (in Podkarpackie Voivodeship, 64 institutions of that type are currently operating). Although they are not directly involved in vocational activation projects, their charges participate in various projects falling within the category of social economy. On the basis of information obtained from the employees of ŚDS, some of the individuals participating in the projects receive qualifications allowing them to take up jobs in the open labour market³.

Examples of institutions and centres supporting social economy in Podkarpackie Voivodeship are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Institutions and centres supporting social economy in Podkarpackie Voivodeship

No.	Project name	Implementing period	Implementing entity	Target group	No. of group members
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	'Social Entrepreneur'	01.05.2011–28.02.2013	Wektor Consulting s.c. Mariusz Lipiński, Wiktor Cichoń	The unemployed: 50+, without a secondary education, disabled, single parents raising children up to 18 years of age; women who were unable to continue employment after giving birth to a child	96
2	'Social cooperative – an opportunity for the hearing-impaired'	01.06.2011–28.06.2013	Polish Association of the Deaf, Podkarpackie Division in Rzeszów	Unemployed natural persons disabled and hearing-impaired from Podkarpackie Voivodeship	24
3	'Social Cooperative Movement – Your Opportunity'	01.05.2011–31.12.2013	Podkarpacka Agencja Konsultingowo-Doradcza Sp. z o.o. [<i>Pod-</i>	The long-term unemployed, the disabled	n.a.

³ At ŚDS in Rzeszów, from among 8 persons participating in the CAL project implemented by the Association B4 in the year 2012, 3 persons have found jobs in the open labour market (2 females and 1 male – shop assistant, cleaning lady, security guard).

1	2	3	4	5	6
			<i>karpacka Consulting and Advisory Agency Ltd.</i>]		
4	'We Build Together'	01.05.2011–30.06.2013	'Initiatives of Podkarpackie' Association	The unemployed living in the area of Orly and Przemyśl Gminas, especially disabled and/or the chronically unemployed	50
5	'Social Cooperative – an Opportunity to Activate the Unemployed'	01.06.2011–31.12.2013	Gmina of Boguchwała	The unemployed, especially disabled and/or chronically unemployed	n.a.
6	'Podkarpackie Social Co-operatives'	01.03.2011–31.12.2013	RARR	see above	200
7	'Podkarpackie Voivodeship's ZAZ Incubator;	01.07.2011–31.12.2012	Polish Association for the Mentally Handicapped, Jarosław Circle	ZAZ employees from Podkarpackie Voivodeship	n.a.
8	'New Energy of Social Economy Entities in Podkarpackie'	01.05.2011–31.12.2013	Civic Academy Foundation	Non-governmental organisations	404*
9	'The Socially Active'	01.07.2011–31.12.2011	'Equal Opportunities' Association	Persons willing to establish a social cooperative	30
10	'Local Activeness Centre (CAL)'	01.02.2010–30.09.2011	Association B4**	Disabled persons	60
	'Social Service Cooperatives'	01.08.2012–30.04.2014		Unemployed persons	60
	'CAL – 2nd edition'	15.03.2013–31.07.2014		Disabled persons	18

1	2	3	4	5	6
11	'A New Opportunity for You'	2009–2013	Association CRAS***	Persons who have lost their jobs for reasons attributable to the workplace	92
	'It's Time for Changes'				70
	'Planning, Training, Experience – My Way to Employment' (2nd edition)			Young people up to 24 years of age, currently unemployed	60
	'Activeness without barriers'			Persons with a low or moderate degree of disability, currently unemployed	40

Source: Reports, <http://www.ekonomia.spoeczna.pl/x/485964/09.05.2014>.

SUMMARY

Social economy, by using stimulating programs and instruments involving different social groups, will not solve all the problems of social policy. Strengths and weaknesses of such programs are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Strengths and weaknesses of active social programs connected with the idea of social entrepreneurship, according to M. Rymza

Strengths	Weaknesses
Exceeding traditional ideological divisions into followers and opponents of the welfare state	The risk of creating unproductive jobs
Utilisation of the social and economical potential of the third sector	The phenomenon of stigmatisation and the related risk of counter-efficiency of activation programmes
Rejection of the de-motivating rule of decommodification, i.e. full dependence of the citizens' income situation on their activeness in the labour market	The risk of partial de-legitimisation of the social function of the state through the concept of an active social policy

Source: Grewiński, Kamiński 2007.

There is a risk of 'spoiling the market' by programs that do not increase the employment level while full-valued jobs can be replaced by subsidised ones. Some experts discern a difference between the concept of workfare adopted in the USA which creates favourable conditions for the development of social economy and the development of social employment in Europe where the instrument of activation is the institution of employing the aided individual instead of organising business incubators.

Participation in activating programs may lead to 'stigmatisation' of the beneficiaries manifesting in treating them differently in the open labour market and employing them exclusively for jobs subsidised from public funds and only in the periods when such subsidies or other bonuses are available. Also the phenomenon of 'ghettoisation' may appear in the form of a division into those employed in the free market with those in the protected labour market. Moreover, the costs related to activation programmes are disproportionately high compared to their effectiveness and efficiency. If, however, it turns out that social enterprises will catch on in Poland, it will be necessary to change the way of thinking about active and pro-employment workfare policy and the provision of support for a multi-sector and civic social policy (Grewiński 2007).

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- Reports** (2014), <http://www.ekonomia.spoeczna.pl/x/485964>; date access: 09.05.2014. Reports by FAO*, Association B4** and CRAS***, typescript.

Summary

The concept of social economy is one of the forms of actions aimed at the elimination of exclusion, as well as a method of solving the problems of persons/groups that have been excluded because of social maladjustment. This study presents various forms of social activation aimed at improving the situation of people threatened with exclusion, on the basis of literature on the subject, internet sources, and an analysis of official documents made available by institutions acting in the area of supporting social economy in the region.

Key words: social economy, exclusion, disability, vocational activation

SOCIAL REINTEGRATION EXEMPLIFIED BY THE SPECIFIC EXAMPLE OF THE SOCIAL INTEGRATION CENTRE IN SANOK

INTRODUCTION

Modern societies are always different, regardless of their social and economic level. On the one hand, there are individuals who succeed in the labour market, fully participating in both social and political life. On the other hand, many people are unable to meet their basic, existential needs and they are marginalised in society due to circumstances beyond their control. Social exclusion and the problems connected with it represent a significant challenge for current social policy in all countries in the world.

The term “social exclusion” is used and it definitely should be defined. In literature on the subject there are many attempts to define what social exclusion (Dowling 1999: 245-261, Szarfenberg 2010) exactly is. However, the definition of S. Golinowska and P. Broda-Wysocki seems to be the simplest. They noticed that social exclusion is defined in two contexts. The first one is related to non-participation which means that an individual, a family or a group does not participate in social life (lack of participation); while the other context is related to impoverishment. In the latter context, social exclusion is used interchangeably with poverty (Golinowska, Broda-Wysocki 2005: 32). Without further considering the terminology, in the present text it has been adopted that social exclusion means a deprivation of the basic social needs of, or an unsatisfactory place in, society.

However, combating social exclusion requires cooperation, which means not only from a trans-sectoral partnership (the public sector, the non-governmental sector, the business sector and the private sphere of families and communities), but also cooperation between the individual areas of policies, services and their institutions: employment policy and vocational integration, social work, youth policy, educational policy, family policy and others (Evers, Przeddecka 2012: 54). Building a social infrastructure becomes a significant challenge, especially at the local level which provides social services. A trans-sectoral partnership is favourable for both sectors i.e. the public and non-governmental sector. A lack of cooperation between them

can lead to many problems. On the one hand, truthful information about social problems occurring at the local level can be unavailable to the public sector. On the other hand, the non-governmental sector may not be able to bear the costs of creating and operating social entities. Cooperation at the local level is particularly needed at the local level as it allows the ability to look not only at the needs expressed by a certain group of people but also at the mechanisms for satisfying their needs (Błądowski 2002). An assessment of needs at the local level is an opportunity to properly identify local needs and adapt forms of action to local circumstances. It is also the most suitable way to take action aimed at preventing and combating social exclusion (Błądowski, Kubicki 2006).

In Poland, according to social employment law (2011), there are social groups that risk being excluded from social life i.e.: the homeless, the long-term unemployed, people addicted to drugs and other psychotropic things, people with mental disabilities, disabled people (Act dated 20.06.2003). Due to the particularities of operations undertaken with the inclusion of these kinds of people it is necessary to construct an adequate social infrastructure. Centres for Social Integration (SIC) are one of the entities of that infrastructure and they are set out in social employment law (Act dated 13.06.2003).

The main aim of these entities is professional and social reintegration, for example through: developing skills that allows persons who are vulnerable to risk of the social exclusion to take an active role in society, acquiring professional skills and vocational training, learning how to plan life and meet the needs of one's own effort, skills concerning the rational management of money.

However, in Poland the creation of SICs is facing many barriers. They are described in K. Kietlińska's report, i.e.: the undefined status of the SIC as an employer, lack of adequate management, lack of adequate staff that can achieve the social and professional reintegration, difficulties in obtaining funds to start up an activity, complicated law concerning the funding sources of a SIC (Kietlińska 2010: 173).

THE AIM

It is difficult to determine the efficiency of the actions taken by SICs in Poland. It would need to conduct vast research in the country. This article, however, has a restricted target – to present how the Social Integration Centre in Sanok operates. These kinds of organizations are usually established by municipalities, but the SIC in Sanok is rare as it is established by the district. This article is also an attempt to determine whether an analysed element of

social infrastructure contributes to the solving of local social problems and the reintegration of selected groups of the population. This research can be taken as a contribution for further discussion about the social and professional reintegration of selected groups of the population.

METHODS AND TECHNIQUES OF THE RESEARCH

In order to collect empirical material, the following was incorporated:

1. an analysis of current documentation, i.e. SIC – Sanok activity reports, the rules of participation in SIC – Sanok, press releases, documentation of SIC projects e.g. *Model of implementation of services with specified standard in the district and the SIC* pursued by the district of Sanok and fully financed from EU funds;
2. an individual interview with Mr Marcin Marcinkowski –head of the Social Integration Centre in Sanok;
3. a survey carried out in a group of 26 participants who were supported by the SIC in Sanok.

The interview conducted with the head of the SIC in Sanok was standardized (Gruszczyński 2002: 58-63). The partially free statements of some questions have been retained (Gruszczyński 2002: 60). During the interview questions and requests for detailed explanations of statements which were inadequate or incomplete have been used (Babbie 2004: 292). The interview was carried out on 9 May 2014 and included questions about function of SIC – Sanok.

However, the mentioned survey was conducted on 12 May 2014. The questionnaire included 23 questions (closed, open and semi-open questions). The questions were organised in a way that not only assured a quite high standardisation of the assembled empirical data, but was also not very restrictive for the respondents when replying. The questionnaires were given to 20 participants but only 13 completed questionnaires were returned. The whole data was analysed qualitatively and statistically to some extent. This allowed obtaining empirical data which was sufficient enough to meet the goal.

THE RESULTS

The Social Integration Centre in Sanok has been in operation from October 1st, 2012, however, according to the head of the SIC, *the idea of creating a Social Integration Centre had started much earlier. The beginning of the SIC can be dated from the Barka Foundation project. Mrs Barbara Sadowska was*

its representative and she was visiting local authorities in the Subcarpathian region discussing and promoting social economy (The head of SIC – Sanok: 1). The process of establishing the SIC was not easy, and is confirmed by the following statement, it was not easy because SICs were established by municipalities, but in Sanok the founder was the district so we were the first and we had to overcome official impediments not just once (The head of SIC – Sanok: 1).

The essential challenge in creating a local infrastructure is to raise funds in order to begin activity. There was a similar situation in this case. As the head of the SIC notes, *the first year of the centre’s activity was financed under a model of implementation of services with a specified standard in the district and the model of the SIC (The head of SIC – Sanok: 3). The following table shows the amount of funds collected for the centre’s activity.*

Table 1. The source of funds for the creation and functioning of the SIC in Sanok

Years / The source of funds	2012	2013	2014	In total
EU-HCOP	169 352 zł	255 014	Lack of external funds, personal income only	424 366 zł
Provincial Marshal’s office in Rzeszow	300 000 zł	0		300 000 zł
District Governor’s office in Sanok	0	20 000 zł		20 000 zł
Overall	469 352 zł	275 014 zł	0	744 366 zł

Source: Own study

This means that in the years 2012-2013 the activity of Social Integration Centre was significantly financed from external funds (over 740000 zł). Such a high level of expenditures can be partly explained by the cost of purchasing equipment for the workshops. The SIC situation became particularly difficult in 2014 when external funding ceased, i.e. from the EU. The head of the SIC discusses this situation very distinctly, (...) *at this moment we are self-funding [Are there currently enough personal funds to maintain SIC activity? – P.F.] ...of course not, in relation to the financed period we had to reduce the number of activities and many experts agreed to work for less money in order for the SIC to survive. In the meantime, we have been looking for additional funds by signing further agreements with other municipalities as well as preparing another project (The head of SIC – Sanok: 3).*

In the above-mentioned centre there are classes where socially excluded people can learn abilities to become both independent and efficient in performing social roles, and being self-reliant in the labour market. Gaining new skills is aimed at the social inclusion of participants and helps them become employed. The following table shows the types of classes relating to social integration.

Table 2. Types of classes at SIC – Sanok related to social integration

Classes	The classes' contents
therapeutic classes	There are workshop methods where people addicted to psychotropic drugs can assure deficits in their personalities;
educational classes	These classes particularly include people who have difficulties with literacy – the reading and understanding of simple texts or forms
classes with a psychologist	They improve communication skills, assertiveness, interaction in a group, raising motivation, and finding out participants' strengths
support groups	During activities with a psychologist, one optional support group was created for people who want to give up smoking
professional counselling	They are carried out in three groups or individually. The aim is to learn professional skills, the proper attitudes related to seeking employment and moving into the labour market, including consulting documents and application forms, and preparing for interviews with future employers, etc.
information technology	The participants gain basic computer skills and the ability to use modern technology related to seeking employment, including setting up electronic mail, sending a CV electronically, and visiting websites related to work, etc.

Source: Personal study on the basis of SIC – Sanok data

The classes concerning professional integration are also carried out in the form of both theoretical and practical learning skills in the various workshops i.e.:

- gardening and cleaning workshop – including, i.e. emptying rubbish bins, cleaning buildings, general cleanup, clearing thickets etc.
- catering workshop – preparing meals for SIC participants, catering service during some events etc.
- renovation and builder's workshop – renovation works e.g. the renovation of the hospital in Sanok (toilets), the renovation of a school's boiler house.

Examples of people who can be classified as participants in such workshops can be found in social employment law. The following table shows the groups of people who can be classified as participants of the SIC.

Table 3. Categories of people who can take part in Social Integration Centres

No.	Categories of people who can take part in social integration centres
1	Individuals who are coping with homelessness and are trying to realise an individual project, within the meaning of the social welfare law
2	people addicted to alcohol who have finished psychological therapy in a rehabilitative institution,
3	people addicted to drugs or other psychotropic things who have finished therapy in a health care institution,
4	people who are mentally ill, within the meaning of the mental health law,
5	the long-term unemployed, within the meaning of the promoting employment and labour market institutions law,
6	people who are released from penal institutions and have difficulties with social integration, within the meaning of the social welfare law,
7	refugees who realise individual integration projects, within the meaning of the social welfare law,
8	disabled people who are socially excluded and are not able to meet their basic needs through their own effort due to their life situation and their poverty caused by social, professional and family impossibility, within the meaning of the professional and social rehabilitation and employment of the disabled law;
9	in addition, other reasons for being sent to a SIC, i.e.: poverty, the protection of motherhood, large family, domestic violence.

Source: Personal study on the basis of SIC – Sanok data and social employment law (13th of June 2003).

At SIC – Sanok, long-term unemployment was the main reason for people's social employment.

Table 4. The reasons for qualifying people to people to participate at SIC – Sanok between the years 2012–2013

The reason for accepting participants at SIC – Sanok	The number of participants*	
	In total	Women
1	2	3
Unemployment	41	19
Poverty	36	12

1	2	3
Alcoholism	6	2
Disability	4	2
Exiting Penal institution	1	0
The protection of motherhood	1	1
Large family	1	1
Long-term illness	2	2
Domestic violence	2	2

* participants could be at the SIC for many reasons. Source: Personal study

There were relatively few people who could be socially employed due to a disability, domestic violence or leaving a penal institution. Each participant was enrolled in the Individual Social Employment Program (IPZS). This program includes adequate forms of professional and social integration. All participants have the following rights:

- to participate in social reintegration classes according to IPZS,
- to participate in professional reintegration classes according to IPZS,
- to participate in conditions which are both safe and hygienic and relate to personal protective measures, health and safety training, suitable medical examinations,
- accident and death insurance coverage during their stay at the centre,
- proper working attire which is given after a one month probationary period,
- one complimentary meal per day,
- job search assistance,
- a proper integration benefit,
- bus tickets to get to classes,
- four free days (with full benefits) at the participant's request,
- to determine the way of sharing one's own image at the SIC which may be recorded as photos, videos or other materials (Regulations of CIS – Sanok: §4).

Social employment is restricted by time, which is confirmed by the following statement, if the participant desires to complete a SIC certificate he/she needs to participate in the IPZS for a minimum of 6 months. The maximum time one can participate in the SIC is an 18 month period. Participation is usually 12 months, with the possibility of extending this period for a further 6 months at the participant's request or the request of a SIC expert. These experts attempt to personalise activities for all participants in order to give them ability to survive in labour market after leaving the SIC (The head of SIC – Sanok: 2-3).

In the years 2012-2013 most of the participants of social employment were people between 25-50 years of age, which is in the best period for working age (see. tab. 5).

Table 5. The age of participants at SIC – Sanok in the years 2013-2014

People under 25		People between 25–50		People over 50	
7		24		14	
W	M	W	M	W	M
2	5	16	8	4	10

Source: Personal study

The effectiveness of social and professional reintegration can be verified by the monitoring of former participants. However, this is not easy, as the following statement relates, [Is it possible for the SIC to monitor what has become of its former participants? – P.F.] *It is possible, but only partially. There is the goodwill of participants, those who keep in touch with us or those who return to social welfare. If they return, we can cooperate with social workers and that way we know what is happening with them. However, there are people who go abroad or move to other cities and do not benefit from a social centre so we do not possess any information on them* (The head of SIC – Sanok: 3). The conclusion must therefore be that there is lack of reliable methods of monitoring, and as a result there is difficulty in ex-post evaluation of all social and professional integration processes. Ex-ante and interim evaluation is also more difficult (Szarfenberg 2009: 132-133). The ex-ante evaluation of social programs is very important since it is meant to show the requirement of specific actions before their implementation. In this case we do not know if the significant requirement of this kind of entity existed in the local environment. The ex-ante evaluation of social projects was described further in literature on the subject, for example in the works of Jacob Marschak, Petra Todd, and Kenneth Wolpin (see Marschak 1953: 1-26; Todd, Wolpin 2006).

The essential element of the research process was to try and learn the participants' opinion about the effectiveness of social and professional reintegration. As a result of the conducted survey it turned out that currently there are mainly people between 20-29 years (28.5% of the total), in their fifties, and over 50 (28.5%) who are in social employment at SIC – Sanok. It may mean that in the local labour market, young people starting their professional

activity and the elderly are in the direst situation. Most respondents were residents of rural areas.

The majority of respondents earned their living from social welfare assistance or from the payments of social employment (12 persons- earnings from the SIC, 1 person had earnings from social welfare, 1 person from an occupation). The respondents and their families' incomes were extremely low, below the income criteria described in the Social Welfare Act.

The following table presents the greatest burden to the household budget for people remaining in social employment.

Table 6. The greatest burdens to the household budgets in respondents' opinions

No.	The greatest burden to the respondents' household budget	Numbers of indications*	%
1	expenditures on food	6	30
2	rent and others compulsory fees	11	55
3	clothing purchases	1	5
4	medicines and costs of medical treatment	2	10
5	others (what) ...	0	0
Total		20	100

* numbers of indications ≠ numbers of respondents, as the people surveyed could choose several options. Source: Personal study

The survey has indicated that expenditures on food and some fees are the greatest burden to the household for people with low income. At the same time, almost all persons have declared that the assistance from social welfare was insufficient. Respondents determined their health as average, only 3 persons had disabilities.

Thanks to the conducted questionnaire it can be claimed that participants of SIC – Sanok had been long-term unemployed (11 to 14 respondents) and had been actively seeking employment before they took up social employment. As many as 12 persons indicated that a social worker had informed them about social employment, while only 2 persons indicated that they had received information about it from their acquaintances. The assembled empirical material allowed us to notice that most respondents thought that participation in some reintegration forms offered by SIC – Sanok could give them the opportunity of integration into the labour market (see. chart 1).

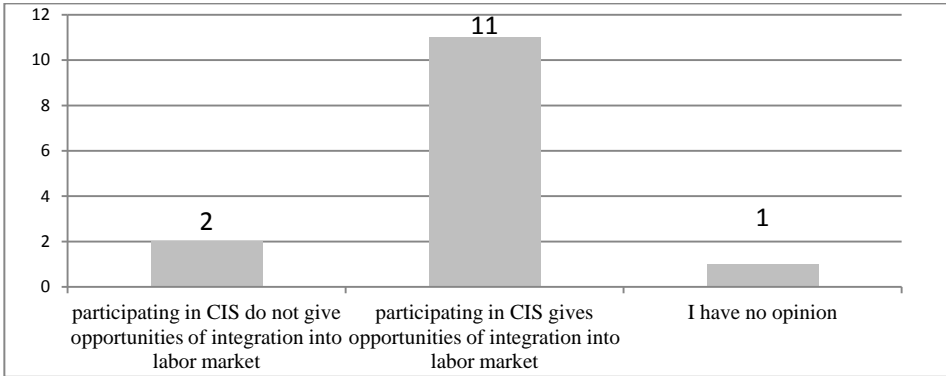


Chart 1. Respondents' opinions about opportunities for integration into the labour market thanks to participating in SIC – Sanok

Source: Personal study.

It was possible to identify weaknesses in participating in social employment at SIC – Sanok (see. tab. 7).

Table 7. The respondents' opinions about the weaknesses of social employment at SIC – Sanok

Lp.	The weaknesses of social employment	Numbers of indications*
1	- the social exclusion of the participants is pointed out	1
2	- low earnings	8
3	- poor planning of the activities at SIC – Sanok	5
4	- no comment	2
Total		16

* it was an open question, respondents could indicate a maximum of 3 options.

Source: Personal study.

The participants usually emphasised low earnings from social employment and poor planning of the activities at the Social Integration Centre in Sanok.

CONCLUSIONS

Combating social exclusion is a significant challenge for modern social policy. It requires cooperation between the public, non-governmental and private sectors. This kind of partnership is essential during the creation of local social infrastructure. Recently, in Polish legislation a number of new

entities responsible for social and professional reintegration of selected social groups that risk social exclusion have appeared. One of these entities is the social integration center.

The presented research results are not comprehensive; however, they can form the basis for further discussion about the social and professional reintegration of some groups of people and about the effectiveness of social policy entities.

The empirical studies showed that the creation of social integration centres requires the collection of substantial funds as local authorities are not able to cope with such costs without external assistance e.g. from the European Union. Even after start-up it is difficult to balance the functioning of the social integration centre in an economic meaning.

Forms of social and professional activities at SIC – Sanok are various and they provide the necessary social and professional skills to the participants of social employment. The opinions of SIC participants have proven this. Almost all respondents have admitted that participation in some forms of reintegration offered by SIC – Sanok gave them the opportunity to integrate into the labour market.

It is worrying that the material status of participants of social employment is very poor, and that social employment earnings at SIC – Sanok are so low that they cannot improve that situation in any way.

Most respondents have indicated low earnings as the reason for their reluctance to take up social employment.

In the process of analysing the results of the study it turned out that long-term unemployment was the main reason to qualify persons for social employment. Therefore, it is safe to conclude that SIC – Sanok could contribute to solving local social issues, for which the long-term unemployed state is essential. However, there is small number of people being supported by this entity.

At the same time it is difficult to clearly claim that the activity of SIC – Sanok in the field of social and professional reintegration is effective and efficient. This is impossible due to organisational barriers which include, i.e. a lack of reliable monitoring methods of the fates of former SIC participants and a lack of properly constructed social indicators which can verify achievement of the target. What is more, these barriers make it effectively impossible to pursue any sort of evaluation (ex-ante, interim, ex post) of such social projects at the Social Integration Centre in Sanok.

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Summary

Modern societies are always different, regardless of their social and economic level. On the one hand, there are individuals who succeed in the labour market, fully participating in both social and political life. On the other hand, many people are unable to meet their basic, existential needs and they are marginalised in society due to circumstances beyond their control. Social exclusion and the problems connected

with it represent a significant challenge for current social policy in all countries in the world. Building a social infrastructure becomes a significant challenge, especially at the local level which provides social services. A trans-sectoral partnership is favourable for both sectors i.e. the public and non-governmental sector. A lack of cooperation between them can lead to many problems. The main aim of these entities is professional and social reintegration, for example through: developing skills that allow persons who are vulnerable to risk of the social exclusion to take an active role in society, acquiring professional skills and vocational training, learning how to plan life and meet the needs of one's own effort, skills concerning the rational management of money.

Key words: social reintegration, social problems, unemployment

APPROACHING THE CONCEPT OF SOCIAL ECONOMY IN THE CR THROUGH THE PRISM OF SOCIAL WORK - REALITY AND PERSPECTIVE

INTRODUCTION

One part of the current discourse of Czech social work is the issue of “marketisation” and the so-called “quasi-market” in the sphere of social services. Social economy, as a part of the national economy, represents an action field for further development of the social work profession. In a wider context, this topic relates to the search for identity of the social work profession in the postmodern society which imposes new requirements and challenges for social work.

From its very beginning, social work has been expected to provide protection against the social exclusion of clients and their re-integration into society. Employment is the important element in social integration. Castel suggests: *It is increasingly more illusory for social work with the new conditions aimed at integration of its clients into society. In the society in which we live, the fundamental prerequisite for permanent integration is a full-valued job, i.e. something which is actually missing and which cannot be provided by social work itself* (Castel 2010: 152). Social work now finds itself in a non-enviable situation as it can no longer rely on the integration that was once massively provided by the labour market and social insurance. The role of social work hitherto has been the fine-tuning of integration in individuals with various disabilities and disadvantages. Nowadays, social work is supposed to apply the same tools to cope with the integration of large groups of people who have been condemned by the labour market to live in uncertainty, while the welfare state has fewer resources to secure these people against the increasing job and life uncertainty (Keller 2010).

Unlike social work, the social economy endeavours to optimise the processes associated with increasing poverty, social exclusion, and the impact of a globalised market in becoming a legitimate part of the market as well as civil society through the activation and stimulation of citizens to self-help and community-service activities. The priority of the social economy is employment of socially excluded persons or those vulnerable to social exclu-

sion (Hunčová 2006). Persistent unemployment, the need for a reduction in the national budget deficit, and maintaining the deficit at low levels are all factors which cause difficulties for conventional social policy and social work. This raises the question to what extent the social economy can contribute to the solution to these problems and whether or not it can assume the role of the public authorities and institutions in certain areas of interest (Borzaga, Defourny 2001).

The objective of this document is to analyse the current status of the Czech social economy and social firms. Czech social economy has been gradually defined in its form and researched *from the bottom*. The initial point of the analysis is formed by the outputs of the project *Thematic network for the development of social economy in the Czech Republic*. The analysis also includes a description of the current state of social firms in terms of legislation and finances.

The conclusion presents several recommendations for the social policy actors in relation to the development of social enterprise in the Czech Republic.

THEORETICAL DEFINITION ON THE CONCEPT OF SOCIAL ECONOMY

The concept of social economy represents a modern solution to certain issues encountered by European countries at the turn of the 21st century. It concerns the provision of (primarily social) services at a local level and also the issue of integrating the people endangered by social exclusion in the labour markets. Last but not least, social economy also bears on the economical use and development of local resources during the implementation of local development programmes, including human, material and financial resources. The concept of the social economy draws on the assumption that the state can no longer fully satisfy or financially secure the social needs of its citizens and that even a purely commercial conception does not fit the needs of modern democratic society, particularly those concerning the availability of services and an assertion of public interest.

In the Czech environment, the concept of social economy is one of the discussed topics, primarily in the last decade. A part of the discussion also deals with the terminological definition of the key words. The very concept of social economy has become the topic for discussion within the TESSEA project¹.

¹ TESSEA stands for *Thematic network for social economy* which was introduced in the framework of the eponymous project No. CZ.1.04/5.1.01/12.00021, supported by the Human

The European concept of social economy, characteristics of the third sector, its subjects and theoretical approaches, have all become the basis for the definition of social economy in the Czech environment. The term “social economy” is most commonly defined on the basis of the subjects that fall within its framework. Based on the two approaches defined by the research company EMES, i.e. legal-institutional and normative approaches, social economy has been defined in the Czech Republic because this is the key concept for the European tradition of the third sector (Dohnalová 2011: 31). According to the research company EMES, social economy is synonymous with the third sector. *Social economy encompasses activities carried out by organizations of a cooperative kind, organisations and associations of mutual benefit, whose ethical base incorporates the following principles: the objective is service to members of the community, not the profit; independence of the managing structures, democratic decision-making process, priority of people and work (labour force) over capital and profit distribution* (Borzaga, Defourny 2001: 6).

The research organization CIRIEC defines social economy as *a set of private, formally established companies with the autonomous power to make decisions and freedom of membership which have been established with the aim of fulfilling the needs of their members through the marketing and production of goods, and through the provision of services, insurance and financial services, where the decision-making process and any distribution of profit or surplus among the members is not directly related to the capital or fees paid by the individual members with a single voting right. Social economy also includes private and formally established companies with the autonomous power to make decisions and the freedom of membership which provide non-market services to the households and whose surplus (if any) cannot be reserved to the economic agents who create, control or finance them* (The European Economic and Social Committee 2007: 9).

Czech experts defines the term *social economy* as follows: *a set of activities performed by the subjects of social economy, the aim of which is to increase*

Resources and Employment Operational Programme. The project was implemented from June 2009 to November 2011 by Nová ekonomika, o.p.s. (New Economy, public service organization). This platform has joined together more than 230 members including individuals and corporations. The membership was quite diversified, from the social entrepreneurs, through students and scholars to those interested in this topic. TESSEA was about raising the public awareness and dissemination of information, communication with the policy makers at the national and regional levels. The result of the expert working groups (Definitions, Finances, Measurement, Education and Communication) is the study which contains a list of all the findings, declarations of viewpoints and recommendations for further development of social economy in the Czech Republic.

employment in the local conditions or to fulfil other needs and requirements of the community in the sphere of economic, social, cultural and environmental development (Bednáriková, Francová 2011: 14). This definition corresponds to both of the aforementioned European concepts.

Social economy in the Czech environment generally functions on the basis of the principles of volunteering, self governing, self financing and non-profit activity, which means there is no priority given to the activity carried out for profit. Social economy primarily draws on the initiative of the social responsibility of citizens. It contributes to a reduced dependence on public budgets, increases the employment rate of the people endangered by the labour market, and participates in the development of individual regions in both social and business aspects as it uses local and regional links and its social capital.

Hunčová distinguishes three views on social economy, namely: *in the narrowest context, it incorporates activities carried out by such subjects as authentic cooperatives, foundations and other mutually supportive associations or funds and unincorporated associations, in a broader contexts it includes the participative economy that is democratic for its social aspects, or any economic activity with a positive social externalities (including the firms which take care of their employees on the one hand and public benefit service providers or public-benefit corporations providing public/social services on the other hand). Social economy is particularly appreciated for its support of employment, social cohesion and sustainable development of regions. Social good in this type of economy is managed by the citizens who have assumed their own individuality and active responsibility for it* (Hunčová 2008: 226).

EXCURSION INTO THE HISTORY OF SOCIAL ECONOMY IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

The roots of social economy in this country date back to the 19th century with self-help, voluntary, and welfare activities. The legalisation of the association movement was supported by the liberal Act on Freedom of Association of 1867. Since then, new economic subjects have been constantly established, primarily the production and consumer cooperatives.

After the Second World War, and with the newly emerged communist government in 1948, the tradition of social economy was interrupted. This put an end to trades, business, supportive associations, and cooperatives. Although the cooperatives existed, their role was somewhat shifted, they had no autonomy or the right to independent economic decisions, instead they were under government control, being an executive body fulfilling the tasks

imposed by the state, with no opportunity to pursue their business (Dohnalová et al. 2009: 30-31).

The period after 1989 saw attempts to restore the tradition of the cooperative movement from the first half of the 20th century. The then cooperatives needed to be transformed. In 1995, loan cooperatives – so called *savings banks* – started to emerge. Nevertheless, their business activities were unsuccessful; they lost trust among people and eventually went bankrupt (Bednáriková, Francová 2011: 9).

After the Velvet Revolution (1989), the civic sector started to develop. Legislative changes were gradually prepared to remove the previous long-lasting deformations. The first citizen associations and foundations were established. The specialised church facilities restored their activities, later on non-profit organizations and charitable funds came into existence.

In the prime of the civic sector, social economy has come to the fore. The Czech Republic began to acquaint itself with the concept of social economy and the practices of social firms abroad, primarily in the European Union. The topic has gained considerable attention since the beginning of the 21st century. The initial activities were predominantly related to the emergence of small-size companies and work groups, networks, pilot projects, discussions held among experts, etc.

In 2002, the Czech Republic was the first post-communist country in Central and Eastern Europe to host the International Conference on the Expansion of Social Economy. Dohnalová states: *The Conference adopted the so-called »Prague Declaration« which – inter alia – claims: Although there had never been any precise legal definition of social economy, a consensus was reached in the form of three statements: a) social economy is not based on the capital but instead on the participative democracy; b) the objective of social economy is not profit but solidarity; c) social economy may considerably contribute to the successful integration of disadvantaged people in the society* (Dohnalová 2006: 120). This declaration supported the establishment of an adequate social framework for social economy in the Czech Republic and other Central and Eastern European countries.

CURRENT STATE OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL ECONOMY IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

Social economy, as such, has not yet been defined in Czech legislation nor formally established. Partial changes were brought by the new Civil Code and the Act on Trade Companies and Corporations, both of these legal

norms were effective as of 1 January 2014, therefore their impacts will become evident in the future.

Social economy has been implemented in the form of social firms which operate in all industries. It is also supported by various institutions, e.g. the Government Council for Non-Governmental Non-Profit Organisations, which is a counselling, initiative, and coordinating body of the Czech government; and the Agency for Social Integration, which provides municipalities and towns with studies on local opportunities for social enterprise. The Charter of Social Enterprise and Employment of People with a Disability has been another supporting element of social economy. The Charter attempts to: *establish a platform for active and sustainable cooperation of the Charter with the legislative and executive authorities of the state in the sphere of social enterprise and the employment of people with a disability* (Deklarace Charty sociálního podnikání 2011: 1).

The TESSEA project by Nová ekonomika, o.p.s.² has also contributed to the support of social economy, namely through the Study of the social economy infrastructure in the Czech Republic (2009-2011) which describes the current situation of social economy in this country and provides recommendations for further development in this sphere. This is the first comprehensive study carried out in the Czech Republic. The activity of Nová ekonomika, o.p.s. – which was disbanded – has been resumed by the company P3 – People, Planet, Profit, o.p.s. The company provides training, counselling, consultations, awareness campaigns and administers a unique directory of social firms operating in the Czech Republic. Membership of the directory is voluntary. As of 31 March 2014 it includes 184 registered social firms.

Apart from private organisations supporting social economy, there are also several public institutions with a similar mission. For example, the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MPSVČR), which in 2009 – based on international experience – set up the requirements for financial support of a non-investment nature channelled into the development of social economy in the framework of the Integrated Operational Programme (IOP), as well as options on investment support in the framework of the Human Resources and Employment Operational Programme (OP LZZ) financed by European structural funds (Plecháčková, Škantová 2010).

In addition to the ministries and regional and municipal authorities, social economy has been supported in several strategic documents. In general, it is one of the tools for the social integration of disadvantaged groups into the labour market. Last but not least, the Strategy for regional development

² For explanation, see above.

for the Czech Republic over the years 2014-2020, and released by the Ministry of Regional Development (MMR ČR), is of enormous importance in this context. Slowly but surely, social economy is developing in the Czech Republic. A supportive network is now in place, and what is important is to proceed and observe the current trends in development.

RESEARCH CARRIED OUT AMONG A HUNDRED CZECH SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURS

P3 – People, Planet, Profit o.p.s., in cooperation with the ProVida Foundation, carried out a questionnaire survey aimed at verification of data and the acquisition of information on the situation of social firms in the Czech Republic. Within the study, 100 interviews were held with the heads and managers of social firms operating in the Czech Republic. An integral part of the survey was the acquisition of data for the social firms directory, which is now available at www.ceske-socialni-podnikani.cz.

The survey succeeded in acquiring data from a hundred social firms, though the actual number of these companies is surely higher. It comes as a complete surprise that the majority of social firms deal with catering and food processing – 45% classified themselves in the *Catering and accommodation and Food production and sale* categories.

Most of the social firms pursue their business in the service sector, with trading company being the most frequent legal form. The main reason for establishing these companies is social motivation. The overwhelming majority of these companies, i.e. 90%, employ disadvantaged persons, primarily people with various disabilities. These firms are usually small-sized companies with up to 15 employees, 10 of whom are disadvantaged, and with an average annual turnover of more than CZK 3.6 million. More than a half of their income comes from their own operations. Nearly 2/3 of social firms plan their future development, yet they need to arrange for adequate financial resources to this end. 66% of firms are in need of further resources, 54% of firms have reached the break-even point³. 38 firms have designed their own long-term financial plan. 30 firms showed a profit in 2011.

³ The point which defines the volume of production a company needs to produce in order to reach the balance between making either a profit or a loss. It is a situation where the overall revenue and cost or expenses are equal, i.e. there is no net loss or gain. To determine this point, it is necessary to know the overall cost or expenses, unit variable expenses and the price of products. Once the break-even point is exceeded, a company becomes profit-making, if a company falls short of the point, it is loss-making.

Based on the results of the survey, it can be stated that there is specific sector of social enterprise in the Czech Republic, which continually grows and needs to be taken into account in the future.

P3 – People, Planet, Profit, o.p.s. brings forth and furthers new and innovative approaches to business with a positive effect on society, it supports social and socially beneficial enterprising, provides consulting, organises seminars and workshops, and implements specialised topic-aimed projects.

SOCIAL ENTERPRISE VALUE AND QUALITY MEASUREMENT

In the area of social enterprise, the measurement of value and quality is difficult. In the Czech environment, there is no specific tool to handle this task. A social enterprise has several options to measure its value and quality, but these tools are all typical of other sectors. The use of these tools must bear in mind that the business and social areas need to be measured comprehensively. What is hardest to measure is the social benefit. Great Britain, for instance, is well ahead in comparison with the Czech Republic. Britons have succeeded in developing a specialised tool tailored for social enterprise, known as “Star Social Firm”. In the future, it is advisable to draw inspiration from this model. In the Czech environment, one can imagine a norm based on the Star Social Firm (in the sphere of social enterprise) combined with ISO 9001 (profit-making sector) and quality standards in social services (non-profit sector).

The Star Social Firm is a quality standard which is a follow-up to the aforementioned Social Enterprise Criteria. According to the document Star Social Firm Quality Standard, this standard confirms quality in the sphere of business, products and service, not in the very work site. Its origins go back to 2005 when it was adopted as a further step to an increased quality in the field of social enterprise. One of its objectives is to gain the trust of those interested and to contribute to the increased competitiveness of a social firm by demonstrating its proficiency not only internally but also externally, i.e. to the customers and partners. For instance, suppliers may treat a social enterprise with contempt and the enterprise is forced to prove its stability and sustainability as a consequence. (Star Social Firm Quality Standard, General Information and Guidance 2009: 1).

The criteria to be fulfilled by a social firm in order to be awarded the Star Social Firm (SSF) brand – 8 criteria inspired by the criteria for social enterprise.

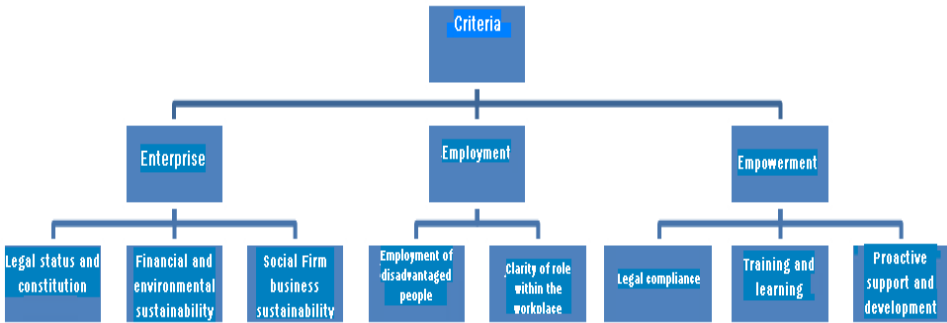


Chart 1. Areas using the Star Social Firm criteria

Source: Star Social Firm Quality Standard (2009, edited by the author).

Assessment follows the same pattern as that used in the Czech environment for the assessment of standard quality compliance in the social services. A specially trained inspector assesses compliance with the preset criteria and whether the social enterprise provides true, complete and up-to-date information. The difference is that the inspector in social services comes upon the decision by the MPSV, whereas in the SSF the assessment is requested by the organisation itself. Another difference is in the way the company itself perceives the assessment. In the sphere of social services, the assessment is understood as an unavoidable evil that is inherent in the subsidies provided. However, I believe that the SSF application in the Czech environment would rather mean the orientation towards improvement and business development, maintenance of a high standard and generally acquisition of more financial resources, better strategic position for negotiation with the public sector and the awareness of where we are and what we want to (and can) achieve.

By acquiring the Star Social Firm certificate, a company demonstrates its proficiency and its direct link to the criteria of social firms which requires that a social firm should be recognised – also by an independent institution – as a prudent employer and businessman. In the Czech environment, it would be helpful to have a similar standard (norm) as the one developed in Great Britain by Social Firms UK, the member organisation for the support of social firms. Its Czech counterpart, which would take responsibility for creation of the SSF, may be the company P3 – People, Planet, Profit that carries out various activities aimed at the development of social economy. In the legislative proposal for an amendment to the Act on Employment in the Czech Republic, the term “social firm” is replaced with “socially beneficial employer”.

FINANCING SOCIAL ENTERPRISES

Financial issues are always of paramount importance for the successful functioning of any firm. This is particularly true of social firms, especially those run by a non-governmental organisation irrespective of its legal form. In these cases the problem is about limited access to and availability of the financial resources. This could be the obstacle to the development of social enterprise and the particular developmental stage of the firm is often of no importance.

At the beginning of its existence, a company needs large investments and it often depends on public resources. One of the practical manuals (*Survival Manual for a Social Entrepreneur*) states that a proportion of their own resources from the company's business operations will increase as a function of time and the company should be able to provide for its everyday operation by itself. Nevertheless, if the demand for the social firm's product is insufficient, it can happen that the firm would become dependent on public resources and thereby become unstable. As a result, the enterprise can be perceived as more vulnerable and prone to changes in the method of public financing and public policy priorities. It will not be prepared to use the currently available financial tools (Dolina et al. 2010: 49).

Muhamed Yunus suggests it is not enough to be sensible of human suffering and to have an idea to resolve this problem once for all, but it is also necessary to secure your social enterprise financially. Even the best idea cannot live without sufficient financial resources. Raising the funds and financial resources is perceived by Yunus as the major obstacle to establishing and developing the social companies. Yet, he also emphasises that with a little bit of creativity, invention, and lots of patience a social entrepreneur may achieve their goal. (Yunus 2010: 111).

At present, governmental support is diminishing gradually, and non-profit organisations realise the necessity to secure finances from their own resources. Social enterprise is one of the paths to reach these resources. The companies are also stimulated by the fact that in the next programme period of the European Union it would be necessary to participate in the financing of the projects which have so far been covered at 100%. All the authors confirm the necessity of financial resources for the proper functioning of any organization. It is logical that any company would collapse without the resources.

The key concept for social enterprise is the so-called multi-source financing. According to the *Survival Manual for a Social Entrepreneur* (Dolina et al. 2010: 27-28) this kind of financing allows a social firm to fulfil its social as

well as economic objectives. The reason is that it has access to various financial resources which are out of reach for a common entrepreneurial subject.

With regards to the financing of social firms, the type of operation the company wishes to finance must be taken in account. Marek Jetmar divides financing into two categories: operation – and investment-centred. Each of these two categories is usually financed differently, or from different resources (Jetmar 2010: 4).

The objective of operation-centred financing is to ensure the manufacturing activity of a social firm (these primarily include the financing of claims, stock, liquidity or cash-flow management). To this end, the company's income is used as well as short-term loans provided by banks. The objective of investment-centred financing is to start up the company, its potential expansion, development or to improve the quality of its services or products.

Financing of any social firm is multi-resource. Social firms may combine resources from subsidies and grants with purely commercial funds, supported by resources from active employment policy programmes or specific financial tools, such as franchising or loans. To make the list of resources complete, volunteering and tax relief must be mentioned.

MAJOR BARRIERS TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL FIRMS IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

A comparison of the development of social enterprise in the Czech Republic with that of, for example, Great Britain reveals enormous differences. The reason is in the traditional political system and the East-West division of Europe. While social firms were supported in Western Europe, the Eastern Bloc paid no attention to this issue. This situation gives rise to a large number of obstacles that still need to be tackled.

The most considerable obstacle, in comparison with Great Britain, is the lack of financial assets and the inadequate composition of financial resources. Czech social firms, compared with their Western European counterparts, still greatly depend on subsidies, which reduces their re-distribution role. They are not independent and their development is substantially retarded by this fact. They suffer from insufficient resources to cover their investment or promotion, and often lack a professional approach to business issues and any support in the course of preparing their business plan.

Another significant obstacle is inadequate legislation which fails to reflect the specific features of social enterprise. The British Companies Act established a legislative framework for a new form of companies that is applicable

to and useful for the needs of social enterprise. In addition, there are evident and strong attempts of lobbyists and intervention by the government. In the Czech Republic there is no suitable form of support which would contribute to the development of social firms.

Another considerable barrier in the Czech Republic is the legacy of the communist era, when society had a negative attitude towards cooperatives and the same attitude surviving until today. This also relates to an unshakable belief in the power of the free market and trust in the almighty welfare state which must take care of its citizens, therefore not needing any alternative institutes. Czech society, in general, rejects anything that does not toe the line.

The obstacle to development is a poor awareness of the general public when it comes to the existence of social firms, the differences between social economy and other sectors, and a poor understanding of specific options and added value of social enterprise (Metz 2002: 28). Apart from the general public, the community of experts and public administration is badly informed as well, which complicates the efforts of social firms to bid for government procurement contracts. The Czech Republic also lacks the systematic education of social entrepreneurs and persons who wish to be involved in social enterprise, comprehensive support and counselling which would specialise in the development of social firms throughout their lifetime.

CONCLUSION

In spite of a series of obstacles that hinder the development of social firms in the Czech Republic, there are still conditions for the establishing and functioning of these companies. Whether these conditions are suitable for social firms remains an open question. The organisations themselves strive to change the public's views and to convince the public of their disinterested efforts to involve the disadvantaged persons in the working process and thereby to the development of local communities.

At the national level, future trends will include: concentration on the support of social firms with multi-resource financing due to depletable and limited current resources, support of social firm management in the sphere of a professional career, and provision of start-up capital in the form of loans at favourable conditions, guarantees, etc.

For newly established companies, the following needs are to be provided: improved capital accessibility, tax allowances, such as reduced statutory tax payments, advantageous conditions for public tendering, primarily at the local level, support of newly created job opportunities for people disadvan-

taged by the labour market, establishment of social firms on the community/municipality's initiative, improved environment for social entrepreneurs, and financing of a new social firm before its actual establishment (Jetmar 2012: 36-37).

Social enterprise has not yet been incorporated into Czech legislation to such an extent that would allow improving the disadvantaged position of employers who offer jobs to any of the targeted groups. Certain progress may be seen in the introduction of the new Civil Code, effective 1 January 2014, whose act on corporations explicitly mentions the so-called *social cooperative* which is allowed to conduct business without major restrictions; unlike non-governmental non-profit organisations, the operation of which is subject to various restrictions.

Social work, primarily at the community level, has the potential to be involved in activities leading to the gradual furtherance of all of the aforementioned measures that are necessary for the development of social economy in the Czech Republic. The prerequisite is the proper education of social workers in the economic field in order to proactively prepare them for involvement in all of the processes and activities which would improve the current state of affairs.

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Summary

One part of the current discourse of Czech social work is the issue of marketisation and the so-called quasi-market in the sphere of social services. Social economy, as a part of the national economy, represents an action field for further development of the social work profession. In a wider context, this topic relates to the search for identity of the social work profession in the postmodern society which imposes new requirements and challenges for social work. From its very beginning, social work has been expected to provide protection against the social exclusion of clients and their re-integration into society. Employment is the important element in social integration. The objective of this document is to analyse the current status of the Czech social economy and social firms. Czech social economy has been gradually defined in its form and researched from the bottom. The initial point of the analysis is formed by the outputs of the project Thematic network for the development of social economy in the Czech Republic. The analysis also includes a description of the current state of social firms in terms of legislation and finances. The conclusion presents several recommendations for the social policy actors in relation to the development of social enterprise in the Czech Republic.

Key words: social economy, social service, social work

WHAT CAN SOCIAL WORK SEEK AND FIND IN THE AREA OF CIVIL SOCIETY?

INTRODUCTION

From the changes which have occurred in society roughly over the last four decades, and the associated problems of development (Dahrendorf 1991; Esping-Andersen 2002; Giddens 2004; Keller 2009; Keller 2011) we can select the following phenomena in regard to the topic of this text – (1) people are constrained in their possibilities to ensure their own existence, (2) the globalised market increasingly meets the needs of communities less. We can identify various reactions and recommendations as to this state of society and the related crisis of the welfare state. One of the solution strategies may oscillate between proposals by Rosanvallon (Keller 2009) and Giddens (2004). It means solutions developed in a parallel way in the civil society space, in a space which should be close to social work. In the first part of this text we will try to discuss what in this area seems to be important for social work as an agent of social change. Of main importance is the second part which suggests the possible inter-disciplinary collaboration of social work and social entrepreneurship, which could support the potential of civil society. All this aims at answering the question of whether social work could use ideas of social entrepreneurship, resting exactly on this potential, to achieve its goals. And if so, what form its intervention might take.

CIVIL SOCIETY POTENTIAL – OPPORTUNITY FOR SOCIAL WORK

From projects or forecasts of further development of the welfare state (Dahrendorf 1991; Esping-Andersen 2002; Giddens 2004; Keller 2009; Keller 2011), we can trace certain hopes for the ability of civil society to actively participate in the processes of solving social problems.

Actions of civil society are usually in opposition to instrumental actions by the state, generally being oriented towards non-materialistic values, to achieve autonomy and self-determination of the participants, in contrast to actions

with a view to gaining influence and power. (Habermas 2000; Müller 2002) Civil society is characterised as a historically formed layer of social life, characterised by the spontaneous self-expression of individuals and their voluntary associations created to implement their interests (Večeřa 1996) which, however, may not always be of positive content. This area of each society acquires importance exactly in the context of the activities of state and market entities (Rakušanová, Stašková 2007). A strict separation of society and the state was included in ideas by Adam Smith (Večeřa 1996; Habermas 2000), forming a basis for theories of political and economic liberalism. Liberalism advocated emancipation of economically enhanced citizenship excluded from political influence against the absolutist and bureaucratic state power. With this orientation, liberalism became one of the fundamental intellectual resources of the theory of a constitutional state and the father of the civil society concept.

In efforts to define the notion of civil society, it is therefore possible to focus primarily on the polarity between it and the state. The concept of civil society is usually associated with active citizenship and participatory democracy (Giddens 2004) According to Giddens (2004), the topic of community is vitally essential for current politics.

Can social work contribute to development of the potential of civil society? Social work is bound to contribute to the sustainable development of society and to promote the participation of its members in this effort. With overall social changes, changes in the relationships among the state, market and life space of people occurred simultaneously, which had an impact on social work, too (Bourdieu 1998; Habermas 1998; Marshall 2009). Although social work is a part of the state control (especially in the field of social policy), thus by implication it depends on the sources of its funding, it increasingly anchors its activities exactly in the area defined by civil society. Elsen (2000) regards it as a completely natural reaction to the stable expectations of society (including the state) when promoting sustainable development, whereas the state progressively limits its responsibility in these activities, moreover allowing the globalised market to restrict social work in its local form. As a result, social work is confronted daily with products of the existing cooperation between the state and the market – with rising unemployment, a new form of spatial/social segregation, a growing level and extension of poverty. In connection herewith, there is a stronger interest in the concept of social capital which is considered a tool to bridge these inequalities (Coleman 1988; Putnam 2000).

Actions of social work related to tackling the social problems of its clients seem to be no longer sufficient to fulfil its goals and expectations in this context. At a time when it is difficult to presuppose the development and degree of influence of the globalised market, as well as the rate of progression of the

government trend of weakening its control and redistribution function, it is more than crystal clear that social work has to change and/or expand its field of activity (Rodger 2000). Elsen (2000) sees only one possibility for social work on how to protect socially defeated people and groups from the fate of unpredictability. It is through the support of their independent economic production with regard to the production of social benefits, i.e. support of their current and potential social capital. The first and most important step according to the author is the interconnection of social work activities with civil society tied to a specific locality and an effort to support the self-organisation of relevant local or interest groups through their empowerment. (Payne 2005; Schuringa 2007; Henderson, Thomas 2007) If we try to summarise the above-stated facts – as for achieving its goals in contemporary society, social work would apparently benefit from deepening its activities on the macro-level. Specifically, by joining forces with organised and unorganised civil society towards greater emancipation of both of them in relation to the state and the market. The conviction of feasibility of this direction is supported by the cognizance that the form of reformatory and empowering social work is by no means new and unsuccessful (see the beginnings of community work as a method of social work (Popple 1995; Hartl 1997, Gojová 2006)).

INTERDISCIPLINARY COOPERATION OF SOCIAL WORK IN THE SPACE OF CIVIL SOCIETY

Elsen (2010) assumes that the outdated model of economy and social aspects needs to be replaced by a local, sustainable solution to problems while being aware of the global risks. Social work should focus its attention in this direction, with its most important contribution consisting of empowering people to participate in the economic, political, cultural and social life of the community. In response to increasing poverty, social exclusion and unemployment, Elsen presents a concept of the local market. It advances active support to the locally anchored economy while simultaneously promoting the social and economic self-organisation of local resources (Lorenz 2005; Chytil 2007).

ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN SOCIAL WORK

Society expects social work to provide protection to its members against social exclusion, or to offer assistance in their reintegration into society. In a situation when employment is considered to be the basic integration ele-

ment, traditional social work gets into certain troubles due to social work itself is not able to create jobs. (Castel 2003; Blokland-Potter, Savage 2008) In the past, however, other institutions were major players in the field of employment (shielded by the institution of the welfare-state) which, due to the modernisation processes of society, lost their strong position or were divested of the resources necessary to meet the given objectives. Social work should respond to the situation, but it seems that for several years, it has been standing helplessly at a crossroads, hesitating on which way to now go. Succumbing to the dictate of economic thinking and joining the market of services, or insisting on its ethical principles and maintaining the traditional rules of providing its services? The crossroads also offers another way – interconnecting the advantages of both mentioned ways. It means using the elements of (social) economic thinking to achieve its goals, while maintaining the ethical principles of social work. Basically, it is advisable to consider this way because in the field of social economy, business initiatives often appear which declare a social aspect but in fact, they rather use it to conceal their real objectives.

One of the main goals of social economy is to become a legitimate part of the liberalised market as well as the civil society, specifically through mobilising citizens to self-help and mutually beneficial activities (Hunčová 2006). Social economy includes social entrepreneurship defined as an economic activity increasing the chance of disadvantaged persons to find a place in the labour market (Dohnalová in Skovajsa 2010). In the specialised literature of social work, we encounter social entrepreneurship e.g. as one of the objectives of community development. (Payne 2005; Henderson, Thomas 2007; Schuringa 2007; Goldsmith, Burke 2011). It seems that social entrepreneurship is becoming an important concept in the field of social work, but not much attention is given on how to anchor this concept in social work and whether it should be used at all. We might even get the impression that social work (traditionally operating mainly in the field of the public and third sector) is reluctant to enter into a partnership with entities of the market sector.

Entrepreneurship is generally seen as a “process of launching new ideas into practice”, entrepreneurship in social work is regarded as a *building of institutions through entrepreneurial thinking which is accompanied by the ethics of social work and is based on the integration of social services, business and skills in respect of working with the public* (Bent-Goodley 2002: 291). Bent-Goodley (2002) implemented research aimed at defining and understanding entrepreneurship in social work as part of the professional equipment of social workers, and based on its results, she proposes a method and a form of introducing “entrepreneurial training” into the curricula of social work studies. Likewise, the American Council on Social Work Education

(Council on Social Work Education) asks educators in social work to respond to the current state of society and to develop trends which would help social work devise interventions addressing social problems. As an innovative response to this need, precisely entrepreneurship in social work is at hand. According to Young (1991: 62), entrepreneurship in social work may include:... *a new kind of service, a new way of delivering existing services, services provided to new clients, a new financial and organisational arrangement of the service provision, or even revitalisation of a programme in the current organisational framework.* Inclusion of the field of entrepreneurship in education in social work can bring more social aspects into economic thinking and vice versa. From the research of Bent-Goodley (2002) specific skills resulted which a social worker should have – being involved in politics, contributing to community development, understanding communities and a wider society in the historical context (Devore, Schlessinger 1999; Popple 1995).

Yet according to Bent-Goodley, social workers have wasted their business opportunities. Unlike other helping professions which teach students to find their economic goals and to establish their own organisation, social workers are hired to provide case management, clinical and counselling services, and administrative support. While they provide this important service to their clients, other professionals create a structure of the organisation, set the note for professional ethics and profit from creating a service. (Harris 2003, Holasová 2009) If social workers are qualified to provide services to address social problems of clients, they may be equally qualified to create opportunities enabling clients to solve these problems on their own. The training of social workers with a view to seeing themselves as producers of entrepreneurship programmes can help them stop the influence of other professionals in dictating the form of practice of social work services. Kirst-Ashman and Hull wrote about entrepreneurship in social work in this sense, too. (Kirst-Ashman, Hull 2014)

METHODS OF SOCIAL WORK APPLICABLE IN THE CONTEXT OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP¹

If we examine the above text in light of social work, it will in principle clearly direct us towards the field of one of its methods – into the realm of community work.

¹ A part of this chapter was published as a chapter by Gojová, V. of Role of Community Development in the Context of Social Economy (In: Hunčová 2011).

Community work is a summary of methods and techniques used for empowering communities so as to make them capable of self-organising and bridging the gap between excluded groups and the majority of society (Gojová 2006).

There are not only different views on the importance of community work in public space in general, but also in the social work profession. One of them points out that the knowledge and possibilities of community work are becoming increasingly important for the current practice of social work because, with the weakened influence of the welfare state, responsibility is transferred to the local level and thus to community initiatives as well, especially in socially excluded localities/communities (Gojová 2006). The reason of increasing networks among community groups in European countries is the special role of community work in supporting the reconstruction of local economies and social systems, as well as helping to maintain social cohesion (Popple 1995).

Specifically, social economy integrates local resources, including the nonmonetary ones (volunteering, self-help), i.e. the social capital of the community, into economy. A common denominator of social economy entities is their regional focus primarily on the development of local activities and possibilities (the provision of local social services or the creation of jobs in the local community). Likewise, community development emphasises the development of self-help (Popple 1995; Henderson, Thomas 2007).

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AS A METHOD OF SOCIAL WORK APPLICABLE IN THE CONTEXT OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

One of the identified models of community work, whose central feature is the mobilisation of the community for a change, is community development (Popple 1995). The community development approach originally appeared in the context of support to marginalised localities and people from developing countries (Hartl 1997). It can be seen as both a method and a process. The method of community development can be defined as a way of stimulating and influencing changes in a positive direction (Henderson, Thomas, 2007). The process of community development can be perceived as a change which is happening in communities, and aims to create conditions for solving problems (Schuringa, 2007). Community development activities are mainly connected with work in the local community or a community of interests.

The most common models of community development practice consist of support to local organizations, reducing costs/improving quality, increasing revenues, community entrepreneurship, improving skills and abilities, influencing policies (Popple 1995, Henderson, Thomas 2007, Elsen 2007).

COMMUNITY CARE AS A METHOD OF SOCIAL WORK APPLICABLE IN THE CONTEXT OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Community work, focusing on the model of community care, seeks to cultivate social networks and voluntary services in order to achieve the well-being of the population, especially the elderly, persons with disabilities, and in many cases, families with children under 5 years of age (Popple 1995). The community care model concentrates on the development of the concept of self-help towards social needs; it uses paid workers (sometimes referred to as “organizers”) who support people in care and voluntary initiatives.

Traditionally, women are the caregivers in families and communities. Work of this nature is taken for granted, as part of the sphere of privacy and therefore is perceived as irrelevant to the public sphere, which also applies to the notion of citizenship (Kremer 2007). At the same time, caring is not considered as valuable work in the sense of employment (Esping – Andersen 1999). Kremer (2007) extends Marshall’s concept of citizenship (1950) which originally did not include the importance of care for society, which is an essential activity in every society at any given time. In a situation when there is only one person fully burdened with providing care, his/her potential activity on the labour market is fundamentally threatened. In this way, the caregiver becomes economically dependent, which is contrary to the basic condition of full citizenship, i.e. with human activity in the labour market.

Kremer (2007) also reflects the risks which would be brought about by introducing care as a full-value, i.e. paid, activity in the labour market (as required e.g. by Esping-Andersen). Families could pay a special workforce for care or somebody from the family who has been performing these activities (i.e. usually a woman) would be paid for the caregiving activities. But at a price that would still allow somebody in the family to at least be responsible for household care management (even though he/she

does not get paid for it), and e.g. in the case of families with children, knowing that the children need more care than is granted to them through a paid service.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this text is an attempt to find an answer to the question of whether social work could use ideas of social entrepreneurship, resting on the potential of civil society, to achieve its goals. And if so, what form its intervention might take.

On one side of the debate, there is a requirement for the economisation of social work approaching its services as a subject of business. On the other hand, there is a belief that social work must be preserved in its traditional form, i.e. that maintaining its ethics is incompatible with the introduction of elements of economic thinking. A middle way may be application of ideas of the social entrepreneurship concept to support achieving the objectives of social work.

We have tried to outline this situation in community work, or more specifically in its selected models. Initiatives by professionals and/or laymen to promote community care could constitute a field of the economic activities of community members resulting in the establishment of a social enterprise. Such a social enterprise can be thought of as a “product” of community development. However, it is also possible to imagine the stated levels as the business of providing social care. After all, against accusations of marketisation and privatisation, there stands the promotion of a shift in self-help activities towards the business activities of a community for the purpose of ensuring services provided by its members. This argument is supported by the concept of citizenship which cannot be full-valued if it is associated with the economic dependency of citizens.

Community care is concerned with the meeting of needs and the finding of resources for their procurement. In spite of that, it is rather about the work of employees in care services than about the care of the community for itself. An innovative approach of social work can utilise strategies of community development which may lead to the empowerment and involvement of users and to the shared responsibility of small community groups.

The similarity of the current debate on social entrepreneurship – as one of the ways to overcome the crisis of the welfare state by empowering active citizens in the context of a functioning market – with a growing importance of community work in social work practice – as a way of empowering com-

munities to self-organisation – suggests that these two concepts can be applied together and one can find support for achieving its goals in the other. (comparison shown in Table 1).

Table 1. Comparison of indicators of the social dimension of social entrepreneurship and principles of community work

	Social entrepreneurship	Community work
target group	Socially excluded groups/communities/localities, or threatened by social exclusion	Particularly socially excluded/disadvantaged communities/localities
condition	Initiative started by a group/community	Community motivated for change
space	Local/regional level	Local community
decision-making process	Participatory management	Involvement of the community in the whole process, incl. management and decision-making
objective	Benefit for the community	Empowering the community for change

Source: Borzaga, Defourny (2004); Schuringa (2007); Henderson, Thomas (2007), modified by the author.

If we want to identify the relationship of social entrepreneurship and social work in general, in specialised literature we can observe a multitude of perceptions of the relationship of social entrepreneurship and social work, or social services, dependent on the discourse in which the individual authors operate:

1. Social entrepreneurship with social work:

- social entrepreneurship as a tool for financing social work services and thus a tool for its sustainability – the field of social work is equated with the field of social services (Dohnalová 2009; Krajčík, Janák 2012; Šebestová 2012);
- social entrepreneurship as a “trendy” business model² (i.e. corporate social responsibility, philanthropy etc.) (Kuldová 2010, Dizdarevič in Skovajsa 2010).

2. Social entrepreneurship in social work:

- social entrepreneurship as a means for achieving the integration objectives of social work (Campfens, 2006);

² It is not always necessarily about entrepreneurship with social work, but if we start from an objective declared by such business – achieving social change, then we can include this concept of social entrepreneurship here.

- social entrepreneurship as a reaction of social work to the crisis of the welfare state and the diminishing resources of state financial support to social work services (Rodger 2000; Elsen 2007);
- social entrepreneurship as specialised social work for the development of local communities (Elsen 2007; Henderson, Thomas 2007; Schuringa 2007).

The connection of social work and social entrepreneurship should consist of the implementation of activities aimed at the integration of society, or the integration of socially disadvantaged people, or people threatened with being socially disadvantaged into society³.

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³ A theoretical discussion of the integration concept suggests that it is advisable to view this relationship from Lockwood's (alternatively Luhman's) (in: Zollschan, Hirsch 1964) perspective of social integration (inclusion) and system integration (integration).

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Summary

In the first part of this text we will try to discuss what in this area seems to be important for social work as an agent of social change. Of main importance is the second part which suggests the possible inter-disciplinary collaboration of social work and social entrepreneurship, which could support the potential of civil society. All this aims at answering the question of whether social work could use ideas of social entrepreneurship, resting exactly on this potential, to achieve its goals. And if so, what form its intervention might take.

Key words: civil society, social inclusion, social work

INTER-SECTORAL COOPERATION EXEMPLIFIED BY EU FINANCED PROJECTS IMPLEMENTED IN PODKARPACKIE VOIVODESHIP

INTRODUCTION

Polish accession to the European Union opened new possibilities for economic and social development. In order to seize the opportunity to accelerate the development of the country's civilization, Poland, guided by recommendations from the European Commission and the experiences of the *Old Union* countries, kept increasing emphasis on cooperation between the three sectors: public, social, and economic. The said cooperation, also called inter-sectoral cooperation, takes place in different areas but is mainly implemented through project activities financed by the European Fund. Creating this type of partnerships is a difficult task as it requires the close cooperation of the representatives of organisations whose priorities, objectives, and methods of operation may differ considerably.

This article introduces the idea of inter-sectoral partnership based on the author's experience from the implementation of projects in Podkarpackie Voivodeship aimed at assisting people facing social exclusion.

THE IDEA OF INTER-SECTORAL PARTNERSHIP

The idea of partnership between the representatives of different sectors of activity, perceived as an instrument of public policies, was known in Europe as early as the 1920s. Initially, these type of partnerships involved entities from the public sector and the business sector whose primary aim was not only to deliver public services at the local level, but also increase the development potential of local government units (Pawłowska, Gąsior-Niemiec, Kołomycew 2014: 13). This type of partnership was known as a public-private partnership (Pawłowska, Gąsior-Niemiec, Kołomycew 2014: 14).

The public-private partnership between a public institution and a private enterprise is also called a two-sectoral partnership. However, there is a partnership which, in addition to the entities from the above-mentioned sectors,

also involves the social sector and is usually represented by NGOs. This type of partnership is called inter-sectoral. It must be noted, however, that some authors also identify those situations where the private party is represented by a business or social entity as public-private partnerships. This understood partnership of the three sectors was one of the elements of reform in the area of public management since the beginning of the 1990s (Pawłowska, Gąsior-Niemiec, Kołomycew 2014: 15). At that time, partnerships started being recommended – perhaps not as a perfect panacea but certainly as one of the effective instruments in combating unemployment, poverty and social exclusion (comp. Pawłowska, Gąsior-Niemiec, Kołomycew 2014: 15). This was reflected in both European and national legislation. The basic EU regulations related to the principle of partnership are primarily covered by Council Regulations (EC) of 11 July 2006. No. 1083/2006, which lay down the general provisions on the European Regional Development Fund, the European Social Fund and the Cohesion Fund and repealing Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999. When discussing the legal basis in Poland referring to inter-sectoral cooperation, at least several legal acts must be enumerated here. Taking into account the context of social projects, the most important would be: The Act of 05 June 1998 on voivodeship local government (Journal of Laws of 2001 No 142, item 1590, as amended), the Act of 19 December 2008 on public-private partnership, and the Act of 13 June 2003 on social employment (Journal of Laws No 122, item 1143, as amended).

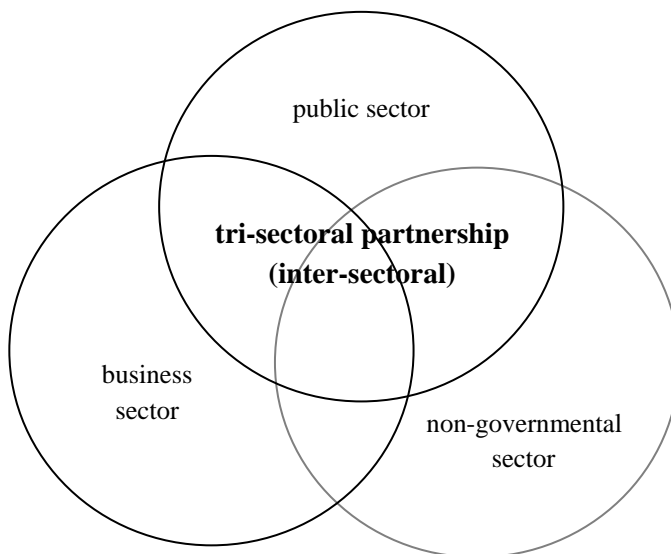


Figure 1. The scheme of a tri-sectoral partnership

An inter-sectoral partnership has been defined in compliance with the applicable regulations. Other numerous definitions can also be found in literature. Having generalised and combined these definitions, we can claim that an inter-sectoral partnership is a strategic alliance of organisations representing the various sectors of social life which are entered into in order to establish a cooperation, to which all partners contribute their expertise and resources, in which they together bear the risks and costs and share the benefits achieved from the common objectives of the partnership and the objectives of the individual partners (comp. Tennyson 2003; Jamrozik, Zmysłowski 2010: 11).

The very typology of partnerships poses some problems. Thus, partnerships can be grouped according to the type of activities, forms of operation, their initiators, the operational goal, or according to the measures taken to achieve the objectives. For the purpose of this article it is worth quoting the classification of partnerships according to the type of activities; the following partnerships can be distinguished here:

- 1) public-private partnership (PPP) which is a contract between a public institution and a private organisation entered into in order to accomplish a specific project in the public arena.
- 2) project partnerships where the objectives of a partnership are strictly defined in the project and the establishment of such a partnership is often associated with competition requirements set by the entity that finances the tasks.
- 3) industry/sector partnerships which are a platform for agreement between organisations/ institutions engaged in related activity.
- 4) local/tri-sectoral partnerships which are an agreement between public institutions, enterprises, and non-governmental organisations that wish to work together for their region, residential area, locality or district.

EXAMPLES OF EU PROGRAMMES FACILITATING INTER-SECTORAL COOPERATION

Projects involving a partnership in the context of acting on behalf of groups threatened with social exclusion in Poland were carried out under at least a few programmes. This article does not aim at discussing all of the kinds of programmes that create opportunities for partnerships, but only indicating those that can pass as a representative of the rest of the funds. Particularly noteworthy here are such programmes as: Leonardo da Vinci, EQUAL Community Initiative and the Operational Programme Human

Capital. Each of them allowed the possibility to establish partnerships, including international ones.

LEONARDO DA VINCI PROGRAMME

The Leonardo da Vinci programme was launched in Europe in 1995. It was three years later that Poland would benefit from the right to participate. At present, the third edition of this programme, implemented as part of a broader program “Lifelong Learning Programme” comes to a close. Starting from 01 January 2014 the “Lifelong Learning Programme” will be replaced by the Erasmus+ Programme (Erasmus+, <http://www.llp.org.pl/>).

The Leonardo da Vinci programme was aimed at stimulating the development of various forms of lifelong learning by supporting cooperation between education and training systems in countries participating in the programme. The program was to contribute to improving the quality and attractiveness of education and vocational training in Europe. Additionally, Leonardo da Vinci supported the mobility of workers in the European labour market so that graduates and employees could acquire new skills during internships and on-the-job training while improving their skills according to modern standards. Especially important here was fostering openness and inter-cultural sensitivity, learning foreign languages and gaining the ability to adapt to living and working conditions in different European countries (Leonardo da Vinci). The programme supported only international activities. Depending on the type of project, one or more foreign partners were necessary to implement the activities. Projects could be implemented in cooperation with partners from the EU member states (this group also includes EFTA-EEA member countries and Switzerland since 2011).

The programme engaged partners representing different sectors. Projects could be implemented by any entity: public, non-public as well as commercial ones. In the Polish edition of the programme participants were mainly universities, schools and training companies. Polish universities were initially evidently reluctant to cooperate with the final beneficiaries of many projects, especially from the economic sector. Further cooperation, however, developed successfully. Although the programme was not directly aimed at assisting people threatened with social exclusion, a number of projects supporting training systems for people in this social category could still be implemented. These projects also allowed the possibility of exchanging experiences between social workers during study visits, exchanges and internships.

EQUAL COMMUNITY INITIATIVE

The EQUAL Community Initiative is a programme launched in 25 EU countries in the years 2000-2006 and financed through the European Social Fund and directly from the budgets of countries participating in the Initiative (EQUAL). The EQUAL Initiative was primarily aimed at testing and promoting new measures of combating all forms of discrimination and inequalities in the labour market; for example, gender, racial, ethnic origin, religion or beliefs, disability, age, or sexual orientation against both those who are employed and those seeking jobs.

The EQUAL Initiative in Poland, which complemented the National Development Plan 2004-2006, was carried out by Development Partnerships and selected by way of a competition. The EQUAL Initiative provided examples of good practice and innovative solutions which, thanks to international cooperation and effective disseminating measures, can be implemented in the many member states of the European Union. The most important elements of the EQUAL programme were: thematic approach, partnership, empowerment of discriminated groups in the partnership (empowerment), transnational cooperation, and innovation and mainstreaming of achieved results (mainstreaming).

The effectiveness of the EQUAL programme was not determined on the basis of the number of direct beneficiaries, but on the quality of the achieved innovative results which would be introduced into widespread use in the labour markets. The scope of activities of the EQUAL Community Initiative in Poland covered five issues:

- 1) Facilitating the access and return to the labour market for those who have difficulty in being integrated or reintegrated into the labour market, in order to promote a labour market which is open to everyone.
- 2) Strengthening domestic social economy (the third sector), particularly the services for local communities and improving job quality.
- 3) Enhancing the adaptability of enterprises and employees to structural economic changes and their use of information technologies and other new technologies.
- 4) Combining family and professional life and the re-integration of those men and women who have left the labour market by developing more flexible and effective forms of work organisation and supportive services.
- 5) Supporting the social and vocational integration of asylum seekers.
- 6) The idea of inter-sectoral partnership in the EQUAL programme was promoted as an optimal instrument to solve social problems (Piotrowski, Włoch 2008: 47). The partnership was indeed (as was previously men-

tioned) one of the basic elements of the programme. Under the programme, 107 out of 751 proposed project initiatives were qualified to be implemented in Poland. Projects were implemented by the Development Partnerships which joined as many as 632 organisations. An average partnership consisted of 6-7 entities. The Development Partnerships (DPs) were administered by different institutions: organisations offering support for discriminated groups (36% Partnerships), education and training organisations (20% Partnerships), higher education schools and research institutions (15% Partnerships), public administration units (national, regional and local – 10% Partnerships) and unions (5% Partnerships) (EQUAL).

THE OPERATIONAL PROGRAMME HUMAN CAPITAL

The Operational Programme Human Capital (OP HC) is one of the programmes financed through European Funds and implemented in Poland in the years 2007-2013. In order to effectively develop human resources, the program focused its support in the following areas: employment, education, social inclusion, development of the adaptive potential of employees and enterprises, as well as issues related to the establishment of an efficient and effective public administration at all levels and to the implementation of good governance. The primary aim of the Programme is employment growth and social cohesion. This goal was to be achieved through the implementation of the following six strategic objectives:

- 1) Raising the level of economic activity and employability of the unemployed and those professionally inactive.
- 2) Reducing areas of social exclusion
- 3) Improving the adaptability of workers and enterprises to changes in the economy
- 4) Dissemination of public education at all educational levels while increasing the quality of educational services and their stronger correlation with the needs of the knowledge-based economy
- 5) Increasing the capacity of public administration in terms of developing policies and providing high quality services, and strengthening partnership mechanisms
- 6) The increase of territorial cohesion (European Funds Portal)
- 7) The programme provided the possibility of implementing the so-called partnership projects under the Act of 7 November 2007 on the amendment of certain acts in connection with the implementation of the Struc-

tural Funds and the Cohesion Fund (new art. 28a of the Act on the principles of development policy). In accordance with the guidelines, a partnership project could be implemented on the basis of a decision or co-financing agreement concluded with the beneficiary acting on behalf of and for the partners to the extent defined in an agreement or partnership agreement. In the case of partnership projects, an agreement or partnership agreement determined in particular the partners' tasks, the principles of shared project management and how the funds were transferred by the beneficiary to cover the necessary costs incurred by the partners for the implementation of tasks in the project.

EXAMPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE IN INTER-SECTORAL COOPERATION ON PROJECTS INVOLVING PEOPLE THREATENED WITH SOCIAL EXCLUSION

The CREIN project

One of the first initiatives in the Podkarpackie region financed through EU funds and involving inter-sectoral partnership was the CREIN project financed under the Leonardo da Vinci programme. The project was implemented in the years 2001–2003 and was to develop effective methods in helping women leaving prison. It was promoted by the Spanish company *Information and Image Management Systems* (Barcelona) and among the project partners were, apart from Polish institutions, enterprises and institutions from France, Italy and Austria.

It has been assumed in the CREIN project that female prisoners should successfully pass the difficult process of reintegration which would enable them to effectively enter the labour market. This process should not only involve overcoming psychological problems, but also completing the necessary qualifications in new information and communication technologies (ICT). Additionally, CREIN assumed a number of activities aimed at sensitising the public and SME employers to the problems of people leaving prison.

Apart from the tangible effects of this project, such as the purchase of computer equipment for female prisoners, the financing of training, and the development of original training programmes, it also resulted in the integration of various institutions in actions aimed at increasing opportunities for ex-prisoners in the labour market. Local government institutions, NGOs and private enterprises alike were involved in the project. What is more, CREIN

created the opportunity to establish contacts and the exchange of experience between the Detention Facility in Rzeszów and other penal institutions of the EU, in this case specifically the prisons in Barcelona and Marseille.

Animator Project

The *Animator Project* was implemented under the EQUAL Community Initiative, with its aim was to create equal opportunities in the labour market in the Podkarpackie region through the joint development and testing of effective mechanisms for professional activation in cooperation with employers, all within the framework of developing and promoting an open labour market. Pursuant to the project's objective, these measures would have been worked out by the so-called Development Partnership, i.e. the association of NGOs, public employment service institutions, educational institutions, social welfare centres, employers and businessmen who supported the objectives of the project and would cooperate with the aim of resolving the problems in the labour market identified by the Partnership¹. The partners for the project were selected in such a way as to take full advantage of the capacities of institutions declaring their involvement in the project. The members of the Development Partnership specialised in various aspects of the labour market and were often located in the furthest parts of the Podkarpackie region. They differed significantly from one another and each day were faced with completely different problems in the labour market which, as a result of cooperation, was to foster innovative solutions (*The Strategies of Animator Project*, http://www.animator.equal.pl/projekt_animator/opis_projektu/) The Partnership included 14 institutions (during project implementation a few partners resigned from the project) which represented NGOs, public employment services, social welfare centres, non-governmental educational institutions, as well as employers and businessmen.

The key objectives of the project include:

- 1) creating an effective system of cooperation (in terms of exchanging information, undertaking joint projects) between organisations from the different sectors (NGOs, local governments at various levels, offices, businesses, social welfare institutions, schools) acting to bridge barriers and eliminate discriminatory practices in local labour markets.
- 2) Providing training and advisory organisations with the results of detailed research and analysis carried out under the project, which would facilitate

¹ The article uses source materials: *The Strategies of Animator Project*, the application of Animator project and the official website of the project (www.rarr.rzeszow.pl/projekty/equal).

the adapting of training programs to the needs of target professional and social groups.

- 3) introducing a new profession to support the labour market, the so-called *Animator*.

The project was successfully completed as the target indicators had been achieved. Another advantage of the project was the fact that, shortly after the project came to a close, the institutions participating in it were able to join the new projects under the partnership formula with less anxiety.

INNOVATION PROJECT – A MODEL OF COOPERATION FOR LABOUR MARKET INSTITUTIONS AND THE LABOUR MARKET

One of the most interesting project proposals implemented under the Operational Programme Human Capital (OP HC) was aimed at promoting inter-sectoral cooperation and entitled: *An innovative model of cooperation for labour market institutions and the labour market*. Although this project was not considered a partnership project, according to the formal division applied in OP HC it is worth a brief discussion here due to its pro-partnership overtone. The main objective of the project was to bridge gaps in communication and the flow of information between public and non-public institutions, the labour market, and social welfare services. This aim was achieved by developing a model of cooperation between the aforementioned institutions. The developed model compiled ICT tools and traditional methods improving communication. The following must be included here: 1) a web platform used to encourage and initiate cooperation between private and public labour market institutions and social welfare institutions, 2) a model training programs for employees of private and public labour market institutions and social welfare institutions, 3) organising meetings with a team of experts, 4) a helpline which is the source of current information for the institutions participating in the project. The project garnered much attention of public and private labour entities. The main advantages of the project include: more efficiently organised cooperation and the flow of knowledge through modules offered in the on-line platform, improving the competence of the institutions' personnel through training such as e-learning, quick access to information on the planned initiatives and projects, along with the possibility of searching for partners using innovative tools.

CONCLUSION

Implementation of projects financed from European Union funds creates new opportunities for cooperation between the different actors across sectors. So far, a significant number of projects for solving social problems have already been implemented in the Podkarpackie region. Some of these projects have been implemented under the formula of inter-sectoral cooperation (Szluż, 2013: 7-11). However, organisational practices and procedures provided different experiences. Part of the projects were implemented without many difficulties, while the implementation of others entailed a lot of misunderstanding and tension which were difficult to ease. There were several causes of these difficulties. Three of them are especially noteworthy.

Firstly, developing principles of cooperation between a local government and NGOs or businesses is sometimes forced from above (as e.g. required by a project). Therefore, such cooperation was sometimes established not out of authentic need but of *formal* constraint.

Secondly, based on several known cases it could be said that local governments do not treat NGOs as a full partner. A local government tends to play the role of *the dominant one* in negotiations.

Thirdly, projects involved organisations of all sizes, resources, methods of management, and above all with varying experience in the implementation of EU projects. All this resulted in communication problems and tension in the relations between partners.

Undoubtedly, apart from the project goals which were mostly achieved, another advantage which is not to be underestimated is the multitude of experience acquired by organisations. Projects which purposely involved or allowed for the possibility of inter-sectoral partnership are a kind of testing ground, as the institutions that carry out such projects and then successfully pass the stages of tax audits, internal and external audits, and ministerial control expect it to bring positive results in future projects.

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Summary

After Polish accession to the European Union there emerged a lot of new opportunities to create and develop cooperation between the three sectors: public, social and economic. This cooperation was and is implemented on the ground of projects financed from the EU funds. However, creating these types of partnerships is a difficult task as it requires the close cooperation of representatives from the organisations whose priorities, objectives and methods of operation may differ considerably. The article presents the idea of inter-sectoral partnership based on the author's experience from the implementation of projects aimed at assisting those people threatened with social exclusion and which were implemented in Podkarpackie Voivodeship.

Key words: Inter-sectoral cooperation, projects, European Fund, social exclusion

CULTURAL ANTHROPOLOGY AND ITS PRACTICAL DIMENSION IN PROJECTS WHICH INCLUDE CROSS-SECTOR PARTNERSHIP

Cross-sector partnership can play a major role in initiatives which aim at solving present-day social issues. This article focuses on the possibilities and consequences of cooperation between the public and the social sectors. Higher education institutions – more precisely, one of the main Polish universities – are hereby seen as the representative of the first sector. The second, public sector is hereby represented by non-governmental institutions, those active in Poland as well as abroad.

Further presented in this article are the numerous benefits which stem from the inclusion of Cultural Anthropology in the debate concerning solving various social problems in regards to cross-sector partnership. By which – in terms of definition – I understand the cooperation of various sectors, which may result in unprecedented and revolutionary resolutions. Furthermore, anthropology has the potential to encompass all elements of cross-sector partnership, as well as to employ initiatives which are necessary for solving contemporary socio-political matters.

It is however necessary to clarify in a few words what exactly cultural anthropology is, and what its main assumptions are. The encyclopedic definition which can be found in most books today – which defines anthropology as the science which studies humans, the diversity and intricacy of their systems and cultures – seems to lack substance, and is quite unsatisfactory in terms of its practical dimension (Hann 2008: 3). All of the above mentioned characteristics are undoubtedly true, they do not, however, clarify how anthropology works in practice. Chris Hann, a British anthropologist, highlights the pragmatics of anthropology, as he notices that the discipline can prove helpful in choosing and applying scientific knowledge in a most-favourable way which suits the cultural context. Additionally, anthropologists have the ability to appreciate local knowledge not only because such knowledge facilitates technical problem solving in the natural, local environment, but also because it proves to have – in itself – major cultural value. Hann believes that anthropological research will prove extremely valuable on

the terrain of Eastern-Europe. One of his major examples is the isolation of ethnic minorities which dwell in most large European cities, especially London and Paris. According to him new research being carried out on this subject can have a more positive influence on the relationship between different ethnic groups than was the case so far (Hann 2008: 255, 256).

Such an approach may in some ways resemble the assumptions of applied anthropology, which in many cases treats the participants of an experiment as *objects of well-planned and developed tests, created by uninvolved, outside investigators/experimenters. The outcome of the tests is then being implemented (also from a superior position) into the lives of the participants* (Červinková, Gołębniak 2010: 13-14). Hann, however, notices how invalid such an approach is, in which anthropologists are seen as those who are actively engaged in the development of societies, in a way in which they should increasingly resemble themselves. *The main objective of an anthropologist is not to condemn the practices which have evolved as a part of some cultural tradition of a peoples. (...) Firstly we should support dialogue* (Hann 2008: 257). In this context, any change can be seen as a form of adaptation rather than deconstruction of culture. This means that anthropologists can learn as much from societies they research, as those societies can learn from the anthropologists.

Tomasz Rakowski is another important voice speaking on behalf of the practical aspect of the responsible role of anthropologists. Involvement, in his opinion, does not mean implementing values, which seem to be 'natural' and a given in one's own environment. Such an anthropological programme is completely different from typical modernising actions, in the sense that it attributes the greatest value to the experiences of the researched group. An anthropologist should *accept (...) this other, foreign way of functioning in a social group – full of social anxieties – as the existing one, together with its baggage. (...) The engagement in the problems of the groups in question requires a certain restraint from acting in the spirit of the obvious values of one's own, dominant culture, which could seem beneficial to foreign society* (Rakowski 2007: 156, 157).

In view of this context of the practical aspects of anthropology, I believe that anthropologists possess all the necessary tools for excellent aid in terms of cross-sector partnership. With a focus on respect for diversity, the understanding of the role which difference plays in society, as well as the fact that some elements which are acceptable in one sphere will not necessarily be effective or appropriate in a culturally different environment. Another aspect of an anthropologist's work which should not be overlooked – their disinterested and unbiased approach. This means that even if some project is financed by external sources, an anthropologist – in most cases – will attempt

to act in a way which complements the interests of the institution itself (Buchowski: 1995: 60-70; Firth 1965: 226-238).

* * *

Taking into account the volume restrictions of this article it briefly summarises the most important characteristics of anthropology, which can prove useful in the process of implementing cross-sector projects. In a further section of the text I would like to share my experiences in terms of the practical use of anthropology. Therefore, I present two international projects which exemplify cooperation between the first sector represented by The University of Wrocław Department of Ethnology and Cultural Anthropology and the third sector represented by non-governmental institutions (NGO) from Lithuania and Moldavia. The main aim of the aforementioned project was social integration in the broadest sense of the term. In many cases the implementation of practical as well as theoretical anthropological experiences had a positive influence on the effect and character of undertaken actions.

The first of the described projects involved a seven-day stay of Polish and Lithuanian groups in a small village in the Vilnius region. Glinčiszki – the location of the project was a village inhabited mainly by Poles. During preparation we realised that in the place we visited, there were various disagreements between members of the local community. By taking action in order to integrate different national groups in such an environment, continuous change associated with the influence of the environment was a logical assumption to be made. Therefore, the project – which originally assumed the integration of two specific groups – evolved. Methodology used in this project made it possible to *draw* the local community into participation. It should be noted, however, that in the same way that the project had an impact on the environment in which it was implemented; the environment influenced the entire project. The effect of this treatment was an improvement in dialogue between Poles and Lithuanians living in Glinčiszki. With each day the project became increasingly more open to participants from outside. The original design, which focused on the integration of the twenty-four people, eventually transformed. However, the target remained unchanged, while the number of people within the coverage of the project expanded. The project proved too short to become a thorough examination of the origins of conflicts between ethnic groups – it even became doubtful whether this conflict was based on ethnic issues, or whether this was just our initial impression. In view of these uncertainties we decided to limit the activities which allowed for situations in which dialogue between all the

inhabitants of the village was possible. Our goal was not to solve all existing conflicts but to stimulate further changes. We expected that, after we left, some changes might appear that would have a positive impact on the relationships within the local community. The project had become a kind of *spark* for action. Such an effect could only have been achieved by using methods which assume active involvement on the part of the local environment in the realisation of previously planned objectives.

The participants of the discussed project all agreed that the best way to integrate with others were activities that required working with a partner. This confirms the belief that any goal pursued within a group of people brings them together. This seemingly trivial issue was crucial for the development of the methods used during our stay in Gliniszki. It is important to note that nobody imposed the nature of activities on the participants. The only requirement made by the organisers was that the groups be mixed in terms of ethnicity. All members of the groups debated together to find something that really interested everyone. This approach allowed us to create a number of focus groups in which participants performed activities which were pre-scheduled by them.

One group decided that it would focus on the preparation and execution of a film, which would provide both project documentation as well as introduction of local reality. The process of collecting audiovisual material in a group, searching for the best shots and all other related activities proved to effectively bring the Polish and Lithuanian youths together. The second group contacted a local kindergarten and offered their assistance with entertaining children. The project participants made sure that the children – while having fun together – sought to achieve a particular purpose. The organisation of such activities had an immensely positive impact on the mutual integration of the participants. The third group was responsible for organisational issues, which increased the level of mutual trust between all groups. As it turned out, the fourth group proved to have the largest impact on the project. Its members were to venture out and approach the local community in regards to their interest in the subject of Polish-Lithuanian integration. Taking into account the specific space in which the project was implemented, we realised that we should be particularly receptive to the environment. With this in mind we were able to contribute to such changes, which would bring tangible benefits. This was also reflected in the methods that were used for integration. We all agreed that interviews with the Gliniszki community would be the best option. The use of traditional anthropological methods had an excellent outcome. This allowed not only for the mutual integration of the project participants, but also allowed them to get closer to the local commu-

nity. The recurring themes of the conversations were issues related to the relationship between Poles and Lithuanians in the Vilnius region. Furthermore, the researchers gathered all sorts of items, which would then become exhibits in local ethnographic museum. Eventually, due to the activity of *anthropological groups* the residents of Gliniszki opened up and willingly participated in all activities.

The process of integration between Polish and Lithuanian groups was not only limited to group activities. In fact, these young people set a common goal which would be the organisation and execution of a festival (residents of the area participated in the festival as well). The event was a nice finishing touch to the entire undertaking. The members of the project had the opportunity to observe the extent to which they were able to integrate within a few days. On the other hand, for the local community a picnic was a great opportunity to meet one another – the perfect situation in which dialogue between Poles and Lithuanians became possible.

Analysing the conflict existing between Polish and Lithuanian minorities was only possible through a longer residency in their village. The time limit, however, prevented a more thorough analysis of their problems. Therefore, the participants decided not to look for the solution to each conflict, but rather for ways of activating the local population. This meant the creation of platforms which would enable dialogue between the groups that previously did not get along very well. Joint participation in the festival as well as taking part in interviews with *the anthropology group* are examples of activities which made this possible. Even if we did not manage to resolve all disputes, these activities certainly had a positive impact on the residents of the village. The project made interaction possible, although many of its positive effects may not appear until sometime in the future.

The second example of a partnership project which I would like to present as an example of cross-sector partnership took place in Moldova. The project was carried out under the Youth in Action Programme which took place in June 2012 with the cooperation of fourteen students from the Department of Ethnology and Cultural Anthropology of the University of Wrocław and ten Moldovans from one of the NGO's in Moldova

Two groups of Polish and Moldovan students both decided to carry out a project, whose main goals would be: integration of youth, with a focus on the role of diversity in different cultures and an indication of some crucial characteristics of the European Union. Amongst the many methods which could allow for the achievement of the objectives the students chose cooking. Preparing meals together not only integrated the groups, but also made the achievement of other goals possible. Discussions on the nature of the dishes

combined with analysing the broader cultural context associated with their preparation made for a starting point in the discussion of both cultural similarities and differences. Dishes from different parts of Europe could also prove to be a valuable contribution to the discussion on the values characteristic to the individual countries of Western Europe, as well as those essential for Moldovans. Although cooking and cuisine were the main themes of the project they were not simultaneously the only priority. Yet, cooking remained an important element of the implementation of the initiative as issues related to the process of preparing food and the ingredients used often times provoked discussions on cultural differences and similarities.

I do not wish to further analyse the goals as well as the course of the project, since this is of no relevance to this article. However, I will focus rather on the methodology used throughout the project, and what significance joint activities in the kitchen had on the realisation of the project and its goals.

Activities concerning cooking are characterised by one basic principle which had a major impact on the nature of this project. It is primarily the desire to achieve a common goal while predicting and planning the actions ahead. This necessitated constant dialogue between the participants in the study. The preparation of meals not only worked as an integrating method, but also allowed for the free expression of cultural diversity thanks to mutual learning about different culinary habits. Another important feature of such initiatives is their openness factor. Preparing meals together out in the open air met with a live response from the local community. The dishes prepared together were then served during the nighttime festival. Thanks to such a structure, the local community initiated interaction with members of the project. No one motivated anyone to start a conversation. The preparation of meals and working together towards a common goal brought as many positive outcomes as the spontaneous reactions of the local community did. Joint preparation of meals created a platform on which completely natural and unconstrained interaction took place.

It is the spontaneity factor which may turn out to be the main value of projects that involve cross-sector partnership as it allows us to learn about specific problems directly from those involved. In an ideal world – after consulting the local community – we would be able to develop a solution model to specific problems which we could then implement. In practice however, this is difficult to achieve. The reasons could stem both from financial or time limits. Therefore, even if it is not possible to prepare a specific solution, one should consider how to lead to a situation in which after one's departure the problem will eventually be solved in the framework of the local community (Kammis, McTaggart 2010: 810). One should of course keep in

mind that all solutions must be implemented on a level of dialogue and mutual understanding.

Undoubtedly, such a project may have a beneficial effect on the local economy, which – in the case of the poor environment of Moldova – is of utmost importance. Additionally, the participants had the opportunity to get to know completely different circumstances. Moldova is a country which aspires to closer relations with the European Union. Such an initiative could allow for the community to learn about the European Union, about its advantages and disadvantages. Thanks to such an initiative the EU stopped being known for its political speeches, and became something which could be directly experienced by the people. Anthropologists had the opportunity to learn about the local reality. Within the framework of the project, interacting with the local community became much easier. The project made activities such as collecting material during a simple conversation more natural than through a formal interview. The effects of such meetings are research inspirations as well as written articles describing, for example, Moldovan cuisine (Bandyga 2012: 1-43).

The examples of the aforementioned projects prove that it is possible to implement such an undertaking which requires cross-sector partnership while using the theoretical and empirical basis of such an academic discipline as anthropology. Cooperation between academic institutions with NGO's can have an extremely beneficial effect on social integration. The above mentioned examples of projects prove that, nowadays, anthropologists, in addition to performing their own tasks and objectives – as it was somewhat inscribed in their discipline – have a rich multitude of experience that they can successfully contribute to solving current social problems.

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Summary

Cross-sector partnership can play a major role in initiatives which aim at solving present-day social issues. This article focuses on the possibilities and consequences of cooperation between the public and the social sectors. Higher education institutions – more precisely, one of the main Polish universities – are hereby seen as the representative of the first sector. The second, public sector is hereby represented by non-governmental institutions, those active in Poland as well as abroad. Further presented in this article are the numerous benefits which stem from the inclusion of Cultural Anthropology in the debate concerning solving various social problems in regards to cross-sector partnership. By which – in terms of definition – I understand the cooperation of various sectors, which may result in unprecedented and revolutionary resolutions. Furthermore, anthropology has the potential to encompass all elements of cross-sector partnership, as well as to employ initiatives which are necessary for solving contemporary socio-political matters.

Key words: cultural anthropology, project, cross-sector partnership

OPPORTUNITIES FOR DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL WORK IN CZECH SCHOOLS

INTRODUCTION

Analysis of the relevant Czech legislation in the area of education system demonstrates that there are no legislative prerequisites for establishing the position of school social worker (Pešatová, Matulayová 2013). At present, there are no institutions of tertiary education system in the Czech Republic which would prepare and train the social workers for being a specialist in the school environment. There are social workers employed in the school sector, yet their job description covers administration rather than assistance provided in a professional manner. It can be concluded, that the profession of school social work is unrecognised in this system.

There are several causes of the current state which appears unsatisfactory from the perspective of social work. One of them is the fact that the counselling system at schools was built in the 1970's. Those days, due to ideology, social work was no longer institutionalised as a profession in the Czech society. Thus, the counselling system was built as a space for providing services of specialised pedagogical and psychological profession.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This article offers partial findings of the search for answer to the following research question: *Are the conditions for establishing the position of school social worker fulfilled in the Czech education system?* Theoretical background for this research is formed by the theory of postmodern institutionalisation of social work (Mousil 2008; 2012). Libor Musil has dealt with the issues of identity and institutionalisation of social work on a long-term basis. In his most recent articles, he discusses the differences of institutionalisation processes in the modern and postmodern age. He draws on the characteristics of modern and postmodern age as defined in sociology. The modern age, which gave rise to

social work as a profession and science, is for example characterised by the so-called grand theories (projects) and trust in the possibilities of expert professions. The postmodern age, characterised by uncertainty, fragmentation and relativism, requires new methods of profession institutionalisation, suggests Musil. What are the conditions for institutionalisation of social work? Applying Musil's definition of conditions for institutionalisation, the representatives of the professions which have already been established within the education should be able to identify the specific problems to be managed and addressed by the social worker, and to admit that they need to be addressed using the methods of social work. Other conditions include the fulfilment of expectations held by the society and potential clients, i.e. that the school social workers will offer help to those who are confronted with the specific problems.

In the Czech education system and its environment, where the position of school social worker is not established, to know whether the conditions for postmodern institutionalisation are fulfilled at least partial, one inevitably needs to obtain some evidence from the research.

The research should be focused on finding the answers to the following questions: "What kind of help can be provided by the school social workers being different from that provided by teachers, special pedagogues, psychologists?", "What services do they offer?", "What kind of problems or troubles of pupils, their parents and families are school social workers able to manage differently than the other professionals?", "What are the specific method(s) they can use to address these problems?", "What can teachers, special pedagogues or psychologists expect from school social workers?".

METHODOLOGY

The goal of the research mapping the opinions of pedagogues, counsellors and social workers concerning the possibilities and barriers of establishing a hitherto non-existent position of school social worker, was to obtain the initial data, the first research evidence. A quantitative methodology was used. Data collection was carried out by the students involved in the research. The specifically designed questionnaire was tested at the pre-research stage. It comprised 21 questions (of which 7 pertains to identification). Individual questions were formulated as closed. They were concentrated on 6 areas: roles of social workers in school; managing the problems which should also involve the school social workers; activities of social workers in school, the performance of which should increase the success rate of pupils in school; target groups which the social worker should cooperate with; obstacles and conditions for establishing the position of school social worker.

We have searched for the answers to the following research questions:

- In which areas of cooperation do the representatives of individual professions (special pedagogues, psychologists, teachers, social workers) declare the need for establishing the position of social worker?
- Which areas of problems are considered by the representative of individual professions as the domain of social workers?
- Which competences would the representative of individual professions share with social workers?
- Which target group would have the highest priority for school social workers?
- Which subject or entity should be the employer of school social workers?
- What kind of employment relationship should school social workers have with the employer?
- What obstacles hinder the institutionalisation of school social work in the Czech education system?
- Which conditions should be fulfilled to have the profession of school social worker established in the Czech education system?

The examined group was comprised of 648 respondents professionally active in the school sector across the Liberec Region and the Ústí nad Labem Region, willing to participate and be engaged in the research. In the statistics of the school sector, the Liberec Region and the Ústí nad Labem Region belong to those with the highest degree of exposure to social exclusion among pupils.

The proportionality of professions involved in the research corresponds with the practice. Seventy percent of respondents were pedagogues (incl. teachers, special pedagogues, prevention tutors, school counsellors, principals and other representatives of schools). Sixteen per cent of respondents were counsellors working at the counselling offices, and fourteen per cent were social workers.

PUPILS FROM SOCIALLY DISADVANTAGED ENVIRONMENT IN CZECH ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

What specific problems should the social worker manage and address in schools? The problem identification is based on the current discourse of academics and pedagogues, as presented in the specialised literature and statistics issued by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. Social worker is an expert at social environment, he/she contributes to the promotion of social justice and enforcement of children's rights. Through his/her activity,

he/she help achieve the proper social functioning, solution to the life situations and hurdles in the interpersonal relations (interactions).

With reference to this brief definition of mission and job description of social work, another partial topic, being currently under discussion concerning the Czech school and education system, is that of interpersonal relations and interactions. The discussion covers such topics as the atmosphere in schools, especially between teachers, pupils and parents. In general, identified problems include a lack of discipline in certain portion of pupils, connected with lax attitude to parenting, which is primarily caused by the existence and proportion of single-parent families and family dysfunctions (Čáp, Mareš 2001; Matějček 2002; Matoušek, Kroftová 2003; Marková 2007; Lazarová 2011).

In this context, the discussion also covers the occurrence of risk phenomena in school. Another subject of discussion is the demonstrable increase in education-related, social and health problems in pupils and their families which is also confirmed by the research results (Kuchařová, Broulíková 2002; Pešatová 2007; Česká Školní Inspekce 2013).

Major topics also include: issues related to leisure time, communication in the school environment, management of difficult life situations of pupils and their families, as well as the issues concerning poverty and social exclusion.

Children and youth in all types of schools encounter problematic, anxious, difficult and demanding, distressing, psycho-traumatic, frustrating (i.e. interfering with adequate satisfaction of one's needs, interests, goals), depriving (leading to destitution) and conflict situations, processes and states which may impact their health (i.e. physical, mental and social comfort) (Kohoutek 2012).

Even if the current statistics of the Czech Ministry of Education show that the average percentage of pupils from socially disadvantaged environment is only 0.8 (Česká Školní Inspekce 2013), they also mention the persisting problem with economic provision of welfare benefits for pupils suffering from social disadvantage. The aforementioned statistics imply that the greatest proportion of pupils with special education needs was seen in the school year 2011/2012 (Česká Školní Inspekce 2013) in the Ústí nad Labem Region – 22% as against the nationwide average of 12.5%.

The important question is the failure rate of pupils, evaluated on the basis of the number of pupils who need to repeat the class. The ČSI annual report (Česká Školní Inspekce 2013), for example, implies that the Liberec and Ústí nad Labem Regions, which belong to the regions with the highest number of socially excluded communities, take the lowest places in the evaluation of the first nationwide general examination.

Among the major causes of such a failure and poor records of pupils the teachers often mention (Česká Školní Inspekce 2013) a less stimulating family background (52%), difficulty with focusing attention (41.1%) and intellectual immaturity (32.5%), dependence and insufficient work habits (25.9%).

IDENTIFICATION OF SPECIFIC PROBLEM OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK

Respondents were offered a list of eleven problems identified on the basis of the previous analysis of the academic and pedagogic discourse. They were asked to fill in their opinion on each problem, namely whether they consider it appropriate to involve the school social workers in the solution thereof (Table 1).

It is evident that the majority of respondents (irrespective of their profession) believe that developmental disorders, neurotic problems and learning difficulties should not be addressed by school social workers. On the other hand, problems with learning resulting from a different language and cultural environment of the pupil, irregular attendance, truancy, behavioural disorders, bullying or creating a healthy social climate in school are seen by the respondents as problems the solution of which requires involvement of school social workers.

IDENTIFICATION OF SPECIFIC METHOD FOR PROBLEM SOLUTION

In its opening part, the article pointed out to the problem of success rate of pupils in school. The research examined whether the respondents think that school social workers would contribute to an increased success rate in school. Respondents were offered thirteen activities which correspond to the basic activities of social workers, as determined e.g. by the applicable legislation in the field of social services and social-legal protection of children and youth in the Czech Republic. All these activities are seen by the respondents from all three professions (i.e. pedagogues, counsellors and social workers) as helpful for increasing the pupils' success rate in school. These activities include: early diagnosis of the pupil's exposure to danger, searching (depistage), crisis intervention, remedial activity, social counselling, creating equal opportunities, work with parents, school and family mediation, collaboration with selected institutions in dealing with individual cases, acquisition of resources, communication with media and other organisations (Table 2).

Table 1. Pupils from socially disadvantaged environment in Czech elementary schools

Problem	YES						NO					
	pedagogues/%		counsellors/%		social workers/%		pedagogues/%		counsellors/%		social workers/%	
1 developmental disorders	107	16.85	23	3.62	14	2.20	338	53.23	80	12.60	73	11.50
2 neurotic problems	129	20.25	19	2.98	20	3.14	319	50.08	83	13.03	67	10.52
3 learning difficulties	139	21.72	23	3.59	27	4.22	312	48.75	79	12.34	60	9.38
4 problems with learning resulting from a different language and cultural environment of the pupil	320	50.31	64	10.06	64	10.06	129	20.28	37	5.82	22	3.46
5 problems with learning resulting from socially disadvantaged environment of the pupil's family	396	61.97	83	12.99	74	11.58	54	8.45	19	2.97	13	2.03
6 irregular school attendance, repeated lateness, truancy	407	63.40	93	14.49	79	12.31	45	7.01	10	1.56	8	1.25
7 behavioural disorders	239	37.34	60	9.38	45	7.03	210	32.81	44	6.88	42	6.56
8 problematic behaviour of pupils towards authorities	271	42.34	73	11.41	52	8.13	179	27.97	30	4.69	35	5.47
9 disputes and quarrels among pupils	186	29.38	48	7.58	51	8.06	257	40.60	56	8.85	35	5.53
10 bullying, cyberbullying	286	45.11	76	11.99	51	8.04	158	24.92	27	4.26	36	5.68
11 creating a healthy social climate in school	293	45.64%	82	12.77	63	9.81	158	24.61	22	3.43	24	3.74

Prevailing response for each sub-group is in **bold facetype**.

Absolute numbers express the number of valid votes.

Relative numbers are given in lines.

Table 2. Identification of specific method for problem solution

1	2	Activities	YES						NO					
			pedagogues/%		counsellors/%		social workers/%		pedagogues/%		counsellors/%		social workers/%	
			3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1		early diagnosis of the pupil's exposure to danger	359	56.36	91	14.29	74	11.62	90	14.13	10	1.57	13	2.04
2		searching activity with a view to find pupils in material and social distress	343	53.85	88	13.81	71	11.15	104	16.33	15	2.35	16	2.51
3		crisis intervention	338	53.74	84	13.35	74	11.76	103	16.38	17	2.70	13	2.07
4		remedial activity, which incorporates all the measures that are necessary for achieving a positive change in the pupil's behaviour with a view to relieve material or social distress	373	58.28	84	13.13	70	10.94	77	12.03	19	2.97	17	2.66
5		social counselling aimed at identification of severity and nature of material or social distress	397	62.32	84	13.19	73	11.46	52	8.16	18	2.83	13	2.04
6		social counselling aimed at recommending the provision of professional counselling services to parents and pupils by specialised institutions	396	61.78	98	15.29	76	11.86	54	8.42	6	0.94	11	1.72

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
7	creating equal opportunities in education for pupils from socially excluded groups	323	51.03	81	12.80	62	9.79	120	18.96	22	3.48	25	3.95
8	work with pupils' parents, using methods of social work combined with methods of adult education	339	53.22	86	13.50	65	10.20	108	16.95	17	2.67	22	3.45
9	school and family mediation	293	46.81	83	13.26	51	8.15	146	23.32	17	2.72	36	5.75
10	collaboration with selected institutions in dealing with individual cases	388	60.91	98	15.38	79	12.40	58	9.11	6	0.94	8	1.26
11	support in creating the multi-cultural school environment	319	50.55	83	13.15	69	10.94	123	19.49	19	3.01	18	2.85
12	acquiring the resources, e.g. through projects or media coverage	267	42.05	64	10.08	50	7.87	179	28.19	38	5.98	37	5.83
13	communication with media and other organisations in the area of social work, as delegated by the founder	262	41.32	65	10.25	52	8.20	183	28.86	37	5.84	35	5.52

Prevailing response for each sub-group is in **bold facetype**.

Absolute numbers express the number of valid votes. Relative numbers are given in lines.

COMPETENCES OF THE SCHOOL SOCIAL WORKER

The contents of the specific activity of the social workers in schools are based on the mission, tasks and contents of the so-called general social work. Concurrently, it reflects the specific features of the school environment, the needs of the pupils, their families and pedagogues. Social services are a part of the package of services provided to the pupils and their families. Owing to the variety of services offered by the general social work as well as its unclear identity (Musil 2008) and different national conditions, one can easily see a relatively wide spectrum of activities carried out by the school social workers around the world. In this context, Speck (2009) points out to other determinants in the diversity of services offered. These determinants include: the initial theoretical conception of school social work, type of school and specific regional conditions. Legislation concerning the performance of school social work in individual countries is another important determinant.

The contents of the activities performed by the school social workers has been researched since 1925 when Julius Oppenheimer (Allen-Meares 2004) analysed 300 case studies concerning the activities of the so-called “visitin-teachers” in the United States. The research identified 32 key functions. Among the most important, Oppenheimer (Allen-Meares 2004) identified the concentration on the reorganised school practice and adverse conditions which cause various problems among children.

At present, the recent literature describes a wide range of definitions of the social workers’ activities. Thus, Linda Openshaw (Openshaw 2008) summarised the activities to identify four basic roles that are common to the school social workers around the world. These include: counselling/consulting; situation assessment; direct intervention and help with the design and development of programmes aimed primarily at children. Definition of the contents of these tasks corresponds to the definition of methods applied and services provided by social work. In the framework of the direct service, social workers apply the social work methods in situations where they influence the educational development of pupils. These situations are for example advocacy and counselling. In relation to the community and for the sake of communication between the school and the community, the school social workers directly provide coordination/negotiation, resource raising and participation in the positive image of the school. In relation to the school as an organisation, they participate in the work, resource and time management. Important area of the social workers’ operation is self-education and self-improvement.

It is worth mentioning that school social workers, as experts at social environment, provide not only the services to the pupils and their families. They also have various functions related to the school as an institution, where they play an important integration role in the sphere of social prevention, intervention and in producing positive changes in the pupils' educational progress and achievements. They help schools in fulfilling their social functions (educational, educative, qualification, integration, selective, allocation, protective) by mediating and coordinating the services of all subjects (school, family, community, social-legal protection bodies, etc.) involved in the social development of the youth.

Allen-Meares (2004) emphasises the importance of the social worker's activities in the inter-disciplinary teams of experts from public schools and the environmental mission of school social work in creating a healthy, school and family environment. Sabatino (2006) describes the school social workers as experts assessing the psycho-social factors which create barriers for the pupils in the course of learning.

The issues concerning the contents of the school social workers' activities have been long discussed in the Czech-Slovak literature on social work in spite of the absence of any legislation governing the conditions for performance of school social work in the Czech and the Slovak Republics. Analysis of the current state of this discourse was conducted by Lipčaková (2012).

The summary of all activities carried out by the school social workers, as discussed in the literature home and abroad, implies that their specific feature lies in the emphasis on the school social environment. The eco-system perspective of social work, which reflects complex interactions and exchanges between various types of environment and the person in the particular environment (Payne 2005) appears to be suitable for understanding and recognition of specific nature of social services in the school environment. School social workers have all necessary competences used for interventions in the interpersonal relations and system relationships in various types of environment. Their all-round activity helps pupils and their families in coping with social functions and the school in accomplishing its mission of a social institution.

The following Tables 3 to 8 illustrate the competences of the school social workers. The questions apply the functionalist approach and the functions have been adapted according to the ASSW functions.

Who should primarily assess the family environment of the pupils in the event of any problem?

Table 3. Assessment of the pupils' family environment if a problem arises

Respondents	Psychologist	Social worker	Specialised pedagogue	Teacher	Total
pedagogic staff	49	127	163	117	456
	7.6%	19.6%	25.2%	18.1%	70.4%
counselling staff	13	28	34	30	105
	2.0%	4.3%	5.2%	4.6%	16.2%
welfare personnel	3	47	16	21	87
	0.5%	7.3%	2.5%	3.2%	13.4%
total sum	65	202	213	168	648
	10.0%	31.2%	32.9%	25.9%	100.0%

Table 3 indicates that the majority of the pedagogic staff (163) think that the family environment of pupils, in the event of problems, should be assessed by a specialised pedagogue (which accounts for 25% of the respondents), the majority of the counselling staff (34) is of the same opinion. On the other hand, the majority of the welfare personnel (47) believe a social worker is the right person for this task.

Who should primarily organise the preventive activities aimed at the prevention of socio-pathological phenomena in schools?

Table 4. Organising the preventive activities aimed at the prevention of socio-pathological phenomena in schools

Respondents	Psychologist	Social worker	Specialised pedagogue	Teacher	Total
pedagogic staff	49	258	58	91	456
	7.6%	39.8%	9.0%	14.0%	70.4%
counselling staff	11	72	9	13	105
	1.7%	11.1%	1.4%	2.0%	16.2%
welfare personnel	4	48	17	18	87
	0.6%	7.4%	2.6%	2.8%	13.4%
total sum	64	378	84	122	648
	9.9%	58.3%	13.0%	18.8%	100.0%

Table 4 indicates that an absolute majority (58%) was in favour of a social worker. This means that it should be a social worker who organises the pre-

ventive activities aimed at the prevention of socio-pathological phenomena in schools?

Who should primarily cooperate with the pupils' families, social care authorities and other institutions and organisations?

Table 5. Cooperation with the pupils' families, social care authorities and other institutions and organisations

Respondents	Psychologist	Social worker	Specialised pedagogue	Teacher	Total
pedagogic staff	31	166	76	183	456
	4.8%	25.6%	11.7%	28.2%	70.4%
counselling staff	4	42	7	52	105
	0.6%	6.5%	1.1%	8.0%	16.2%
welfare personnel	6	43	6	32	87
	0.9%	6.6%	0.9%	4.9%	13.4%
total sum	41	251	89	267	648
	6.3%	38.7%	13.7%	41.2%	100.0%

This question produces virtually the same number of votes for teachers (41%) and social workers (39%).

Who should primarily arrange for counselling services provided to pupils, parents, as well as teachers and other school staff, concerning the welfare system and socio-legal protection of children and youth?

Table 6. Counselling services concerning the welfare system and socio-legal protection of children and youth

Respondents	Psychologist	Social worker	Specialised pedagogue	Teacher	Total
pedagogic staff	26	319	83	28	456
	4.0%	49.2%	12.8%	4.3%	70.4%
counselling staff	9	82	7	7	105
	1.4%	12.7%	1.1%	1.1%	16.2%
welfare personnel	3	71	9	4	87
	0.5%	11.0%	1.4%	0.6%	13.4%
total sum	38	472	99	39	648
	5.9%	72.8%	15.3%	6.0%	100.0%

Table 6 illustrates that the vast majority of the respondents – irrespective of their profession – believe that counselling services in the sphere of welfare should be provided by a social worker – 73% of the respondents.

Who should primarily help the pupils with emotional problems, problematic and disorder behaviour in their integration in the peer group?

Table 7. Help to the pupils with emotional problems, problematic and disorder behaviour in their integration in the peer group

Respondents	Psychologist	Social worker	Specialised pedagogue	Teacher	Total
pedagogic staff	221	15	115	105	456
	34.1%	2.3%	17.7%	16.2%	70.4%
counselling staff	58	7	23	17	105
	9.0%	1.1%	3.5%	2.6%	16.2%
welfare personnel	53	7	21	6	87
	8.2%	1.1%	3.2%	0.9%	13.4%
total sum	332	29	159	128	648
	51.2%	4.5%	24.5%	19.8%	100.0%

Table 7 implies that the majority of the respondents (51%) think the pupils with emotional problems should be assisted by a psychologist.

Who should primarily promote the school and contribute to its positive public image?

Table 8. Promotion of school aimed at positive public image

Respondents	Psychologist	Social worker	Specialised pedagogue	Teacher	Total
pedagogic staff	3	39	22	392	456
	0.5%	6.0%	3.4%	60.5%	70.4%
counselling staff	0	8	7	90	105
	0.0%	1.2%	1.1%	13.9%	16.2%
welfare personnel	1	8	4	74	87
	0.2%	1.2%	0.6%	11.4%	13.4%
total sum	4	55	33	556	648
	0.6%	8.5%	5.1%	85.8%	100.0%

The question on who should primarily promote the school answered with the vast majority (86%) in favour of a teacher. The issue of school social workers and their status requires to mention the preventive programmes suggested by Labáth (1999) which would be suitable for promoting the school.

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

It can be concluded that social work is not established in Czech schools as a profession which would contribute to the resolution of pupils' problems and difficulties (Pešatová, Matulayová, Hrušková 2013). Yet the counselling services, as mentioned in Decree No. 72/2005 Coll. (Sbírka Zákonů ČR 2011) on counselling services provided in schools and school-based counselling centres, as amended in Decree 116/2011 Coll. (Sbírka Zákonů ČR 2011), are treated in a wide and comprehensive context.

The real situation in schools does not correspond with a high demand on the part of the applicants, i.e. pupils, parents and pedagogues, and even fails to cover the necessary range of individual counselling services. Nevertheless, the purpose of the counselling services, as defined in the aforementioned decree, is to contribute primarily to the creation of appropriate conditions for a healthy physical and mental development of pupils, for their social development, development of their personality before and during the education process. Counselling services are expected to help fulfilling the educational needs and to develop the abilities, skills and interests before and during the education process. The services should deal with prevention and resolution of educational and educative troubles, manifestation of various forms of risk behaviour, which precede the emergence of socio-pathological phenomena and other problems related to the education and motivation for overcoming the problematic situations. Counselling services are used to create appropriate conditions for education of pupils with special learning needs. The services also establish suitable conditions, forms and methods of work for pupils coming from different cultures or ethnic groups, including the mitigation of consequences of various disabilities and impairments, health and social disadvantages as well as the prevention of risk phenomena in schools.

The need for the position of school social worker has been greatly supported by the respondents participating in the research. The respondents pointed out to quite insufficient cooperation between the parents and schools, poor competences on the part of the pedagogues which may obstruct the upbringing and education of children, insufficient work with pupils prone to behaviour disorders. The need for the worker with the competences of school social worker thus predominates in cooperation with the pupils'

families and the social care authorities where the respondents would welcome the aid primarily in handling the problems connected with the assessment of problematic family environment of the pupils, and provision of counselling to the pupils, legal guardians and pedagogues in the welfare system and socio-legal protection of children and youth. Children prone to behaviour disorders or with developed symptoms of behaviour disorders might be provided these services directly in school. Docking (Rabušicová 2002) suggests that the school may perceive and treat the parents three ways: parent as a problem, parent as a client, parent as a partner. The target and ideal state is that of partnership between the parents and the school. The problematic behaviour in pupils is often reflected in failure to perform the school assignments and improper conduct with a low level of positive communication and a higher level of negativism among the teachers, parents and pupils themselves (Whalen, Henker 1999). NUV (2013) suggests that schools often insufficiently or improperly cooperate and communicate with the pupils' parents and the pupils prone to behaviour disorders.

A school social worker necessarily needs the competences associated with the assessment of the family environment in terms of material or social need in the family for a timely diagnosis of the endangered pupil. This concerns the social counselling whose part is information about opportunities for solving the problematic situation and the selection of individual forms of social help (Pešatová, Matulayová 2013). In addition, the respondents' reactions imply that the school social worker is the one to organise the preventive activities aimed at the prevention of socio-pathological phenomena in school as the increased emergence of the socio-pathological phenomena in children and youth requires the professionalised provision of the socio-educational assistance during and outside the classes. This may also increase the low parenthood competences in families.

In addition, as suggested by the respondents, the school social worker should deal with the problems of learning process, which come from the socially disadvantaged environment of the pupils' families and their different language and culture. If the school environment expert is not directly involved and interested in the direct everyday work with the pupils in a particular school institute, he/she cannot with certainty identify the sources of problems (Rabušicová 2002).

Based on the viewpoints of the respondents, it can be concluded that the competences of the school social worker suitably fit the assessment of the pupils' family environment when dealing with the pupils' educational and educative problems and other risk phenomena. Counselling service in school would be greatly supported by the school social workers with competences in the field of socio-legal protection of children and youth in the assessment of

the family environment from the perspective of the material and social need, including the socio-education assistance outside the classes.

As regards the competences necessary for the provision of counselling services in schools, it would be useful to have a school social worker integrated in the counselling team in the majority of schools. Counselling services would then be provided in the necessary scope directly in the schools, applying methods that correspond to the conditions of the specific school and the number and educational needs of the pupils. The counselling staff would then collaborate in teams and openly communicate inside and outside the school.

The change that currently takes place in schools emphasises the social aspects of life situations of pupils, their parents and families. A heavy workload of the teachers and a lack of competences for handling the social problems all cause unusual situations in schools which would be competently addressed by the school social workers.

CONCLUSION

While school social work in the world (Huxtable 2012, 2001) sees a great boom, the social workers in the Czech school system seem to refuse participation in the discussion about the changes in schools. The most prominent recent studies (Matulayová 2008; Zita 2008; Levická 2008; Pešatová, Matulayová 2013) indicate a potential for further development of school social work. Yet, what we lack is evidence, i.e. research, which would explore the opportunities, obstacles and limits for establishing the profession of school social worker. The Czech school legislation does not recognise the position of school social worker although school social work develops in more than forty-three countries around the world, as stated by the International Network for School Social Work.

For this reason, it is necessary to acquire empirical data for establishing the position of school social worker in the Czech school system because the provision of school services within this system contributes to performing all the functions of school and to an all-round development of pupils in compliance with the international legal standards for children's rights.

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Summary

Results of research project Potential of School Social Work in the Czech Education indicated that teachers, special educators and psychologists working within education sector reflect the increase of pupils from socially disadvantaged backgrounds and pupils with problems in the family environment. Although jobs for school social workers are not set up in the Czech schools, such professions declare the need of specialists for interventions when dealing with difficulties in social interaction. The main obstacle for school social work development within Czech education is, according to respondents, lack of awareness about the social work profession and its lack of legislative and financial security.

Key words: social work, education, disabled pupils, pupils with problems

PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCES OF A SOCIAL TEACHER IN THE CONTEXT OF COOPERATION WITHOUT BORDERS

INTRODUCTION

The tendencies of the development of higher education and the requirements in the preparation of social teachers in the context of modern social development are considered in the article. The competences which are necessary for the preparation of a social teacher, offered by Ukrainian scientists, the competence of the survival of graduates in the labour market which were outlined by American scientists and the basic and central competences which are in the competency profile of a social teacher in the German system of the training of specialists to work in the social sphere are allocated.

THE DEFINITION OF PROBLEM URGENCY

Among the main tendencies of world progress which predetermine changes in an education system in particular the highest, are allocated as such: the fast rate of the development of society, the transition to post-industrial, an information society, the expansion of borders with respect to intercultural interaction; the emergence and growth of global problems, which is only possible thanks to the cooperation of the countries; societal democratisation, the expansion of possibilities of political and social choice; the dynamic development of economy, competition growth, radical structural changes in the employment sphere; growth of the value of human capital, etc (Rubin 2005: 49).

Drawing attention to all of the aforementioned tendencies is an important step in viewing the system of vocational training of the future experts of the social sphere, in particular social teachers, and is carried out under conditions of a classical university. According to an analysis of the modernisation of the choice of methods of training and professional activity, directed not only to the formation of theoretical knowledge, but also to the development of personal lines which in the future will provide experts with the

successful performance of professional activity and their socialisation in society, needed to substantially fill the educational and professional program of the training of specialists, the introduction of innovative educational technologies with the active involvement of students in the educational process. Also important is the yet unsolved but also important question is the organisation of individualised training for future experts with the application of personified programs and programs of a professional portfolio. It will give them the chance to build their own trajectory of achievement of successes, to compare them to their previous achievements, to form an individual style of activity, to gain experience in business competition, and to develop the academic and professional competences for the purpose of successful implementation into a professional business environment.

ANALYSIS OF THE LATEST RESEARCH AND PUBLICATIONS

The question of the formation of professional lines of future teachers is devoted to the scientific works of domestic and foreign authors, in particular: to studying the essence and structure of pedagogical activity (A. Bogu, I. Zyatyu, N. Kuzmin, N. Machinsk, O. Pekhota), intensification of preparation of future social teachers (O. Bezpalko, N. Zaveriko, I. Zvereva, M. Duzha-Zadorozhna, A. Kapska, L. Mishchik, I. Kurlyak, N. Mikitenko, V. Polishchuk, O. Prishlyak, M. Shved). Competence in the approach to the vocational training of teachers in higher education is investigated by L. Kovalchuk, N. Mikitenko, I. Sabatovska, S. Sisoeva. Modern labour market requirements and the competition conditions of young specialists are studied by O. Grishnova, T. Koshmanova, P. Smolovik. Nevertheless, the question of the study of the professional competences of the social teacher in a cooperative context without borders need specification and generalisation, resulted in the choice of the purpose of this article.

THE FORMULATION IS MORE WHOLE THAN THE ARTICLE

The purpose of this article is to analyse the current state of the preparation of social teachers; to show the role of the competence approach to the training of specialists according to the modern requirements of the market of educational services, and the international expertise in the organisation of vocational education which will assist in the improvement of this process and also provide positive changes.

MAIN BODY

The difficult processes of modern social development in our state radically changed the valuable approaches to the education system, resulting in new requirements for the preparation of teachers. According to *The national doctrine of the development of education*, one of the most current problems is the improvement of the quality of national education and its integration into both European and global educational areas. An important condition for the modernisation of state education is the preparation and professional improvement of pedagogical personnel. Today, reconsideration of its ultimate goals in forming the direction of future experts is necessary, in particular social teachers with a complete complex of the basic and professionally focused competences. After all, the humanistic orientation of the formation of today is directed by the purpose – to develop the individual and their personal qualities defines the development of the whole of society. Nowadays, new educational technologies are being prepared for future teachers and should assist in the general development of their personality, the formation of cultural, moral and spiritual qualities, and also creativity and individual experience, to assist in the process of the self-organising assimilation of knowledge by students, for their self-education.

In recent years the concept *competence* remained at the all-didactic and methodological level. It is connected with its system and practical functions and plays an integrated role in general education. Attention to the strengthening to this concept also results from recommendations of the Council of Europe which concern education restoration and its approach to societal order.

According to the carried-out analysis, today there is no uniform coordinated definition or a list of key competences. As competences are, first of all, the order of society for the high-quality vocational training of its citizens and such an approach is defined by the coordinated position of society in a certain country or the region. To reach such coordination is not always possible. For example, in the course of implementation of the international project *Definition and selection of key competences* which was carried out by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development and national institutes of educational statistics of Switzerland and the USA, a strict definition of the concept of key competences was not created. Yet, during a symposium of the Council of Europe on the subject *Key competences for Europe* a rough list of key competences that points to certain kinds of activity, for example, was defined:

- *to study*: to study independently; to be able to apply in practical activities through useful experience; to systematise knowledge and put it in order; to apply one's own receptions of training; to be able to solve problems;

- *to seek*: to find different databases; to consult with experts; to receive information; to be able to work with documents and to classify them;
- *to think*: critically, to treat this or that of an aspect of the development of society; to be able to resist difficulties and risks; to take an accurate position in discussions, to defend one's thoughts; to analyse and estimate the social habits connected with health, consumption, and social environment;
- *to cooperate*: to be able to work in a group; to make decisions, coordinate divergences and conflicts; to be able to agree; to be able to develop projects and carry out contracts;
- *to be accepted for good reason*: to be able to organise independent activity; to bear responsibility for one's actions; to have solidarity with colleagues; to be able to use computing and simulation devices;
- *to adapt*: to prove flexibility with decisions, considering the calls of society which are quickly changing; to be able to apply new information and communicative technologies; to be resistant to difficulties; to be able to make new decisions.

Today in the world, there is a system of obligatory assimilation of knowledge, the formation of skills, and the ability to change the formation of a complex of competences for future experts. Competence measurements are used to determine the quality of preparation of experts. According to O. Loyko, it is necessary to consider professional competence as *difficult integral education covering a wide range of components and a set of systematized knowledge, skills and abilities, which are important for both the professional field of activity and for development of highly specialized personal features* (Loyko 2012; Glushkov 2012: 39).

The analysis of research on the issue of personality development testifies to all of its main features are closely connected among themselves, but the leading role belongs to outlook and personality orientation, its motives which define behaviour, and the activity of the individual. It gives an opportunity of recognising the features and characteristics of future expert in social and moral, professional and pedagogical and informative orientation. In the course of vocational training, it is first of all necessary to consider the general requirements to form the future expert, namely: *professional competence* which is based on special scientific, practical, psychological and pedagogical preparation; *common cultural and humanitarian competence* which covers knowledge of the bases of world culture, humanistic features of personality, responsibility for the results of one's own activity, motivation to self-improvement; *creativity* which provides creation of an independent way of thinking, possession of innovative strategy and tactics, and flexible adaptation to changes of the contents and conditions of professional activity; *communicative competence* which

covers perfect knowledge of the native language, foreign language skills, modern means of communication, and the basics of computer literacy, the ability to produce official papers etc (Sabatovska 2013: 255).

The specifics of professional activity of the social teacher demands organic association of personal and professional qualities, and wide erudition; therefore, preparation of such experts provides for the formation of certain professional competences and professional qualifications in them. The profession of the social teacher is extremely important and necessary for our country, which today endures crises in difficult social phenomena, such as economic and political instability, social orphanhood, poverty, dependence, etc. Mediation between personality, a family and their environment, the education of resistance to vital disorders, training for people to assist them in independently finding a way out of a difficult situation, and the creation of favorable social, teaching and educational conditions for the development and personality of socialisation. Therefore, society has high expectations for individuals who choose this profession: they should be a humanist, have an appropriate level of general and spiritual culture, ideological and moral principles, developed communicative and organisational abilities, tolerance, flexibility, knowledge of the steps when analysing social phenomena and its processes, to sympathise and resolutely operate, to embody life in the desire to assist people who need the attention of society.

For the purpose of creating the preconditions for the debugging of cooperation of experts of the social sphere in Europe, the further development of social pedagogical education in the separate countries of the International Association of Social Teachers (International Association of Social Educators AIEJI) in May, 2006 created a catalogue of professional competences for social teachers. It can become the basis for the updating of professional standards in the training of specialists in this area both in Ukraine and in other countries. According to this catalogue, social pedagogy is considered a purposeful strategy which assists social unity and community association. It is society's answer to the number of integrated problems, in particular, which arise in the context of social and educational situations.

According to the catalogue of professional competences for social teachers in the International Association of Social Teachers, it is necessary to understand the *competences* concept as the *ability of the social teacher to act in a certain task, situation or context which unites not only knowledge, habits, intellect, practical and social competence, but also in position and motivation* (International Association of Social Educators 2006: 16).

Generally, two measurements of competence in the profile of the social teacher are: *the first* – characterises different equalities, which the expert can

affect in different practical contexts, interrupt them and analyse; *the second* – considers the central competences which follow from various prospects and the general conditions of social and pedagogical work. The integrated approach of the teaching of social students covers different fields of activity which demand of future social teachers a mastering of such basic and central competences.

Base competences

- *competence of active intervention.* The social teacher should be able to quickly, and without unnecessary delay, operate depending on the needs or desires of the client; i.e. to interrupt them when it is demanded by a situation. Their actions can be intuitive or motivated by nonverbal knowledge; nevertheless, it should be based on simultaneous theoretical or practical empirical knowledge.
- *competence of estimation.* The social teacher should be able to plan and competently analyse the activity, relying both on theoretical knowledge, and on the basis of the analysis of personal practical experience or the experience of others. They should understand communication between intention, action and result.
- *competence of analysis.* The social teacher should be able, together with colleagues and other experts, to analyse problems in the professional field, to provide a general vision and further development of social and pedagogical specialties. They should be capable of integrating their own development in their professional activity (International Association of Social Educators 2006: 17).

Central competences

- *personal and relationship competences.* The relationship with an individual who needs assistance and support, is central in all types of social and pedagogical activity; therefore, both personal competences and relationship competences are basic for social and pedagogical work. Recently, in Germany the personal aspect generally took a central position in labor activity, and the value of such competences such as a readiness to bear responsibility, motivation, non-failure of an operation, and the personal point of view, constantly increases. For social teachers, the question of their personal relationship to work has a broader aspect: it is a question of their personal relationship with the client on the basis of humanistic, moral and ethical bases. At the relationship level, i.e. personal social contact with the client gives the chance for the expert to interrupt their own life. Therefore, it is

important to be able to interpret these relationships, to direct them and change, thanks to the developed observation and attentiveness of the details of the social interaction. For implementation of this activity it is necessary for social teachers to develop empathy, the ability to adapt for new conditions, and the ability to adhere to a role.

- *social and communicative competences.* The social teacher should be able to work in a group of colleagues and a cross-sectoral group, to possess knowledge on the development and dynamics of group work and other related professional spheres, to know the corresponding terminology and ethical bases, to be able to cooperate with parents, to use methods of cross-sectoral cooperation and conflict management, to communicate at different levels and to possess different communicative tools, to advise and accompany, using various advisory technicians.
- *organisational competences.* Social teachers should generally be able to wholly formulate, plan, structure and systematise social and pedagogical activity of a certain establishment, and for separate social and pedagogical tasks, processes, projects, and initiate, introduce, coordinate and estimate them. They should be able to take responsibility for their own decisions and actions, to coordinate and carry out personal and group consultations, instructions for parents, relatives, colleagues or other experts. Today, pedagogical activity also covers administrative tasks, therefore experts of the social sphere should have knowledge of certain administrative processes; how for example, to document, to estimate, to comment, to carry out negotiations, etc.
- *system competences.* Social teachers should have the corresponding knowledge and be able to plan their work according to laws, instructions, rules and arrangements which define the general borders of social and pedagogical activity; to understand organisational and management systems and the management of these systems, to know modern and future requirements for public and private organisations for managing them and their high-quality development; to possess information on relevant systems for the estimation and documentation of social and pedagogical activity; to be able to act like comrades when participating in actual sociopolitical debate of social and pedagogical activity and its influence on society.
- *competences of development and training.* The social teacher should be always be prepared for changes, thanks to continuous professional development, pilot projects, and group consultations; to develop and improve their professional competences and theoretical knowledge; to acquire new knowledge and habits and then put them into practice; independently or together with others, and critically analyse and estimate their own work and the work of others.

- *competences which are generated within professional activity*. Actual competences which are obtained within practical activities supplement the above-mentioned central competences. This group covers such competences:
 - *competences of theoretical knowledge and methodical competences* (acquaintance with the conventional and widespread educational, social, and pedagogical theories and accepted working methods; assimilation of important knowledge from areas of pedagogics, psychology, sociology, anthropology, philosophy and their integration in work);
 - *competences of professional activity* (acquaintance with terminology and professional concepts, participation in their development; internationalisation of ethical and moral professional standards; development of documents and agreements which form the basis for social and pedagogical activity);
 - *cultural competences* (recognition of these cultural values help to come into contact with the client; the assimilation of knowledge of other cultures and their values, the establishment of contacts from other cultures, which involves the establishment of social student teaching and with which it communicates);
 - *creative competences* (possession of forms of expression and habits in the creative sphere, art, to the musician which are applied as an integrated part of social and pedagogical work with certain clients, and is are directed by a level of emotions, their social, language and intellectual development) (International Association of Social Educators 2006: 28).

It is important to emphasise that mastering the above-mentioned competences is impossible only during the course of training: it continues in the natural course of further professional activity (Shved, Duzha-Zadrozka 2009: 98).

Having analysed the catalogue of professional competences of social teachers of the International Association of Social Teachers, the professional standards of preparation for future experts of the social sphere in higher educational institutions of Germany, the curricula and programmes in the direction of training of “*socially pedagogic*” specialists, a conclusion can be drawn, the special accent put on vocational training when carrying out development of adaptive and analytical abilities and abilities, the mastering of a certain set of professional competences and professional qualifications which the social teacher can use in their practical activities depending on the situation and character of a problem.

To attain success in the global labour market the modern expert should be globally competent and possess the corresponding competences which

will help them to be competitive. According to Tonja Wagner, well-known American scientist skilled in the interviewing of leaders of leading corporations, these developed types of competences will assist in the survival of young specialists in the labour market, specifically in educational areas (Koshmanova 2013: 351-352):

1. *Critical thinking and solutions to students' problems.* Abilities are one of the most important indicators of critical thinking when asking different kinds of questions, the ability to identify them and solve the problem, to put knowledge into practice and to make decisions, and the ability to work as part of a team.
2. *Cooperation in networks.* The ability to communicate with others to direct them (to act as an informal leader), to create a positive working atmosphere in the community, to form trust between people, and the ability to accept different races, nations, language, culture.
3. *Dexterity and abilities of adapting.* Today there is a change in decision-making in the hierarchy of authority from the superior to the whole team of employees who assist in the development of abilities to adapt to an environment which will be the key to success in work.
4. *Initiative and enterprise.* Experts should not only solve problems and be kind players in team, but also offer new possibilities and ideas, form strategic plans, and find initiative and enterprise.
5. *Oral and written communication.* As the modern environment is continually changing to become more of a virtual office, employees should be able to communicate through e-mail, to accept conference calls, to structurally communicate with representatives from different cultures, and to use a full complex of modern means and technologies.
6. *Assessment and information analysis.* In the modern world of global work which is teeming with the continuous flow of new information, an important professional quality of the modern expert is the ability to receive it and to critically and effectively comprehend and use it. It influences ability of the person to develop the civil qualities along life.
7. *Inquisitiveness and imagination.* Development of these qualities is not only connected with the ability of an expert in solving a problem, but with the development and improvement of professional services which relate to creativity and innovations.
8. In modern market conditions there is a qualitatively new requirement of labour which is the requirement of professional mobility, i.e. the ability to quickly master technical innovations and new specialties. This ability substantially depends on the level of general and vocational education, from extensive and valid vocational training. Professional mobility also pro-

vides a high level of generalised professional knowledge, readiness for operative selection and the implementation of optimal ways of performance of different tasks in the field of this profession. In conditions of quickly changing educational and professional production technologies, mobility acts as an important component of qualifying the structure of the expert (Rapacevitsh 2005: 482).

Considering that the modern labour market unites *prestigious* works, are characterised by the stability of employment of the position of the worker, high level of compensation, possibilities of professional growth, use of professional technologies, pertinent are the thoughts of O. Grishnovo and P. Smolovik that competition for the worker in the primary Ukrainian labour market will provide fundamental basic education, the ability for training and replenishment of knowledge, the existence of additional knowledge and habits, professional mobility, and the system of values focused on personal development. According to scientists (M. Gusakovskiy, S. Kostyukevich, L. Yashchenko, etc.) the requirement of studying and applying practical experience should be included in the number of actual problems in modern education. Therefore, when organising vocational training for future skilled workers who will compete in the labour market and are capable of professional mobility, it is important to address life experience and to teach it to work with it (Goutsharenko 2000: 123).

Conclusion. Having shown features of the preparation of social teachers in Ukraine and abroad, having analysed a number of classifications of professional competences, having considered the professional standards of the preparation of future experts in the social sphere, and having outlined the general requirements of the market of educational services, we have reached such conclusions. The special accent in the vocational training of social teachers is carried out in the development of adaptive and analytical abilities and abilities, mastered by a certain set of professional competences and professional qualifications which the social teacher in the professional activity on the accounting of requirements of the modern labour market, while using positive foreign experience and debugging effective international cooperation without borders.

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Summary

The purpose of this article is to analyse the current state of the preparation of social teachers; to show the role of the competence approach to the training of specialists according to the modern requirements of the market of educational services, and the international expertise in the organisation of vocational education which will assist in the improvement of this process and also provide positive changes.

Key words: vocational training, competence approach, key competences, professional mobility

A GRADUATE IN THE LABOUR MARKET - A PARTNERSHIP FOR PROBLEM SOLVING

INTRODUCTION

Finishing education and entering the labour market is a key step in the life of every young person. At this point the individual departs from their well-known environment. In this environment many convictions are acquired and strategies to handle the requirements of the system are learnt. Even though these strategies do not always lead to the development of the individual, they give them a sense of security. These mechanisms probably become automated and cease to be a cause of stress (Roznowski 2009: 21). The labour market, however, is a new environment which can cause some anxiety and lead to many stressful situations. The individual must find their feet in an environment where the consequences of failure to fulfil certain obligations can result in a significantly higher penalty than in the education system. *The labour market consists of potential employees capable and willing to work and employers willing to hire workers* (Szaban 2013: 15) and that is why, the lack of diligence and punctuality as well as the neglect of duty result in loss of employment and subsequent exclusion from that environment. Certainly, at certain stages of education, like for instance university, students can also be threatened with expulsion, but before it actually happens they have many more opportunities to rehabilitate themselves than most employees in the labour market.

The labour market conditions which are encountered by young people are also important because they directly contribute to their living situation. Young adults who live with their parents are considered to be lazy and unwilling to rise to the challenge of self-reliance. However, most frequently it is the lack of financial resources to rent a flat (not to mention to purchase it) that is the reason for this situation. In 2012, the percentage of people in Poland aged 18 to 34 living with their parents was 60.2% and 27 – 48.1% in the EU (Central Statistical Office 2013: 11).

The purpose of this article is to present the situation encountered by university graduates while seeking their first job. The present situation of the

labour market in Subcarpathian Voivodeship, the assistance offered to former students by the District Employment Agency, and their opinion on this aid will be discussed.

UNEMPLOYMENT IN POLAND

To begin discussing the topic of the labour market situation in Poland we must refer to the data collected on registered unemployment by the Central Statistical Office in 2013. It must be emphasised that the concept of an unemployed person should be understood as *not employed and not engaged in other forms of gainful employment, capable and willing to take up full-time employment, which consist of a number of working hours specified for a given profession, service or other gainful employment, or if said person is disabled, able and willing to take up part-time employment, which consists of at least half of the specified number of working hours, who is not attending school, with the exception of studying in schools for adults or taking extramural examinations based on that school's curriculum, or studying part-time in a higher education institution. This person must be registered in the District Employment Agency corresponding with their permanent or temporary place of residence and looking for any form of gainful employment* (Act of 20 April 2004). The registered unemployment rate should be understood as: *the ratio of registered unemployed to the economically active population, excluding active duty military personnel and employees of national defence and public security budget entities. The unemployment rate takes into account people working on privately owned farms (...) the number of which is estimated on the basis of census* (Central Statistical Office 2014a: 8).

The data provided by the Central Statistical Office shows that the number of unemployed registered in employment agencies across Poland at the end of 2013 amounted to 2,157,900 people. The data also shows an increase of 21.1 thousand people when compared with 2012. The unemployment rate in 2013 was 13.4% (Central Statistical Office 2014a: 13-14, <http://www.stat.gov.pl/16.04.2014>). By the end of February 2014, there were already 2,255,900 registered unemployed and the unemployment rate (in the economically active population) was 13.9% (Central Statistical Office 2014b).

Taking into account the education of the unemployed in the fourth quarter of 2013, it should be noted that the highest percentage of the unemployed was present among people with a basic vocational education (28.04%), lower-secondary education, primary and incomplete primary education (27.25%), which together accounted for 55.29% of all unemployed. People with a higher

education accounted for 12.18% of the number of unemployed and those with secondary education for only 10.58%.

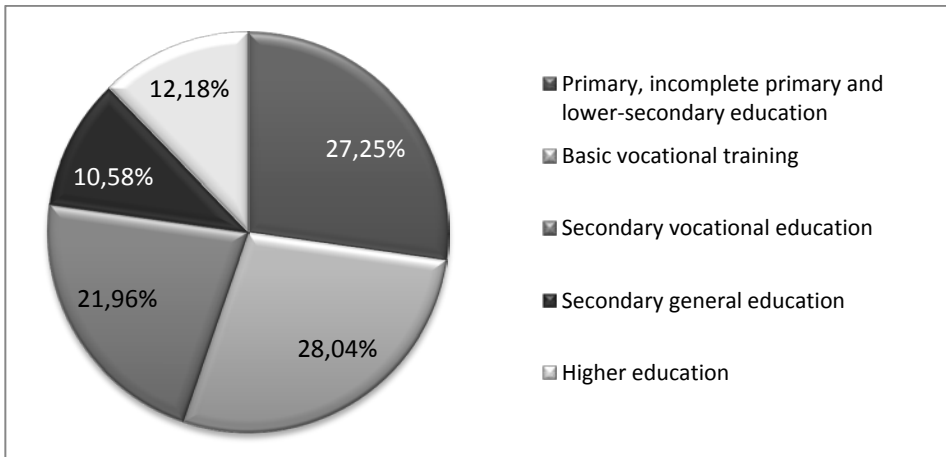


Figure 1. Unemployment rate by education level in the fourth quarter of 2013

Source: Central Statistical Office 2014a: 19.

What is more, it is notable that among the unemployed, women were more likely than men to have a higher or secondary education. Such women constituted 29.2% of all unemployed women, while men of similar education constituted 15.6% of all unemployed men (Central Statistical Office 2014a: 19).

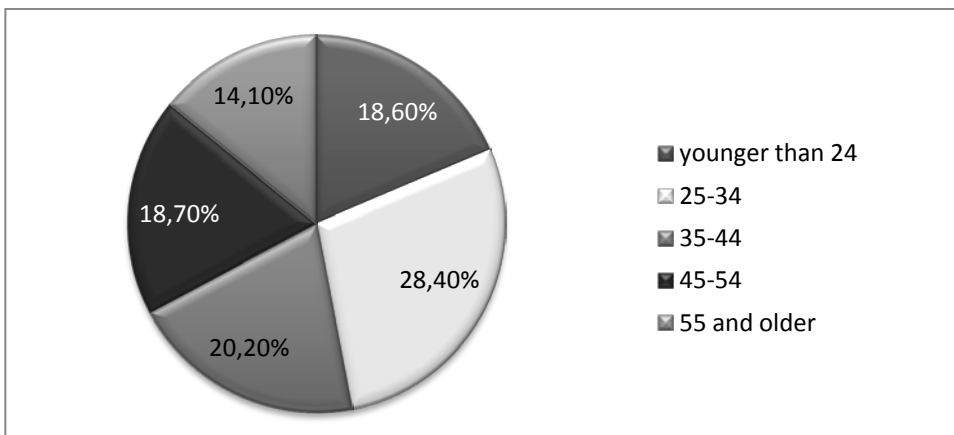


Figure 2. Unemployment rate by age in the fourth quarter of 2013

Source: Central Statistical Office 2014a: 18.

Nowadays, unemployment most frequently affects young people, since people under the age of 34 constitute 47% of all unemployed. The highest percentage of people aged 25-34 among the unemployed was recorded in the voivodeships of Lublin (32.8%), Subcarpathia (30.4%), Świętokrzyskie (29.9%), Podlaskie and Greater Poland (each 29.1%), and the lowest percentage in the voivodeships of Łódź (26.6%), Opole (26.7%), Lower Silesia and West Pomerania (each 26.9%) (Central Statistical Office 2014a: 18).

UNEMPLOYMENT IN SUBCARPATHIAN VOIVODESHIP

Subcarpathian Voivodeship is located in the eastern region, where the unemployment rate in 2013 was the highest. It reached 20.82% on a national level. A high unemployment rate was also recorded in the central region (20.15%), then the northern region (17.62%) and finally the southern region (17.27%). In the north-western region unemployment was at a level of 14.63% while the lowest percentage of unemployed people in Poland was in the south-western region – only 9.51% (Central Statistical Office 2014a: 98-107, <http://www.stat.gov.pl/16.04.2014>).

Chart 1. Unemployed in Subcarpathian Voivodeship by education at the end of December 2013

Regions	Total	Education:				
		Higher	Secondary vocational	Secondary general	Basic vocational	Primary, incomplete primary and lower-secondary
		by number of people				
Subcarpathia	154216	21146	39036	15841	46739	31454
Krosno District	37820	4840	10022	3107	12206	7645
Przemyśl District	32733	4524	7460	3988	9522	7239
Rzeszów District	42836	6253	11748	4041	12477	8317
Tarnobrzeg District	40827	5529	9806	4705	12534	8253

Source: Central Statistical Office 2014a: 102.

In February 2014, Subcarpathian Voivodeship was 12th when taking into account the number of unemployed in thousands, since in this voivodeship there were 160.3 thousand registered unemployed; and 12th when taking into account the unemployment rate, which reached 16.9%. The largest number of unemployed in 2013 was registered in Masovian Voivodeship (295.4 thousand) and the smallest in Opole Voivodeship (54.3 thousand). Furthermore, the unemployment rate was the highest in Warmian-Masurian Voivodeship (22.3%) and the smallest in Greater Poland Voivodeship (10%) (Central Statistical Office 2014b).

As presented in Chart 1, the highest unemployment rate was recorded in Rzeszów District as there were 42 836 unemployed in this area. Moreover, this is where the largest number of unemployed graduates existed. Przemyśl District had the smallest total number of unemployed as well as the number of unemployed with a higher education. It should also be noted that in Subcarpathian Voivodeship the smallest number of unemployed was present among people with a general secondary education.

Chart 2. Unemployed in Subcarpathian Voivodeship at the end of December 2013 by age

Regions	Total	Aged				
		24 and younger	25–34	35–44	45–54	55 and older
		by number of people				
Subcarpathia	154216	32733	46948	31588	27607	15340
Krosno District	37820	7437	11554	8121	7068	3640
Przemyśl District	32733	7058	10314	6633	5705	3023
Rzeszów District	42836	9212	13022	8670	7478	4454
Tarnobrzeg District	40827	9026	12058	8164	7356	4223

Source: Central Statistical Office 2014a: 102.

University graduates are among the first two groups of people presented in Chart 2 because those graduates were able to acquire a university degree no sooner than the age of 22 (in the case of undergraduate studies) or later. It is also worth mentioning that people aged between 25 and 34 formed the largest group of unemployed in Subcarpathian Voivodeship, and the largest number of them was located in Rzeszów District.

THE OFFER OF THE DISTRICT EMPLOYMENT AGENCY

Young graduates either look for work on their own (e.g., on the Internet as discussed previously) or make use of aid provided by employment agencies. These agencies not only provide aid in finding a job, they also enable young people to undergo an internship, and to participate in training or assisted employment, the purpose of which is to increase their experience in order to appear more attractive in the labour market.

According to the Act on Employment Promotion and Labour Market Institutions, an internship is *the acquisition of practical skills by the unemployed which allow them to perform their work by carrying out job-related tasks in the workplace without an employment relationship with the employer* (Act of 20 April 2004). Training means *extra-curricular activities aimed at obtaining, supplementing or improving professional or general skills and qualifications required to perform work, including the ability to look for employment* (Act of 20 April 2004). The concept of assisted employment should be understood as *the employment of the unemployed by the employer, which took place as a result of a contract with the District Staroste, in order to support people who are in a special situation on the labour market* (Act of 20 April 2004).

The offer of the Employment Agency concerning the occupational development of young people is the most interesting and diverse. However, it is important to understand whether graduates make use of such assistance in finding their place in the labour market. In order to answer this particular question, a researcher, using a standardized interview, spoke with 15 people who are or have been registered at the District Employment Agency in Tarnobrzeg. The respondents were 24 to 29 years old and had graduated from university in the fields of Management (3 respondents), Sociology (3 respondents), Pedagogy as well as Tourism and Recreation (2 respondents each). The remainder studied: Ethnography, Economics, Physiotherapy, European Studies and Geography. The research was conducted between 17 March and 8 April 2014.

The reason for registration at the Employment Agency is significant, for it indicates how the graduates approached this institution. As shown in Figure 3, the largest number of respondents came to the Agency to seek help with finding employment. Of the remaining eight, five people wished to acquire more experience through internships and training courses, whereas three respondents registered in the Agency in order to get insurance. It is worth noting that no fewer than seven people registered at the District Employment Agency in Tarnobrzeg immediately after graduation. Further, three people registered no later than 6 months after receiving their diplomas, and

two people had already registered while studying part-time. Two respondents stated that they registered more than a year after graduation. One person had registered after 6 months (before the end of the one-year period).

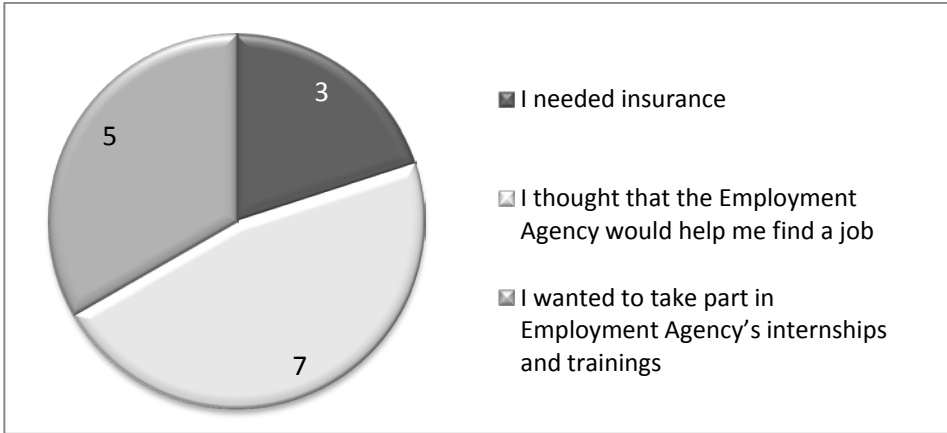


Figure 3. The reason for registering at the Employment Agency

Source: Personal research

The fact that as many as 7 respondents hoped that the Employment Agency could help them find employment and registered immediately after graduation shows that this institution is viewed in a positive light when it comes to the aid rendered to young people in managing the labour market.

Even though only 5 people stated their intention to participate in training and courses as a reason to register with the Agency, the majority of the respondents seized this opportunity, since 12 people attempted to get an internship. The remaining 3 people did not take this opportunity because, as they stated: *I had already received a job offer; I did not need it; I decided to try to find a regular job first*. It is important, however, that only in 7 cases the position for which the respondents applied corresponded with their education. These positions were: *Office worker; Shop assistant* (2 such replies); *Office Clerk; Preschool teacher; Physiotherapist; Training/recruiting specialist*. Other people did not provide an exact description of the position, but they gave a possible place of internship: *Internal Revenue Office; Town Hall* (2 such replies); *Library*. One person said that they were seeking any internship.

Although the majority of respondents applied for an internship, only 4 of them received it. Three people received a six-month internship and one person a five-month one. Out of those respondents, 2 people were trying to get an internship in the Town Hall, one person also wanted to be an office

clerk in the Town Hall, and one person applied for the post of training/recruiting specialist. Two of those people were not satisfied with the experience they had gained because when asked about the skills learned during the internship they replied: *I have learnt that office workers do nothing; I have learnt how to do office work and how various departments in the City Hall work*; while the other person stated: *Nothing but brewing coffee and organising old documents*. Another person who completed the internship in the Town Hall had a different view: *Servicing office equipment, managing official correspondence, filing, document circulation, etc. The internship helped me acquire additional skills and improve those I already possessed*. However, the person most satisfied with a completed internship was a man who did not work in the Town Hall but in one of the companies located in the Tarnobrzeg Economic Zone. He stated that he acquired many skills useful in his workplace, and that his superiors invested in him from the start as if he was a regular worker who should possess knowledge most useful for his post (position: Training/recruiting specialist). It is also important to emphasise that among those 4 people, only the latter received a job offer and it was for a period of three months. Of the remaining three, one person was offered another internship at the same post, while the next respondent did not receive any proposals, and the last person is still undergoing their internship.

Another way to make young people active in the labour market, as proposed by the Employment Agency, is participation in various types of training courses. Only 3 out of 15 respondents took part in them. Those who resigned from this form of qualification improvement stated that they were not interested in the courses (5 people), a further 2 people were not eligible for those courses because their registration period in the District Employment Agency was too short, and the remaining 5 people reported other reasons: *The date of the course and internship overlapped so I had to choose; I received no such proposal; There were no courses related to my profession; There were no courses planned by the Employment Agency*. The reason given by one of the respondents was worrisome as that person stated: *I did not know they existed*.

The courses in which these 3 people participated were: *Cash Register; How to get your first job, job interview. Learning more about seeking employment and the methods that can be used; Forklift operator*. One person stated that this course increased her chance of finding employment in her profession, while another decided that he indeed had a better chance of finding a job, but not in his profession. The last person said that the course she took part in would not help her find a job.

The final form of vocational development offered by the Employment Agency to university graduates, among others, is assisted employment. Only 4 respondents wanted to take part in it. Four of the remaining respondents did not participate because they had already received job offers or internships. Three people decided that they did not need this form of employment. The remaining four people stated: *I have not received any information on this subject; because I did not know about it; I started earning a master's degree; I intend to go.*

Although 4 people wanted to participate in assisted employment, it was granted only to 2 respondents. They were: *Filing; organising documents that should have already been organised a long time ago.* The employment lasted six months and three months respectively. The second respondent also signed a mandate contract for one month after the assisted employment ended. The first respondent also stated that during the assisted employment he learned: *To operate office equipment and the principles of filing.* The second respondent decided that assisted employment taught her nothing and did not help her gain valuable experience. It is worth noting that in the case of the 2 people who did not receive the opportunity to take part in assisted employment, the possible employment also dealt with filing and organising documents.

The final issue raised during the questionnaire-based interviews was an appraisal of the work done by the Employment Agency in Tarnobrzeg. 5 respondents out of 15 currently have a job; however, not a single person had found employment through the Agency. 4 of the remaining 10 people have been unemployed for less than a year, and 2 for about a year. The last 4 people have been unemployed for over 12 months, which means that this is a case of long-term unemployment.

The respondents also judged whether the District Employment Agency in Tarnobrzeg makes an effort to provide vocational development to graduates. Only 3 people responded in the affirmative: *Probably yes; they make an effort; they help in finding an internship that corresponds with the field of studies.* 2 respondents had no opinion on the subject: *I do not know; I do not have an opinion.* As many as 10 people, or the majority of respondents, decided that the Employment Agency makes no effort in providing vocational development to graduates: *No; Absolutely no effort on their part; Thanks to the Employment Agency I have insurance and that is all.*

Finally, the respondents were asked their opinion on what changes should be made in the Employment Agency. Only 3 people decided that no changes are needed, and 2 had no opinion in this matter. Other people had objections to the functioning of the Agency. 4 of them stated that the em-

ployees of the Employment Agency are the issue: *Workers, because they do not care about providing assistance or even giving information to the unemployed; The attitude of the workers, who treat the unemployed as if they simply came to the Agency out of boredom to cause an inconvenience; Kinder service; To reduce the number of 'quasi-working' people in the Agency.* Moreover, 4 people discussed internships and training courses: *Internships only apply to people who are 25 and younger. A person who went to technical secondary school graduates at 25, so it is not possible for them to take part in an internship; Processing internship applications should be done in a different way, not just first come, first served; More internship and courses offers; Yes, more training courses.* The remaining 2 people provided general comments on the functioning of the Agency: *I think that the Employment Agency should make a greater effort to encourage employers to use the Agency when seeking employees, and a greater effort in finding the right employee for a particular job; The Agency needs a lot of change, it is insufficiently efficient.*

To sum up, it should be noted that university students, when registering at the District Employment Agency in Tarnobrzeg, hoped that it would help them find employment or improve their qualifications. Unfortunately, despite their efforts, out of 12 people only 4 were granted an internship, of which 3 were in the Town Hall. Graduates were disappointed with the level of skills they could acquire. Moreover, as many as 3 internships did not end with further employment. It can be assumed that the candidates did not perform well, or at the moment of granting the internship it was known that this institution did not have a vacancy. Therefore, the suggestion appears that a better solution would be to place interns in companies located within the city since when they hire an intern they most often look for an individual who could be offered further employment. The Employment Agency should, therefore, make a greater effort in encouraging employers to seek future employees through the Agency.

Another issue is to encourage young people to take part in courses and assisted employment. However, to attract the interest of graduates, these projects should be more varied so that everyone is able to find something, even partly, for themselves.

SUMMARY

Currently, unemployment in Subcarpathian Voivodeship is a significant problem for graduates as well as other members of society. It is important that the Employment Agencies not only try to provide jobs for the unem-

ployed, but also make an effort to improve the attractiveness of individuals in the labour market. However, the battle with unemployment is not a simple matter and therefore some projects do not always bring intended results.

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Summary

The purpose of this article is to present the situation encountered by university graduates while seeking their first job. The present situation of the labour market in Subcarpathian Voivodeship, the assistance offered to former students by the District Employment Agency, and their opinion on this aid will be discussed.

Key words: unemployment, labor market, social problem, partnership

THE MEANING OF LIFE FOR UNEMPLOYED PEOPLE

MEANING OF LIFE

The social worker dictionary defines the meaning of life as a regulative term that modifies and explains social norms by which a person should guide themselves. A person's value system, along with their confrontation with social norms, helps to define the secret of an individual's existence, also known as the meaning of life (Strieženec 1996). Understanding the meaning of life means understanding ourselves. When we consider the meaning of life it does not have to mean only one thing; therefore we can discuss the so-called plurality of meanings. We assign different meanings to each of our spheres of life. We can deliberate the pathology of the purpose of our existence, as such meanings can strengthen each other (when we reach one meaning we can proceed to reach another one) or contradict each other (Šulavíková, Sejščová 2008).

Philosophy regards questions on meaning of life as the basic ones. The everlasting questions that are part of a person's life are: *Who am I?*, *Where does my life lead to?*, *What is my purpose?*, and *What is the value of my life?* (Balogová 2009).

PATHS TO LIFE-MEANING

According to V. E. Frankl, searching for the meaning of life is a primary force. Every person must discover the meaning and accomplish it on their own. A meaning must be found, not created. We need to ask what life expects from us, not what we expect from life. As a result of the everyday requirements of life the meaning is not precisely defined. According to V. E. Frankl, the meaning can be found in three different ways: when we are creating some product, in the service of love, or in real life situations where a person's fate cannot be changed. A meaning can be found despite suffering (Šulavíková, Sejščová 2008). These paths (values), as stated by Frankl, can be the source of the meaning of life. They are:

Experience Values

We can define our lives as meaningful when we can embrace the variety and colourfulness of it. We can feel experience values and beauty through the observation of nature or other human-made things such as art, sports, science, and technology. Meeting other people and contact with other people in general can be defined as one of the important experience values. This can occur during many activities, but it especially happens when expressing love to someone. These experiences acquire meaning when they are beautiful themselves, and when the person who perceives them is also personally participating in them. By participating in them, the person brings something valuable to this world. We discover the true beauty of life through such experience values and with their assistance; we can meaningfully build up our life in various aspects (Länge 2002).

Creative Values

A person perceives their life as meaningful, when they creatively affect this world. The main aspect of creative values is for a person to receive something valuable in exchange for giving and enriching the world with something equally as valuable. Giving and receiving are the main principles of growth and evolution. These principles apply to all spheres of life: the biological sphere, the psychological sphere, and also the sphere of decision-making and responsibility. To summarise the creative values of life, their main attribute is to create something or accomplish some deed. A person's interest in such an accomplishment is much more important than the accomplishment itself. In addition, the nature of this accomplishment is determined by their skills and abilities. Only commitment and devotion give true value to a person's actions. However, the biggest opus is a person's unending work in handling their life (Länge 2002).

Attitude Values

People are not equipped to handle hopeless situations in life very well. We all know how hard it is to deal with the death of a loved one, or with a terminal disease. Sometimes a person cannot find anything positive that would help them handle such situations. An existential analysis of V. E. Frankl tries to show people that there are such positive things, no matter what you may believe. According to one proverb, fate often bars the door, but leaves an open window. A person must not be afraid to use this window. A person has to be themselves while they suffer. When the freedom of choice was taken from the outside world, we have to use our inner freedom to face

fate (Längle 2002). Suffering brought along questions about the meaning of life, since any attempt to find such meaning was blocked by this suffering. On the other hand, not having an answer to the meaning of life was also considered as a specific form of suffering. Every person wanted to avoid such a situation in their life (Palenčár 2011).

COMPONENTS OF THE MEANING OF LIFE

In literature, the most widespread three-component model of the meaning of life was revered the most. Reker and Wong, who understand the meaning of life as a multidimensional construction composed of three parts that affect each other, are also the creators of this model. The three parts are cognitive, motivational, and affective.

Cognitive Part

This part is connected with cognitive setting, which is made from a system of beliefs, importance, and expectations that are centred on you, the world, and your own life. It is also centred on how a person assigns meaning to their life, how they can deal with life situations, and it also centred on questions about coping with the final meaning. This part gives meaning to a person's life. Another purpose of this part is also the fact that it allows an understanding of the meaning of various life situations, and to coherently sort them out. The high criterion of the meaning of life, awareness of organisation in life, and also our purpose or the final goal, all depends on the development of the cognitive part. Undeveloped cognitive part can be the cause of confusion in life and existential anxiety (Halama 2007).

Motivational Part

With this part, it is all about fulfilling different goals, activities, and values that a person considers to be important in their life. A person spends a great amount of time and strength on activities that contribute to the fulfilment of their goal. A person with a developed motivational part has different values, goals and is keen to fulfil these goals, even when a failure occurs. A deficit in activities, life goals, and also boredom and disinterest are usual companions to an undeveloped motivational part (Halama 2007).

Affective Part

A person's feeling of satisfaction and fulfilment comes from accomplishing their goals through experiences that they encounter and from a positive

outlook on life. A person with a developed affective part is happy and satisfied with their life. On the contrary, a person with an undeveloped affective part is unhappy, sad and feels depressed (Halama 2007).

MEANING OF LIFE OF UNEMPLOYED PEOPLE

When we discuss satisfaction from working, it is a situation for an unemployed person when the rewarding system of society does not apply to them. Unemployment is an issue of career advancement and negative changes in the rewarding codex. A career is much more than the act of finding a job; it is also a compilation of behavioural models and ways of thinking. Losing a job means much. It raises questions about the job in which they were employed and the meaning of life (Hvozdík, Rosíková 2004).

As Frankl discovered, when an unemployed person gets a job (it may be paid or not), they are happier. They speak about a state of mind, when a person does not have anything to live for, when any meaning of life is absent (Halama 2007). When a person tries to accomplish something and do not to give up on their values, they perceive their life as more perspective. All of this was discovered during past research on the subject of the meaning of life. This research also showed that a person with precisely defined goals has it easier in life than a person who does not know what they want. (Žiaková, Ščensná 2009).

Social Work and Unemployed People

Social work is one the tools used for cooperating with unemployed people. Nowadays, when the number of unemployed people increases, there will soon be more people who will need some sort of social assistance (Žilová 2003). The general theory of social work provides guidelines for social workers when working with unemployed people, but the social worker has to consider the specific attributes of this group of people and make of use of specific stages of social work. A social worker working with the unemployed has to know basic information about the issue, mainly its reasons, consequences, and solutions for it. They should be motivated to work with this specific group of people. It is necessary that a social worker always behaves correctly and follows the ethical code of a social worker. A social worker's main task is to develop the potential of their client and their family. Social work is mostly conducted solely with the unemployed person and working together with his family is not much often seen. The most common working methods are social consultation and socio-legal protection (Balogová 2003).

Social work services try to accomplish two main roles for unemployed people:

- They are necessary in order to provide mental support for the long-term unemployed, because long-lasting unemployment causes stress, uncertainty and hurts family relationships.
- They are necessary in order to help people again become employed.

There are many subjective and objective reasons for being removed from the job market. These reasons can be: low qualification, low self-esteem, low competence, or losing interest in working. This exclusion from the job market goes hand in hand with social exclusion and may lead to confusion on whether the main problem is of a social character or due to unemployment (Kodymová, Koláčková 2005).

Social Consultation for the Unemployed

There is ongoing successful development of consulting services for unemployed people. It should be comprised of three levels. The primary level should contain consulting and information services, which will be available at the Labour Office. The secondary level will also be available at the Labour Office and carried out by qualified employees. They will focus on consulting services in the areas of professional orientation, development of business activities, and both psychological and legal advice. The highest level will be focused on specialised consultation for people who suffered trauma after losing their job and have problems with finding new employment. Mass and group counselling for unemployed people will mainly be in job clubs. Social skills training will be conducted in group counselling and these skills should lead to future employment. Other special activities for the long-term unemployed, unemployed people under 18 years of age, and mentally or physically disabled unemployed people, are available (Schavel 2004). *The goal of consulting services for unemployed people is to provide information, help, and professional advice when choosing a new job, and to help with the right choice of requalification, while considering the specific needs, requirements, health and the situation on the job market* (Schavel, Oláh 2010: 90). Labour Offices are the providers of these services. A social worker is irreplaceable when it comes to securing the rights and duties of people, analysing the client's social situation, and they can provide an overview of the social reality. They also have knowledge on specific problems, availabilities, arrangements, and solutions (Schavel, Oláh 2010).

One of the basic principles of this consultation is that it is free of charge, the client decides if they wish to use these services and the consultant must

remember that their client has the right to make decisions for themselves and to take responsibility for these decisions (Žilová 2003).

We can define the purpose of Labour Office activities from two points of view.

The purpose of consulting services from an individual point of view: effective use of free time; the social and psychological stability of the unemployed person; gaining knowledge and experience about the job market.

The purpose of consulting services from the social point of view: protection from the social pressures of society; prevention of deterioration in working potential; a promising investment into a quality labour force (Žilová 1998).

Consulting services provide an important role of preventing long-term unemployment and eliminating social pressure in society.

RESEARCH

The goal of the research was to determine how unemployment affects the meaning of life for current and long-term unemployed people. Our questions were based on our goal and specification of the problem:

What is the difference in perception of the meaning of life between the currently unemployed and the long-term unemployed?

What is the difference in perception of the meaning of life between men and women?

What is the difference in perception of the meaning of life between the unemployed who live in urban areas versus those living in rural areas?

What is the difference in perception of job importance in the meaning of life between people with a higher education versus those with a lower education?

Are drugs and alcohol a solution for both current and long-term unemployed people when searching for the meaning of life?

What is the difference in perception of death between the currently unemployed and the long-term unemployed?

HYPOTHESIS

HH1: We assumed that the currently unemployed find a greater meaning of life than the long-term unemployed do.

HH2: We assumed that more unemployed women versus unemployed men, consider family to be their meaning of life.

HH3: We assumed that unemployed people living in villages have a better opportunity to find the meaning of life as opposed to those living in a city.

HH4: We assumed that psychosomatic disabilities will occur more in long-term unemployed people than in the currently unemployed.

HH5: We assumed that unemployed people with a higher degree of education would consider having a job more important as opposed to those with a lower education.

HH6: We assumed that long-term unemployed people are more susceptible to drugs and alcohol than the currently unemployed, when searching for the meaning of life.

HH7: We assumed that long-term unemployed people have a more negative approach to death than the currently unemployed.

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH METHODS

We used a quantitative method and the PIL (Purpose in Life Test) questionnaire when conducting our research. J.C.Crumbaugh and L.T.Maholick are the authors of the PIL questionnaire and they published it in 1964. The questionnaire focuses on the issue of the meaning of life, the fear of death, and questions about responsibility and freedom.

The PIL questionnaire consists of three parts. The first part is composed of 20 subparts which address the issue of life goals. These 20 subparts are rated on a 7 points scale. Higher numbers mean that a person has a positive outlook on life and its meaning. We get the results of the first part by totaling the points from all 20 subparts. The total amount can vary from 20 to 140 points. As was already mentioned, a higher number represents a more positive outlook on life and its meaning. The content of the first part is composed of questions concerning an affirmation of life, self-acceptance, freedom, perceived goals, and future, and opinions about death. The second part is composed of 13 unfinished sentences. The third part involves writing down their personal goals and plans for the future (Křivohlavý 2006). We also used a questionnaire about psychosomatic disabilities.

RESEARCH SAMPLE

130 unemployed people participated in the research. 72 of them were currently unemployed (less than 24 months) and 58 of them were long-term unemployed (more than 24 months). The respondents had to be unem-

ployed. The research was conducted via internet. The anticipated participation was 200 respondents, but in the end only 130 of them were willing to participate. The age of the respondents ranged from 20 to 55 years. 45 of them were men while 85 of them were women. There were 75 participants living who lived in a city and 55 participants who lived in a village. 11 of the respondents had only a basic education, 66 had secondary school education, 52 had a university diploma, and 1 respondent had a doctorate.

RESEARCH RESULTS

The statistics programme SPSS was used to evaluate the research results. Specifically, a t-test was used for 2 independent samples and a chi-quadrade test was used for two independent criteria.

HH1: We assumed that the currently unemployed find a greater meaning of life than the long-term unemployed do.

The first part of the PIL questionnaire was used to evaluate this hypothesis. We used a t-test for 2 independent samples during the evaluation. Currently unemployed people achieved an average score of 101, 32 and long-term unemployed people achieved an average score of 79, 47, which was less than the currently unemployed. The value $p = 0.000$ proves that our assumption was correct. We can say that currently unemployed people find a greater meaning of life.

HH2: We assumed that more unemployed women versus unemployed men, consider family to be their meaning of life.

Questions from the third part of the PIL questionnaire were used to prove this hypothesis. These questions were: question 3- *The most important thing in my life is....*, and question 8- *I spend most of my energy....* We used chi-quadrade test for 2 independent criteria. We discovered that 15 out of 45 men (33%) consider family as their meaning of life, and 44 out of 85 women (51, 8%) consider family as their meaning of life. Since the value $p < 0.05$, specifically $p = 0.045$, we can state that our hypothesis was confirmed. We can affirm that unemployed women consider family as their meaning of life in a higher degree than unemployed men.

HH3: We assumed that unemployed people living in villages have a better opportunity to find the meaning of life as opposed to those living in a city.

The first part of the PIL questionnaire was used to evaluate this hypothesis. We used a t-test for 2 independent samples during the evaluation. The average score for people living in cities was 95, 6667, and the average score

for people living in villages was 85, 9818. According to these results we can state that people living in cities have a more positive outlook on life and its meaning since $p < 0.05$, in this case specifically $p = 0.039$. This means that there are significant differences between people living in a village to those living in a city when it comes to the outlook on the meaning of life.

HH4: We assumed that psychosomatic disabilities would occur more in long-term unemployed people than in the currently unemployed.

We used the results of the psychosomatic disabilities questionnaire to evaluate this hypothesis. We used a chi-square test for 2 independent criteria. We found that only 5 of the currently unemployed individuals had psychosomatic disabilities, which is 6.9% of the currently unemployed. 9 of the long-term unemployed showed cases of psychosomatic disabilities, which is 15.5%. Our hypothesis proved to be correct, since $p < 0.05$ ($p = 0.043$).

HH5: We assumed that unemployed people with a higher degree of education would consider having a job more important as opposed to those with a lower education.

Questions from the third part of the PIL questionnaire were used to prove this hypothesis. These questions were: question 3- *The most important thing in my life is....*, and question 8- *I spend most of my energy....* We used a chi-square test for 2 independent criteria. Our research showed that 7 out of 11 (63.6%) persons with a basic education consider having a job to be important. 39 out of 66 (59.1%) persons with a secondary school education consider employment to be important. 25 out of 52 (48.1%) persons with a university diploma consider employment to be important, and the one person with a doctorate considers family to be more important than a job. This means that $p=0.392$ which is greater than 0.05, and therefore making our hypothesis incorrect.

HH6: We assumed that long-term unemployed people are more susceptible to drugs and alcohol than the currently unemployed, when searching for the meaning of life.

To evaluate this hypothesis, we used answers to a question from the second part of the PIL questionnaire, specifically question 10: Finding a solution to alcohol and drug consumption is... We used a chi-square test for 2 independent criteria. The results showed that 15.5 % of the long-term unemployed had a positive opinion on consuming drugs and alcohol while only 7% of the currently unemployed had a positive opinion on consuming drugs and alcohol. In this case $p=0.256$, which is greater than 0.05 and this revealed that our hypothesis was false, that there are no significant differences in

opinion between the current and the long-term unemployed when it concerns alcohol and drugs.

HH7: We assumed that long-term unemployed people have a more negative approach to death than the currently unemployed.

We used the sum of two questions from the first part of the PIL questionnaire to evaluate this hypothesis. These questions were: Q 15: My opinion on death is.... Moreover, Q 16: My opinion on suicide is... We used a t-test for 2 independent samples during the evaluation. We discovered that currently unemployed people scored 8.93 and long-term unemployed people scored 8.21. The maximum score possible was 14 while the minimum was 2. A higher score means that respondents have a more positive outlook on death. Although the currently unemployed had a more positive outlook on death, with $p=0.189$, meaning that there are no significant differences between currently unemployed people and long-term unemployed people. Our hypothesis was incorrect.

CONCLUSION

We attempted to compare our results with the results of other similar research. Similar research was conducted in 2009 (Žiaková, Ščensná 2009). One of the goals of this research was to discover what kind of impact long-term unemployment has on an unemployed person's meaning of life. The research also used the PIL questionnaire, but had only 30 participants who were unemployed for more than 12 months. Our research considered a person to be long-term unemployed when they did not have a job for more than 24 months. The age of respondents was similar in both studies. We tried to compare the hypothesis regarding the negative opinion of death for long-term unemployed people, but none of this research proved this hypothesis. In this particular study, the majority of respondents considered death to be a natural part of life and had a positive opinion about it. In our research, we discovered that unemployed people do not have a strictly negative opinion of death, since their average score was 8 out of 14 possible points. When it comes to an affirmation of life, 53% had an above-average affirmation. Our research showed that long-term unemployed people had an average affirmation of life.

The empirical sociological research of unemployment was conducted from October 2005 to January 2006 with respondents from the records of the Labour Office in Košice. This research was conducted through a direct interview with 600 participants. The goal of this research was to study the satisfac-

tion with their personal life, and a 4-point scale was used. 75% of respondents expressed that they are dissatisfied with their life. The longer the person was unemployed, the less satisfied they were with their life. This result regarding their dissatisfaction with life contradicts the results of our research. Such high dissatisfaction was not recorded in our research (Paukovič 2007). Based on these results, we can confirm that the longer a person remains unemployed, the more their meaning of life diminishes. Long-term unemployed people have a lower self-acceptance in comparison to the currently unemployed. When it comes to comparing the element of freedom, long-term unemployed people say that their life is more influenced by their environment and heritage, and that they are more likely to feel that they do not have their life fully in control. Those, who were unemployed for less than 24 months showed a more positive outlook on future and life goals. It is necessary to give more attention to this issue, even when the results did not show a strictly negative outlook on life and its meaning. We should focus on long-term unemployed people, so they will be both willing and able to work again. We should also pay attention to the currently unemployed, since they can also reach the stage of long-term unemployment. One of the first steps should be allowing young people to be successful in the job market. It is important to focus on those who are less qualified. Prevention and sufficient awareness are necessary. One preventative action should be preparing people for employment, beginning in elementary school and continuing all the way to the training of adults and seniors. However, education is solely not enough for being successful in the job market. This has been proved through our research sample, where 40% of unemployed people had a university diploma and 51% had a secondary school education. If a person wants to be successful, they have to be assertive and communicative. For this reason, the importance of social consultation should be highlighted. Group consultation can work as training, where the client can learn new skills, gain new experience, and learn how to work in groups. Therefore, we recommend increasing subsidies on active market policy and the requalification of unemployed people.

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Summary

The article deals with research on the meaning of life for unemployed people. Our goal was to answer questions about how short-term and long-term unemployment affects the meaning of life for unemployed people, and how social work can help. Unemployment endangers society as a whole and has a negative influence on unemployed people and their families. The article is about researching the meaning of life for people, who are unemployed for a short or a long period of time. Within our research, we used a quantitative method, specifically the PIL questionnaire

(Purpose in Life Test) and the Life goals (Crumbaugh, Maholick 1964) questionnaire. The target group was comprised of 130 unemployed respondents, specifically 72 of them who were currently unemployed and 58 of them who were long-term unemployed. The choice was not accidental. The results of this research will be thoroughly analysed. The conclusion will be about recommendations for the practice of social work and the fact that we need to give more attention to the long-term unemployed in order to encourage them to again become employed.

Key words: meaning of life, the path to gain life-meaning, components to the life meaning, short-term, long-term unemployed

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING - DEVELOPING PROSOCIAL STUDENTS OF THE DEPARTAMENT OF HEALTH EDUCATION FACULTY OF EDUCATION, MASARYK UNIVERSITY IN BRNO

The paper describes the innovations that we have implemented in the Department of Health Education Faculty of Education, Masaryk University in Brno and are focused on the development of prosocial students. These include activities related to experiential learning courses on first aid, and currently with the prevention of the syndrome of old age. Innovative teaching leads not only to an increase in the health literacy of students, but also – in the framework of experiential learning – a deep personal experience. Furthermore, in the paper we deal with the possible implementation of these activities into the school curricula of primary schools – especially (but not only) in the educational area of Humans and Society (Civics) and the cross-cutting theme of Personal and Social Education.

Since 2010, experiential learning has especially focused on teaching first aid, but is now also used in preventing the syndrome of old age.

The skill to provide first aid is the skill of saving lives. Research shows (Reissmannová 2010), that knowledge and skills in this area are not sufficient and it is necessary to strengthen the teaching of first aid at all school levels.

First Aid is taught at the Faculty of Education MU, particularly the Department of Health Education, which is included in the program of the mandatory First Aid Course (1st year bachelor's degree program) and First Aid in the school environment (1st year master's degree program).

Teaching in these subjects are based on lectures and seminars, which are based on the elements of experiential pedagogy and methodology at Vacation School Lipnice, namely ZDRSEM (ZDRSeM, Výuka první pomoci zážitkem) (Medical seminar). We work with simulations of first aid situations that allow students practicing techniques to reduce the stress arising from these situations, and in real situations, and more effectively implement first aid procedures.

Also, all students studying for the 2nd grade of primary school (all fields) Faculty of Education are trained in first aid, but only in the form of lectures and a compulsory Fundamentals of Health Sciences (1st year bachelor's degree program) course, as well as students in the field of teaching in the 1st grade of primary school and kindergarten teacher (daily and combined studies).

In addition to their own teaching of first aid, we propose the implementation of first aid in all subjects that are taught in the second grade of primary school and by strengthening education on this issue.

Before the implementation of the proposal we first had to examine the content analysis (non-quantitative character) of the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education (Reissmannová 2010: 211; Hřivnová 2010: 151). We analysed the defined competencies and recommended a curriculum, which refers to first aid and its proposed possible implementation.

In deciding the general key competences (Metodický portál) relating to the issue of first aid and the development of prosocial behavior, we chose the following:

At the end of primary education, the pupil will:

- **Social and personal competence**
 - effectively cooperate,
 - if necessary, provide assistance or request it,
 - understand the need to work effectively with others to meet the task,
 - control and direct their actions and behaviour.
- **Civic competence**
 - be able to empathize with other people,
 - be aware of their rights and obligations inside and outside of school,
 - according to the situation, decide responsibly according to their capabilities and provide effective assistance; behave responsibly in crisis situations and in situations that threaten human life and health.
- **Problem solving competence**
 - perceive a variety of problem situations in and outside of school, recognize and understand the problem, think and plan a way to solve problems through their own judgment and experience,
 - practically verify the correctness of problem solving and best practices applied in solving similar or new problem situations,
 - think critically, make prudent decisions and be able to defend them, will be aware of the responsibility for their decisions, and will evaluate the results of their actions.
- **Communicative competence**
 - express concisely, coherently and culturally in oral expression,

- listen to what other people say and understand them, then responding to them appropriately,
- use the acquired communication skills for good cooperation with others.

The issue of first aid in the RVP ZV is mainly contained in the educational areas concerning Humans and Health and Humans and the World of Work but it can also be implemented in all educational areas. Due to the content of the conference, we will specifically focus on the educational area of Humans and Society, while cross-cutting the theme of Personal and Social Education.

HUMANS AND SOCIETY

The educational area of Humans and Society includes education on History and Citizenship Education. *Expected outputs:*

Student

- evaluates and uses examples to demonstrate the importance of solidarity between people, express their options, as may be necessary, to help people in need and in situations of danger,
- applies appropriate forms of behaviour and communication in different situations,
- assesses and uses examples to demonstrate the benefits of cooperation among people in solving specific tasks,
- explains how to use a realistic understanding and evaluation of their own personality and potential to positively influence their decision,
- assesses the influence of personal characteristics to overcome barriers,
- complies with all legal provisions that apply to the situation, and is aware of the risks of violating them.

Curriculum

- human encounters – human solidarity, helping people in need, needy people in society,
- relationship between people – interpersonal communication,
- principles of human coexistence – ethics and morality, rules of conduct; benefits of human cooperation,
- inner self – perception, experience, personal value system,
- infringement – types of unlawful conduct and sanctions, criminal liability; violations of traffic regulations.

Possible implementation

- emphasise the moral and legal obligation to provide first aid,
- importance of cooperation and solidarity,

- appropriate communication in crisis situations,
- situational first aid used to diagnose feelings, qualities, prejudices, fears, be used as a model situation – first aid provided by a friend and the homeless,
- obligation to provide first aid and the penalty for failure to provide it.

CROSS- CUTTING THEMES

Cross-cutting themes in RVP ZV circuit current problems of the contemporary world and are an important and integral part of basic education.

Cross-cutting themes are *a compulsory part of basic education*. In educating, the school must include all topics listed in 1st and 2nd stages at RVP ZV.

In basic education, cross-cutting themes are defined in: Personal and Social education; Education for a democratic citizenship; Thinking in European and global contexts; Multicultural Education; Environmental Education; Media Education.

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL EDUCATION

The cross-cutting theme *Personal and Social Education* in basic education emphasises the formative elements, focuses on subject and object, and is used in practical and everyday life and it enables the pupil to form practical life skills. Contribution to the development of cross-cutting theme of the Pupil.

In the area of knowledge, skills and cross-cutting theme:

- leads to understanding oneself and others; helps to manage one's own behaviour; develops basic skills of good communication; creates and develops basic skills for cooperation; to acquire essential social skills to deal with complex situations (eg conflicts).

In the area of attitudes and values cross-cutting theme:

- leads to an awareness of the value of cooperation and assistance; leads to an awareness of the value the diversity of people, views and approaches to problem-solving; contributes to an awareness of the moral dimensions of various types of human behaviour.

All themes are made practically through the use of games, exercises, model situations and relevant discussion. Capability development and understanding-exercise problem solving skills:

- self-awareness and self-esteem – my body, my mind (temperament, attitudes, values); what I know about myself and what I am not; a reflection of myself in my behaviour; my relationships with other people;

- self-regulation and self-organisation – exercise self-control, self-regulation of behaviour and experiences, willpower;
- mental – skills for managing stressful situations (rational problem-solving, relaxation, effective communication, etc.); seeking help when in trouble;
- creativity – exercises for developing the basic features of creativity (flexibility of ideas, the ability to see things differently, sensitivity);
- interpersonal relationship – empathy and view of the world through another, support, help;
- communication – body language, speech sounds and words, the language of human actions; exercise observation, empathy and active listening; communication skills both verbal and nonverbal dialogue (dialogue, its rules and procedures, types of dialogue); communication in different contexts, effective strategies: assertive communication, communication defense against aggression, open and positive communication;
- cooperation and competition – developing individual skills for cooperation, development of social skills for cooperation (clear and respectful communication, conflict resolution, submission, management and organisation of work groups);
- problem – solving and decision-making skills – skills for problem-solving and decision-making in terms of different types of problems;
- values, attitudes, practical ethics – analysing their own and others' attitudes, values and their influence on human behaviour; creating awareness of qualities such as responsibility;
- helping and prosocial behavior (expected return); decision-making skills in ethically problematic situations of everyday life.

POSSIBLE IMPLEMENTATION

The cross-cutting theme of *Personal and Social Education* is, in our opinion, an ideal subject in which pupils can discuss the ethical and moral aspects of first aid. Developing communication skills and collaboration are key in providing first aid, so important skills continuously, actively and consciously develop. It is also necessary to direct students to the fact that sometimes it is necessary to assume a leadership role and sometimes be a subordinate, neither of which is as important as the role of rescuer in first-aid; someone who will take the lead role, cooperate with rescuers, and who are active listeners.

Also, in other educational areas, to meet with the elements in the development of prosocial behaviour in relation to the first aid presented here.

HUMANS AND HEALTH

Aims of the education field

Education in this educational area focuses on the formation and development of pupils' key competencies by guiding pupils to:

- recognising health as one of the most important values in life,
- linking behaviour and activities related to health and healthy interpersonal relationships, the basic ethical and moral attitudes, willpower, etc.,
- active participation in activities promoting health and community health promotion activities at school and in the village.

Health Education

Expected outcomes for the 2nd stage:

Student

- respects the accepted rules of coexistence among peers and partners; positive communication and cooperation,
- assesses the various ways of human behaviour in terms of responsibility for their own health and the health of others, and draws them from personal liability in favour of active health promotion,
- demonstrates a responsible relationship to oneself,
- if necessary, seeks professional help for themselves or others.

Curriculum

- relationship and rules of coexistence within the community,
- compliance of health and safety – safe school environment, health protection during various activities, traffic safety, knowledge of traffic rules,
- self;
- self – regulation and self-organisation activities and behaviour – exercising self-reflection, self-control, and coping with difficult situations;
- interpersonal relationship, communication and cooperation – empathy; active listening, dialogue, effective and assertive communication and cooperation in various situations;
- moral development – exercise taking value of attitudes and decision-making skills; problem-solving skills in interpersonal relationships; supportive and prosocial behavior.

LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

Czech Language and Literature

Expected outcomes

Student

- respects the basic rules of communication in conversation,
- correctly leads a dialogue, telephone conversation,
- communicates in a polite, concise, and uses linguistic resources suitable for a given communication situation.

Curriculum

- listening – listening practice (expressing contact with a partner, teaching empathy); listening material (attentive, focused, active – recording heard, responding questions),
- speaking – expression depends on the communication situation; greeting, salutation, prayer, the beginning and the end of the dialogue, alternating roles of speaker and listener.

Possible implementation

- practise listening – situation: communication injured – rescuer (rescuer listens to the injured, rescuer – dispatcher (skits where rescuer listens to the dispatcher), listening to the teacher – explaining, assigning tasks,
- speaking – training activation of IRS (telephone) conversation injured – rescuer, rescuer interview – dispatcher use of photographs, video, film – PP situation – extra-linguistic means (facial expressions and gestures of people and rescuers) – the possibility of using pictures in the first aid manuals.

Foreign language

Expected outcomes

Student

- understands simple instructions and sentences, and responds appropriately actively participates in simple conversations, greets and says goodbye to both an adult and a friend, provides the required information.

Curriculum

- rules of communication in everyday situations – greetings, thanks, introductions,
- easy communication – addressing, responding to salutation, greeting, prayer, request, request for assistance, service information.

Possible implementation

- training situation – practise talking with the dispatcher, interview with handicapped-find out what happened, how they feel, practicing first aid situations-communication in cooperation with rescuer.

THE HUMAN AND THEIR WORLD

The educational area **The Human and Their World** is the only training area in the RVP ZV, which is specifically designed for the first stage of basic education. This educational area contains several topics including the circuit *The Human and Their Health* containing outputs relating to first aid.

Successful education in the region is the pupils' own experience of model situations when acquiring the necessary skills, behaviour and decision-making. This significantly contributes to the teacher's personal example.

Expected outcomes – 1st period

Student

- observes basic hygiene regimen and other preventative health habits using knowledge of the human body; exhibits appropriate behaviour and activities related to health,
- if necessary, asks for assistance for themselves or for another child.

Expected outcomes – 2nd period

Student

- follows the rules for coexistence at school between boys and girls in the family, in the village (town),
- evaluates specific human activities with relation to the environment and distinguishes activities that can either help or harm the environment and human health,
- applies purposeful behaviours in situations that threaten health and the simulated model emergency situations.

Curriculum

- family – employment,
- coexistence of people – interpersonal relationships, communication, assisting the sick,
- human behaviour – the rules of etiquette,
- law and justice – infringement,
- personal safety – safe behaviour in a risky environment, safe behaviour in traffic as pedestrians and cyclists, support services,
- situation of collective threat.

Possible implementation

- stories about situations where someone needed first aid,
- employment of parents – paramedic, doctor, nurse,
- first aid in emergency situations.

DRAMA IN EDUCATION (COMPLEMENTARY EDUCATIONAL FIELD)

Drama in Education is an ideal field in which the dramatisation of different first aid situations are used; pupils and students will learn the role of victim and rescuer, will experience the feelings associated

Teaching first aid, according to research results (Reissmannová 2010: 211) insufficient, or not sufficiently effective. So what can you do to increase the effectiveness of teaching? What are theories of education on which they are based and what teaching methods are more effective in the classroom for teaching use?

The main sources of inspiration from which the creation of the psychological aspects come from is the publication by Bertrand (Bertrand 1998: 247, Pash 1998: 416), Kalhous and Obst (Kalhous, Obst 2002: 447), and Maňák and Švec (2003: 219). We were also inspired by methodology, which include a detailed description of the methodological recommendations for the teaching of PP and also personal participation in the course *First Aid experience* Vacation School Lipnice (Prázdninová škola Lipnice (PŠL); ZDRSeM, Výuka první pomoci zážitkem).

In terms of theories of learning, we are interested in the cognitive psychological theory of constructivism representing the social and cognitive theory of cooperative teaching and learning. The teaching methods are mainly methods of skills – practical (making skills), activating (problem solving, situational and staging method), and comprehensive learning methods (group and cooperative learning, critical thinking).

The following text briefly acquaints the reader with the above-mentioned theories and methods, and outline issues relating to first aid.

The theories of learning prefer to teach first aid as follows: Constructivist teaching practices

Also, we are interested in first aid, what preconceptions pupils or students have about the problem, whether it is the structure of the body of man or PP procedures. To make the learning effective, it is necessary to bring the student to the stage repeatedly, properly motivate them and show them that their current approach is inadequate and does not solve the problem. It is also necessary to enable the student to try out new knowledge in different situations; we can say that the more we experience something, the greater significance and meaning it has for us. In terms of first aid it is important in another aspect, Bertrand mentions the fact that learning difficulties are

often not hidden in the curriculum itself, but in ideas on how to explore and learn. There is a clear role for the teacher to be supportive to the student and *must design and implement such an educational environment that is necessary for the pupil attained the knowledge and to use them* (Bertrand 1998: 78). The moment when the teacher helps the student to realise the contradiction between their existing imprecise knowledge and reality is the key to learning.

Cooperative teaching and learning

In the Czech Republic, cooperative learning is detailed by Kasíková (1999). When teaching first aid, deductive teaching is unavoidable, but to make it more effective, we should, in our opinion, add more inductive teaching and social forms of teaching.

In the teaching of first aid we can use a number of teaching methods, whether it be a lecture, explanation or instruction. These methods, however, are not, in our view, very effective because in the teaching of PP it is important to place emphasis on developing practical skills, further activating methods (method of problem solving, situational method and staging), and comprehensive learning methods (group and cooperative teaching method critical thinking).

Creating skills

In the process of the formation, key skills are: updating the skills and experience of the students, orientation problems, active search for solutions, the variation of the conditions for the wider application of skills and transferring skills to new situations. Maňák and Švec (2003:219) state that for effective learning skills, there are suitable methods such as problem-solving, situational and staging methods, group and cooperative learning, project based learning and further, that the methods that we have created for effective first aid training.

Solving the problem (heuristic methods, discovery)

For the first issue of helping us comes a draft appropriate for use in solving the Zelina (Zelina 1996) problem and these are: define the problem; be informed; creature solution; evaluate solutions and implement solutions. The method of solving the problem is a closely related situational method, which applies to a broader scope of the problem.

SITUATIONAL AND STAGING METHODS

Situational methods are applicable to a broader background of the problem, the real case of life with a specific, difficult phenomena causing the need to deal with them, requiring a committed effort to decision-making (Maňák, Švec 2003:219). This is a simulation of an event in which role playing and problem solving are combined, for example, by displaying real-life situations; it not only deepens the subject matter discussed, but reveals the feelings and actions of people. Now consider the experience in teaching first aid as essential, and one of our primary goals is to focus first aid training in this direction. More about staging methods and simulation in teaching PP can be found in experiential learning and methodological materials at NAPLNO (Metodická příručka k výuce tematiky) or ZDRSEM (ZDRSeM, Výuka první pomoci zážitkem). Information for staging methods (role playing and simulation) can be found, for example, in the publication Pasch (Pasch 1998: 243-247), Pasch which states, for example, what questions would you have ask a teacher in the preparation of a simulation. Simulations also use new teaching issues in the syndrome of age.

Currently, there is a growing proportion of the elderly population, and the very slowly growing younger generation. 80 % of seniors are able to live independently and it is therefore very important to maintain their fitness and the least manifested diseases associated with old age, but these are clearly preventable – it is all about overweight, osteoporosis, atherosclerosis, etc. Prevention of the syndrome of age should be started in the second decade of human life; however, this requires improving the health literacy of the population since childhood. Therefore it seems most effective to address this issue with future teachers.

In cooperation with the Faculty of Medicine of MU prof. Matějovská – Kubešová (chairwoman of the Czech Gerontology and Geriatrics Society and Head of the Department of Internal Medicine, Geriatrics and Practical Medicine) and Mgr. Kellner, we have designed several ways to educate students on this issue (primarily students of Health Education) and subsequently bring this issue to primary schools. These are the lectures and the important part is the ability to experience physical changes that are associated with the senior age, through a sophisticated system simulating age. Innovative teaching not only leads to increase the health literacy of students, but also – in the framework of experiential learning – a deep personal experience and an increase in sociality students (more on Pdf MU (Katedry výchovy ke zdraví)).

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Summary

The paper describes the innovations that we have implemented in the Department of Health Education Faculty of Education, Masaryk University in Brno and are focused on the development of prosocial students. These include activities related to experiential learning courses on first aid, and currently with the prevention of the syndrome of old age. Innovative teaching leads not only to an increase in the health literacy of students, but also – in the framework of experiential learning – a deep personal experience. Furthermore, in the paper we deal with the possible implementation of these activities into the school curricula of primary schools – especially (but not only) in the educational area of Humans and Society (Civics) and the cross-cutting theme of Personal and Social Education.

Key words: first aid, primary school, innovations

THE PERCEPTION OF A HEALTH DISABILITY WITHIN SOCIETY IN THE CONTEXT OF VOLUNTEERING AND THE ATTITUDE OF CZECH AND POLISH UNIVERSITY STUDENTS TO PERSONS WITH A HEALTH DISABILITY

INTRODUCTION – DISABILITY IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

At present, handicapped people create a significant group of persons in all states and countries of the world. The percentage of those persons in the individual EU countries varies from 5 to 19% (depending on the different criteria when assessing the disability). Generally, we can say that approximately 38 million people in the EU, or every tenth European of all age categories, are handicapped (Michalík 2013). In the Czech Republic, the number of the handicapped persons is approximately 10% based on qualified estimates; thus, that amounts to approximately 1 million inhabitants of the Czech Republic. However, other persons must be added to this number as most of the handicapped persons live in families and the caregivers are also more or less affected by the psychological, emotional, social and economic results of a disability. Thus, it is obvious that caring for these persons should be the effort of all of society in the fields of social care, respite care, and health care, as well as activities such as volunteering.

DEFINITIONS OF VOLUNTEERING IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

Definitions of volunteering always come from certain principles or perspectives on why this activity is performed, and what benefits it brings to both the volunteer and the client. Nevertheless, it is always a demonstration of solidarity, self-fulfilment and mutual enrichment.

It is Haškovcová (2010) who characterises a voluntary activity according to the principles on which it is based, and addresses the principles of shared solidarity and practical help to needy people. On the other hand, Matoušek (2003: 55) defines the term of volunteering from the perspective of the

performance of the voluntary activity: *Volunteering is an unpaid and non-carrier activity, which people perform so that they can help their fellowmen, community or society.* Horecký (2010: 20) also states the definition of volunteering, in which he mentions the contribution of the activity itself for a volunteer: *Volunteering is not a sacrifice, but a natural demonstration of civic maturity. It brings a specific help to those who need it, but at the same time it gives a feeling of meaningfulness, it is a source of new experience and skills and enrichment of interpersonal relations.* Similarly, Bočková, Hastrmanová, Havrdová (2011: 87) define volunteering by means of the volunteer's own activity as: *An activity, by means of which we give our time, our talent, our abilities, but also our strength as unselfish help to others.*

CLASSIFICATION OF VOLUNTEERING IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

One of the possibilities to classify volunteering based on the number of volunteers who participate in the given activity, according to Matoušek (2003):

- **Individual volunteering**, when a person finds a place or organisation, in which they would like to volunteer. The individual also decides with which group of clients they would like to work. The activity can be one-time or long-term.
- **Mini-project**, this is usually a one-time activity of a group of people that share a common desire and willingness to participate in the preparation and realisation of the project.
- **Participation in so-called work camps**, which are usually organised by agencies that select groups of volunteers.

Šormová and Klégrová (2006) specify volunteering in respect to a future client of the volunteers as follows:

- **Voluntary civic help**, is a spontaneous and usually natural assistance to a family, among friends etc.
- **Mutually beneficial volunteering**, is a voluntary activity within a community, which its members perform for one another.
- **Community beneficial volunteering**, a specific activity assigned to a volunteer; this activity must be done and its requirements must be fulfilled.
- **Voluntary work**, a volunteer's activity is usually long-term based.

Volunteering can also be divided depending on the number of participants, to whom the volunteer or volunteers provide service. It implies that volunteering is:

- **Group**, a volunteer or volunteers work in a group;
- **Individual**, a volunteer or volunteers are in contact with one client.

The final volunteering categories are specified **according to the field in which they operate**:

- Social services;
- Health care;
- School system;
- Extracurricular education;
- Sports;
- Therapies;
- Environmental and nature protection issues;
- Culture, etc.

VOLUNTEER AND HIS INTERPRETATION IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

In the Czech Republic, Act no. 198/2002 Coll., Section 1 (Act no. 198/2002 Coll.) specifies that: *A volunteer is a natural person, who is able to perform volunteering in respect to their intellectual and volitional maturity.* The Act, Section 3 (Act no. 198/2002 Coll.), further specifies a volunteer as follows: *A volunteer can be a natural person that is:*

- *Older than 15, if volunteering service performance is concerned with the Czech Republic;*
- *Older than 18, if volunteering service performance is concerned abroad, and that person willingly decides to provide volunteering service based on their qualities, knowledge and skills.*

The professional literature (Tošner, Sozanská 2006: 12) states a simpler specification of a volunteer: *Anybody can be a volunteer.* Nevertheless, they add a description of the specific volunteer's activity (Tošner, Sozanská 2006: 20): *A volunteer is a person who, beyond his everyday duties and in his free time, uses his skills, knowledge and experience to the benefit of others, who need our help.* Matouš et al. (2002: 12) complete this definition: *Everybody can become best involved in the place where they know the relations best – in the place of their address or former workplace. Young seniors represent the most important source of volunteers in the Czech Republic. These especially are activities in health care and social services or neighbourly help.*

Volunteers can also be classified according to basic criteria, e.g. age, sex, education, profession, length of operation in the organisation and there are other possibilities to divide volunteers.

MOTIVATION FOR VOLUNTEERING

The motivation for volunteering can differ with every volunteer. The basic reasons for volunteering are: a desire to be beneficial, the possibility of meaningful activity, a new experience, or the acquirement of basic skills during contact with people, etc.

Bočková, Hastrmanová, Havrdová (2011: 87) consider in detail the positive role of volunteering, in which can be found: not only a good feeling from helping others, possibilities to create new friendships and enhancement of one's own feeling of being needed, but also in spending active free time and possibilities of contact with new people.

However, it is also necessary to consider a negative motivation, which can also appear in a volunteer. Gulová (2011: 66) specifies its elements in the following way: *sympathy leading to degradation of a client, inappropriate curiosity, salvation by deeds, a desire to sacrifice oneself, loneliness, a desire for friendship, personal feeling of irreplaceability, a lack of self-respect, a desire to meet someone more miserable, and bossiness.*

Theoretically, anyone can become a volunteer; nevertheless, there are certain personal preconditions for this activity, such as the positive motivation for volunteering and the willingness to cooperate. Patience, empathy and the ability to listen are also important. A certain level of enthusiasm, interest and courage is a precondition too. A volunteer should not forget about themselves and their willingness to deepen their knowledge and skills further is also important.

If an organisation considers using volunteers, it is necessary to take into account basic questions, which the workers of the given organisation should ask before approaching a volunteering centre or volunteers (Horecký 2010: 21):

- *Why – why do we actually want the volunteers?*
- *Where – where will the volunteers work?*
- *What – what will the volunteers do?*
- *When – when and how often should the volunteers come to the institution?*
- *What – what will their activity look like?*
- *Who – who will be the person responsible for the volunteer in our organisation?*
- *To whom – who will the volunteer come to?*

VOLUNTEERING CENTRES IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

These are mainly non-profit organisations, which provide volunteers with facilities for their activities, to not only provide continuous supervision training, but also insurance for the volunteer. They cooperate with various

organisations and institutions that use volunteering. A volunteer coordinator is an important person here providing realisation of the volunteering activities. The coordinator trains new volunteers, hires them, and finishes cooperation with them. They process information about the volunteers' activities, deals with possible conflicts or issues, etc. The coordinator cooperates with a contact person in the institution or organisation. That person is usually a social or activation worker, who specifies the rules according to the needs of the given institution and ensures the course of the volunteering activities in the institution or organisation.

BEGINNING AND COURSE OF VOLUNTEERING ACTIVITY

If an individual decides to volunteer, they must decide in the beginning whether to approach an institution or organisation directly and offer them their time and abilities. The other possibility is to contact a respective volunteering centre. We will focus on contacting a volunteering centre in more detail.

The respective workers of the volunteering centre will invite the person interested in volunteering to a personal interview (or the volunteer will complete a questionnaire in the beginning and then a personal interview will follow). Both parties will inform the other party of their expectations and requirements during the interview. They will also specify the possibilities of the centre and the volunteer. It is certainly good to determine a target group, with which the volunteer would like to cooperate within their activities, or to determine a sphere of activities, which the volunteer would like to do.

Next, there is some time left for both parties to consider the possibility of volunteering. If both parties are still interested, the practical training of the volunteer can follow in the organisation. However, the training is not a condition. Next, a volunteering contract is concluded with the volunteer. They are informed of the basic rules, personnel, and centre or organisation standards. Only then are the activities actually performed. The volunteers should regularly participate in supervision; however, it depends on the rules of the given centre. Regular meetings of the volunteer and the centre worker (they can be called a volunteer coordinator) can also be arranged and the volunteers can regularly meet to share their experience. A volunteer's attendance sheet does not have to be used as a rule, but its completion has proved useful (especially, in the cases of repeated volunteering). The volunteer records their activities classified according to time and content. This sheet should be regularly handed over to the so-called volunteer coordinator. The content of the volunteering activities may change. The target group, activity or organisation may also

change during the volunteering activities. Nevertheless, a change should always follow only after mutual communication and analysis of the situation together with the volunteer and the centre worker.

ATTITUDES AND STEREOTYPES TOWARDS HANDICAPPED PERSONS

During the development of human society, disability for its external observability has become a subject of many myths, stereotypes and prejudices accompanying everyday life of the majority of society. It was also used as a theme for books, theatre performances and films. There are attitudes known from the past perceiving disability as (Michalík 2013: 105): *God's punishment or at least as a thing which is odd and different. In both these attitudes we see the perception of so-called abnormal.*

Despite this, society has been trying to counterbalance these discriminating stereotypes more or less successfully during the last decades; even today we still encounter cases where people do not want to accept the integration of handicapped people into their immediate environment.

Generally, the attitudes and relationships of a certain majority of society depend on the socio-cultural influences of the given environment because they are not inborn, but are formed gradually by learning and experience in a social group. Society usually supports certain attitudes and refuses others, or even punishes them. Vágnerová (2004: 190) states that: *These attitudes are difficult to change; we can often talk about stereotype or prejudice.* In practice, it means that if the atmosphere in the majority of society towards handicapped people is not positive, the prejudice towards those people will still appear. Moreover, this prejudice will be transferred from generation to generation.

These facts have led us to the question of what attitudes will the younger generation (in this case, undergraduates – future teachers) have toward handicapped people in general, and in relation to themselves, to their own social status and to people who are close socially. We were also interested in whether these attitudes will vary significantly in different socio-cultural environments, between Czech and Polish undergraduates.

AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The aim of the performed research was to discover the differences in the general perception of disability in society by undergraduates in the Czech Republic and the Republic of Poland in a broader social context. This aim has

When a factor analysis of the measurement on these scales was performed, Osgood (Osgood, Suci, Tannenbaum 1957) extracted 4 common factors, out of which the last, fourth factor was practically unimportant. The strongest factor was the first one – marked as the evaluation factor (h), the second one as the potency factor (p) and the third one as the activity factor (a).

When constructing the semantic differential (hereafter referred to as SD) we can proceed from the initial Osgood’s scales, however, it is necessary to follow a certain proportion when we have to consider that the evaluation scales are usually the strongest ones, therefore, they should not outnumber the scales measuring potency or activity. The scales usually have seven levels.

However, when a checking factor analysis was performed in the Czech socio-cultural conditions (Chráska 2007) it was found that only two factors significantly contributed to a dispersion of the values. The extraction of three factors leads to a relatively unreliable measurement when one scale measures different factors at different terms. The first factor was marked as the evaluation factor in compliance with Ch. Osgood. The second factor is a combination of the initial potency and activity factors and it was called the energy factor. The scales, which are saturated by the energy factor, express how much the respondents perceive the selected terms as “something”, which is connected with exertion, difficulties, changes or activity. Based on the analyses performed, a measuring instrument – ATER (Attitudes Toward Education Reality) – has been created. This instrument contains 10 scales, out of which 5 measure the evaluation factor (h) and 5 measure the energy factor (e), * marks reserve scales again – see Figure 1. This measuring instrument was used in our research for measuring the attitudes of Czech and Polish undergraduates (Chrásková 2012).

CARE FOR THE HANDICAPPED IN SOCIETY					
1	good	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	bad		h
2	undemanding	<input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	demanding		e*
3	pleasant	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	unpleasant		h*
4	trouble	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	trouble-free		e
5	fair	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	dark		h
6	light	<input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	heavy		e*
7	ugly	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	beautiful		h
8	easy	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	difficult		e*

9	sweet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	sour	h
10	strict	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	lenient	e

Figure 1. Data sheet of a two-factor semantic differential – ATER for the term “Care for the handicapped in society”

The data, which was obtained from the students (Chrásková 2012) by means of the individual scales of the ATER questionnaire, were analysed in the STATISTICA Cz 12 program by means of factor analysis (Chráska 2008) so that the factor compliance could be assessed.

During selection of the scales, the scales were designed in such a way so that each scale would measure only one factor, i.e. only the evaluation or the energy of the term. If the designed scales are always supposed to measure only one factor, only two important factors, which always correlate with the same scales, i.e. the evaluation factor with the scales 1, 3, 5, 7, 9 and the energy factor with the scales 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, must appear in the factor analysis. Summary of the factor analysis for all terms and scales is well arranged in the following Table 1.

Table 1. Checking of SD factor structure at Czech undergraduates

Term	Compliance with factor structure of scale									
	s1	s2	s3	s4	s5	s6	s7	s8	s9	s10
Health	y	y	y		y	y!	y	y	y	y
Education*	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y
Future	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y
Parents	y	y	y		y		y	y!	y	y
Friendship	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y
I	y	y	y		y		y	y	y	y
Money	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y
Foreign language knowledge*	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y!
My future success at work	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y
Position of the handicapped individual in society	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	
My relationship with handicapped people	y	y	y		y		y		y	y
Care of the handicapped in society	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	
Compliance with factor structure proposed	12	12	12	8	12	9	12	11!	12	10

* first strongest factor is energy

During measurement of the attitudes of Czech undergraduates we calculated the average evaluation and energy of the terms from the following scales, which corresponded most to the designed model after performing the factor analysis (Chráska 2008):

- evaluation – scales 1, 3, 5, 7, 9,
- energy – scales 2, 8.

An identical measurement of the attitudes using the semantic differential was also performed on Polish undergraduates. In terms of content, identical terms of school and social environment were presented to them, the terms that were also earlier presented to Czech undergraduates (Chrásková 2011).

The semantic differential was translated for the Polish students by a native speaker after a personal consultation and discussion about the exact meaning of the terms.

To prevent possible problems with the factor structure of the Polish version of the ATER questionnaire, we have decided to verify this structure. The summarised analysis results are shown in Table 2. It is evident that compliance with the expected factor structure is not as large, as none of the scales has the required structure (unlike the analysis in the Czech Republic). Therefore, for further calculation of the average evaluations and energies of the examined terms, it is possible to apply the following scales with some reservations:

- For evaluation – scales 1 and 3.
- For energy – scales 2 and 8.

Table 2. Checking of SD factor structure at Polish undergraduates

Term and its Polish equivalent	Compliance with factor structure of scale									
	s1	s2	s3	s4	s5	s6	s7	s8	s9	s10
Health		y	y!	y	y		y		y	
Education*	y		y		y	y		y		y
Future	y	y	y		y!	y	y!	y		y!
Parents	y	y	y	y			y	y		
Friendship	y	y	y		y		y	y	y	
I	y	y	y			y	y	y	y	
Money	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	
Foreign language knowledge*	y!			y		y		y		
My future success at work	y	y	y		y!	y!	y	y	y	
Position of the handicapped individual in society		y	y		y		y		y	
My relationship with handicapped people	y	y!	y			y		y		

Care of the handicapped in society	y	y	y		y		y		y	
Compliance with factor structure proposed	10	10	11	4	8	7	9	9	7	2

* first strongest factor is energy

DETERMINATION OF RESEARCH ASSUMPTIONS

Three research assumptions (RA) have been determined in the performed research.

RA1: Perception of the issues relating to disability in the societies of the Czech Republic and the Republic of Poland will be very similar or only with slight differences when taking into consideration the historical-cultural closeness of both nations.

RA2: The examined group of respondents will perceive the terms relating to their individual social status differently in the Czech Republic and the Republic of Poland when taking into consideration their current job preparation.

RA3: The examined group of respondents will perceive the terms relating to close social relations similarly in the Czech Republic and the Republic of Poland.

The following terms have been determined as indicators for evidence of the individual research assumptions:

RA1:

- „Position of the handicapped individual in the society”;
- „Care for the handicapped in society”;
- „My relationship with handicapped persons”.

RA2:

- „Health”;
- „Future”;
- “Education”;
- „Foreign language knowledge”;
- „My future success at work”;
- „Money”.

RA3:

- „I”;
- „Parents”;
- „Friendship”.

DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH SAMPLE

In 2012, for the research on attitude, several study groups were selected as a research sample according to their field of study. In the Czech Republic, 404 students from the Faculty of Education, Palacký University (Chrásková 2013) in Olomouc studying social sciences, technical and special education participated in the research. In the same year, the research sample of respondents was created by 102 students studying social sciences and technical teaching at the University in Rzeszow in the Republic of Poland.

RESEARCH RESULTS

The average evaluation and energy of all examined terms is given in Table 3. An independent semantic space of terms has been developed from these values for each country (see Figure 2 and 3). In order to differentiate the students' attitudes in both countries better, another semantic space depicting the terms with respect to their subjective evaluation and extent of the energy invested has been developed. We can determine "closer" and "more distant" terms with respect to their subjective perception by the students and also their different perceptions in the Czech Republic and the Republic of Poland (substantial shifts are depicted with an arrow in Figure 4).

The Table also further shows significances in the difference between the average calculated results of evaluation and energy of the individual terms in both countries – comparison was made by means of a Student's t-test in the STATISTICA 12 CZ program. The statistically important values are in bold. The Table clearly shows that there are significant differences in the perception of almost all terms evaluated by the students.

We find the following differences in the terms related to the attitudes towards disability and social environment:

The term "**Position of the handicapped individual in society**" is evaluated significantly worse in the Czech Republic (hereafter referred to as CZ) and perhaps for that reason it is related to a significantly higher rate of energy invested than in the Republic of Poland (hereafter referred to as PL).

- The term "**Care for the handicapped in society**" is in CZ evaluated similarly as in PL, however, it is related to a significantly higher rate of energy invested than in PL.
- The term "**My relationship with handicapped persons**" is in CZ evaluated similarly as in PL, however, it is related to a significantly higher rate of energy invested than in PL in the same way as in the previous point.

Table 3. The average evaluation and energy of all examined terms

Term and its: average evaluation (h) and energy (e)	The Czech Republic – Palacký University in Olomouc	The Republic of Poland – University of Rzeszow	Value of tested criterion t	Calculated significance p	Statistically important difference
Health – h	5,37	5,12	1,75	0,08	No
Health – e	4,23	3,63	3,58	<0,01	Yes
Education – h	5,14	4,77	3,01	<0,01	Yes
Education – e	4,88	4,17	5,01	<0,01	Yes
Future – h	5,16	4,41	5,08	<0,01	Yes
Future – e	4,93	4,48	3,07	<0,01	Yes
Parents – h	5,96	5,76	1,70	0,09	No
Parents – e	4,15	3,28	5,71	<0,01	Yes
Friendship – h	6,09	5,77	2,85	<0,01	Yes
Friendship – e	3,90	2,92	5,43	<0,01	Yes
I – h	5,16	5,53	-3,25	<0,01	Yes
I – e	4,53	3,25	8,45	<0,01	Yes
Money – h	4,89	4,95	-0,45	0,65	No
Money – e	5,27	4,28	6,91	<0,01	Yes
Foreign language knowledge – h	4,48	4,82	-1,77	0,08	No
Foreign language knowledge – e	5,54	4,09	9,35	<0,01	Yes
My future success at work – h	5,05	5,03	0,17	0,86	No
My future success at work – e	4,92	4,00	6,40	<0,01	Yes
Position of the handicapped individual in society – h	3,53	4,14	-5,02	<0,01	Yes
Position of the handicapped individual in society – e	5,64	4,18	11,83	<0,01	Yes
My relationship with handicapped people – h	5,70	5,62	0,73	0,46	No
My relationship with handicapped people – e	3,40	2,66	4,45	<0,01	Yes
Care of the handicapped in society – h	4,15	4,01	1,09	0,28	No
Care of the handicapped in society – e	5,30	4,26	7,46	<0,01	Yes

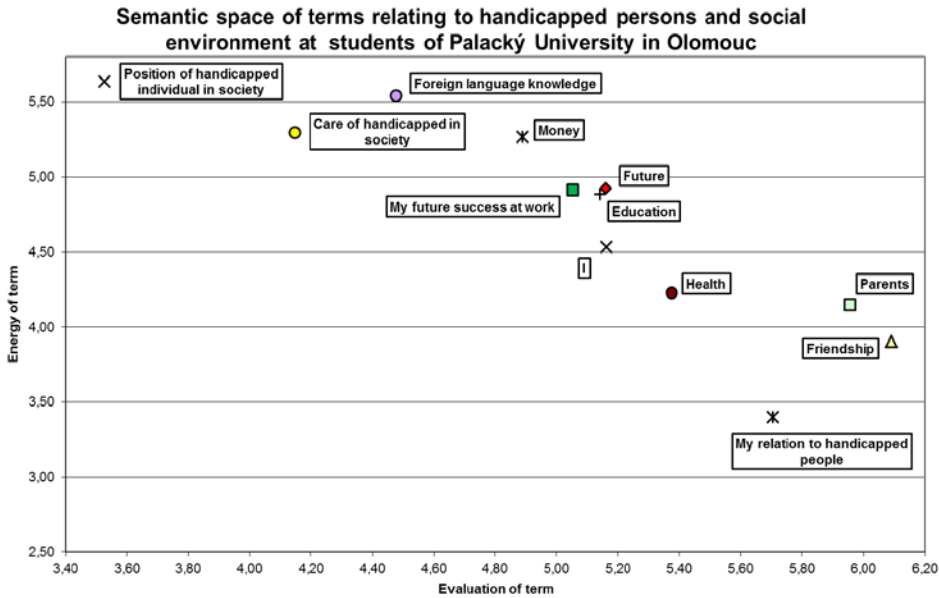


Figure 2. Semantic space of terms relating to handicapped persons and social environment of students of Palacký University in Olomouc

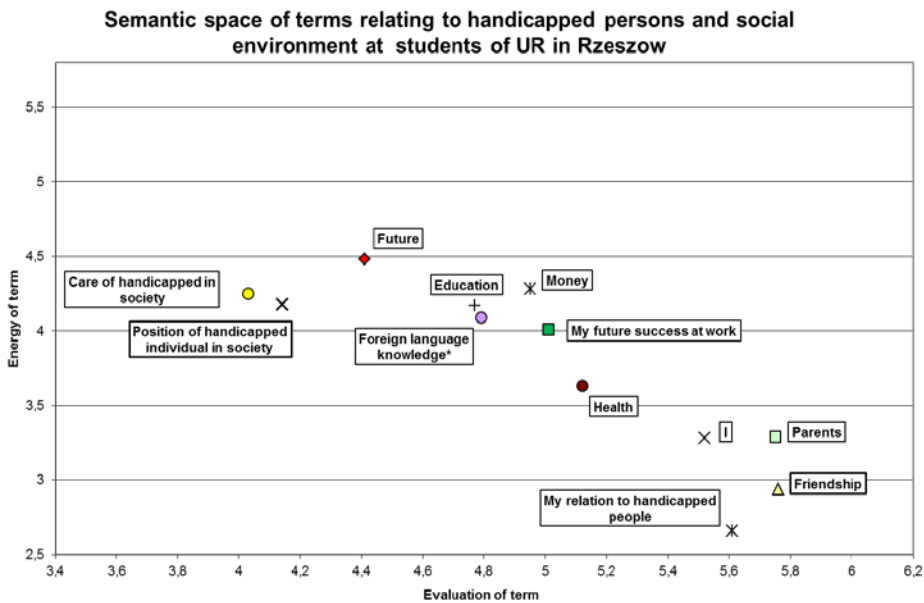


Figure 3. Semantic space of terms relating to handicapped persons and social environment of students of UR in Rzeszow

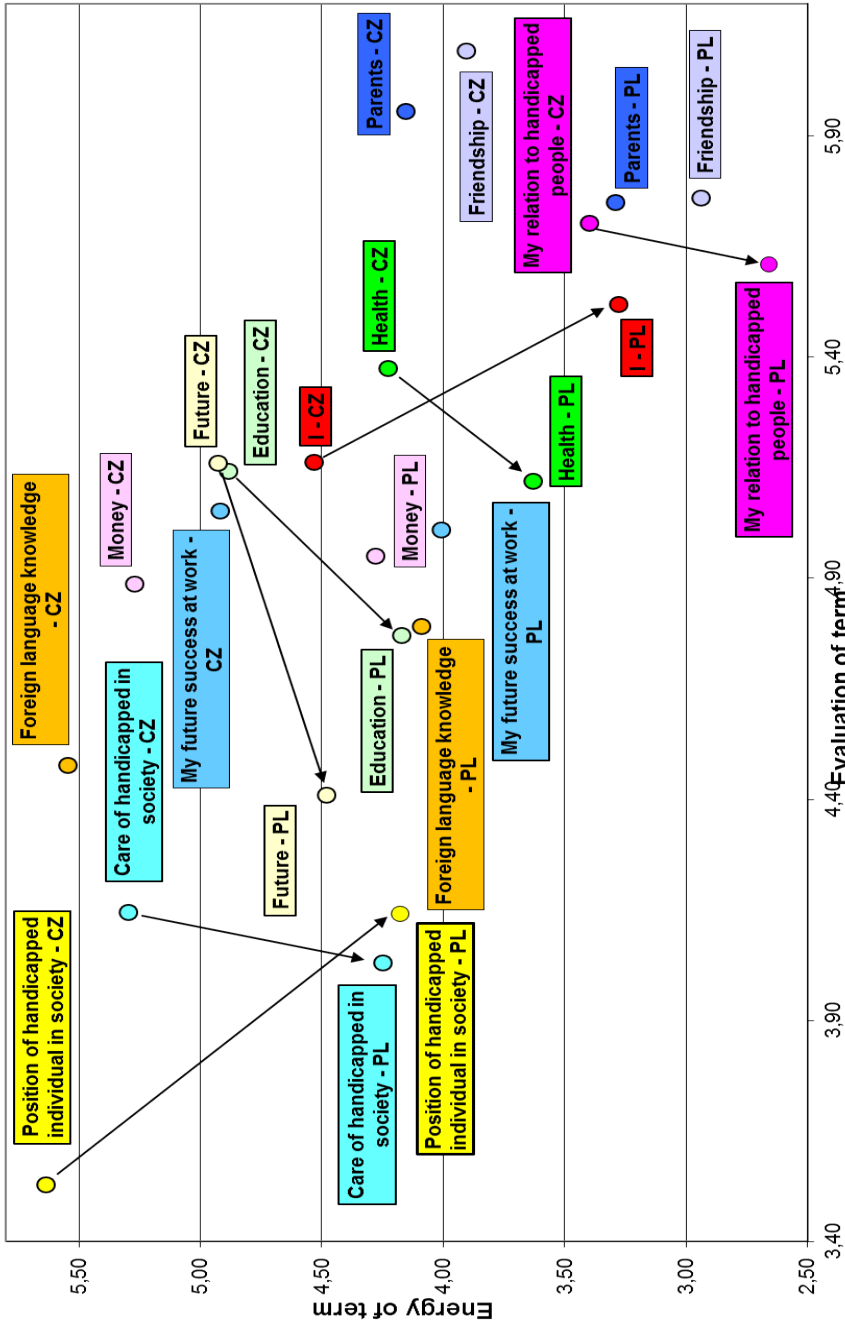


Figure 4. Semantic space of terms relating to handicapped persons and social environment of students in the Czech Republic (CZ) and the Republic of Poland (PL)

- The term “**I**” is evaluated significantly worse in CZ than in PL and it is related to a significantly higher rate of energy invested than in PL.
- The term “**Health**” is evaluated better in CZ than in PL (however, not statistically importantly), nevertheless, it is related to a significantly higher rate of energy invested than in PL.
- The term “**Future**” is evaluated significantly better in CZ than in PL, but at the same time it is related to a significantly higher rate of energy invested than in PL.
- The term “**Education**” is evaluated in the same way as the previous term “Future” in CZ, significantly better than in PL, but at the same time it is related to a significantly higher rate of energy invested than in PL.
- The term “**Foreign language knowledge**” is evaluated worse in CZ than in PL (however, not statistically importantly), nevertheless, it is related to a significantly higher rate of energy invested than in PL.
- The term “**My future success at work**” is evaluated very similarly in CZ and PL, however, it is related to a significantly higher rate of energy invested than in PL.
- The term “**Money**” is evaluated very similarly in CZ and PL as well as the previous term, however, it is related to a significantly higher rate of energy invested in CZ than in PL.
- The term “**Parents**” is evaluated better in CZ than in PL (however, not statistically importantly), nevertheless, it is related to a significantly higher rate of energy invested than in PL.
- The term “**Friendship**” is evaluated significantly better in CZ than in PL, but at the same time it is related to a significantly higher rate of energy invested than in PL.

RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS

Based on a comparison of the changes in the semantic space of the examined terms of Czech and Polish undergraduates by means of the Student’s t-test, it was decided that the determined research assumptions were valid.

Research assumption RA1: *Perception of the issues relating to disability in the society of the Czech Republic and the Republic of Poland will be very similar or with little differences when taking into consideration the historical-cultural closeness of both nations, **has not been confirmed.*** Generally, all terms related to handicapped people are perceived in CZ as the terms with a higher rate of energy invested than in PL. Moreover, the respond-

ents in CZ perceive the “Position of the handicapped individual in society” significantly worse in CZ than the respondents in PL.

Research assumption RA2: *The examined group of respondents will perceive the terms relating to their individual social status differently in the Czech Republic and the Republic of Poland when taking into consideration their current job preparation, has been confirmed.* Generally, all terms related to individual social status and job preparation are perceived in CZ as the terms related to a higher rate of energy invested in comparison with how they are perceived by respondents in PL. Moreover, the respondents in CZ evaluate the terms “Education” and “Future” significantly better than the respondents in PL.

Research assumption RA3: *The examined group of respondents will perceive the terms relating to close social relations similarly in the Czech Republic and the Republic of Poland, has not been confirmed.* Generally, the terms related to close social relations are perceived by the respondents in CZ as the terms related to a higher rate of energy invested than by the respondents in PL. The terms “Parents” and “Friends” are further evaluated by the respondents in CZ better than in PL. On the other hand, the term “I” is evaluated significantly better in PL than in CZ.

CONCLUSION

It is sad that a certain part of the majority of society still perceives disability as the predestination of a handicapped individual to be placed within the area of social care. The attitude towards this fact differs with each person depending on their upbringing, environment, personal health condition, rate of informedness in a given field, and also, among others, on their own personal experience. Therefore, the integration efforts of society may play an important role in the change of some stereotypes which citizens hold.

By informing children about these issues from a very young age, we can more easily achieve that handicapped people will be perceived as a natural part of everyday life. Volunteering can also help. Close contact with handicapped persons, where prior special training of the future volunteer is not necessary, may represent another way for the mutual bringing of the majority of society together with handicapped persons.

Regarding the fact that the educational and training activities of teachers represent one of the ways to influence children’s attitudes, we were interested in the attitudes of the undergraduates preparing for a teaching job, the undergraduates who will form the next generations in society. The aim of our

research was to show their attitudes towards these issues and thus create some basis for further integration efforts in the field of bringing the majority of society together with this group of people.

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Summary

At present, handicapped people create a significant group of persons in all states and countries of the world. In the Czech Republic, the number of the handicapped persons is approximately 10% based on qualified estimates; thus, that amounts to approximately 1 million inhabitants of the Czech Republic. However, other persons must be added to this number as most of the handicapped persons live in families and the caregivers are also more or less affected by the psychological, emotional, social and economic results of a disability. Thus, it is obvious that caring for these persons should be the effort of all of society in the fields of social care, respite care, and health care, as well as activities such as volunteering.

Key words: people with disabilities, volunteering, attitudes of students

HELP FOR THE TERMINALLY ILL AND THE DISPUTE OVER THE PERMISSIBILITY OF EUTHANASIA

INTRODUCTION

Currently, there is an observable global phenomenon of aging societies, which is associated with the extension of human lives. However, a longer life is one of the reasons for the recording of a growing population affected by “terminal diseases”. These include malignant tumours (*neoplasmamalignum*)¹ and AIDS². The late stages of these diseases include the appearance of paresis, paralysis³, aphasia, dementia, and coma. Similar symptoms are observed in the case of neurological conditions such as:

1. Alzheimer's disease⁴;
2. cerebral haemorrhages⁵;

¹ *Malignant tumour* – characterised by a high degree of disorder of differentiation, maturation and tissue and cell construction. It is characterised by rapid growth, lack of cyst and infiltration and compromise of the affected tissue. Infiltrating the lymph and blood vessels, it enters into them. As a result, cancer cells are able to journey to distant sites in the body, where they give rise to a new tumour (“*metastasis*”). These cells can be transmitted via the cerebrospinal fluid, as well as implanted in serous membranes. After surgical resection, the tumour often grows back within the post-operative scar or in its vicinity (relapse “*recidiva*”). The malignant tumour is often mistakenly equated with *cancer* (tumour of the epithelial tissue), which is only one of its many forms.

² *AIDS (Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome)*. As the final stage of HIV infection it is characterised by a very low level of CD4 lymphocytes and thus destruction of the immune system, resulting in the incidence of indicator diseases (some forms of cancer, fungal infections, atypical pneumonia) which may cause the death of the patient.

³ *Aphasia* – changes in the ability to speak.

⁴ *Alzheimer's disease (Latin Morbus Alzheimer)* – is a progressive, degenerative disease of the central nervous system, characterised by dementia. The name comes from the German psychiatrist and neuropathologist Alois Alzheimer, who described the disease in 1906.

⁵ *Cerebral hemorrhage (stroke)* – a sudden focal or generalised brain dysfunction lasting more than 24 hours or leading to death by vascular causes. The following forms are distinguished: 1. *ischaemic stroke* – caused by sudden stoppage of blood flow to the brain, resulting from obstruction of the supplying artery or insufficient blood flow through a given area of the brain contributed to by heart disease (valvular, myocardial infarction, arrhythmias), or

3. brain oedema⁶;

4. multiple sclerosis⁷

and post-trauma (accident), which means that these may be added to the diseases that require a similar procedure as in the case of the aforementioned. People suffering from these require specialised treatment and care. This involves considerable financial outlay by the state (research, treatment). In addition, the economy is unusually burdened by factors such as: care allowances to be paid, employment of qualified staff, and the creation of appropriate assistance centres. The search for budget reserves for this social group encounters insurmountable obstacles. At the same time, the existing focus on productive people (laws of economics) causes a lack of perception and a lack of willingness to address the chronically ill at the end of their lives, or the terminally ill⁸, putting up barriers to them (lack of funding for hospices, palliative wards, and care allowances). In view of the growing demographic and earnings problems we are increasingly confronted with pseudo-rational claims to allow *euthanasia* (from the Greek meaning *good death*), contrary to natural law. It has been accepted that this is defined as the compassionate

cardiogenic embolism; atherosclerosis in other arteries undergoing fragmentation, and displacement of the cerebral arteries, or *intra-arterial embolism*; or conveyed material from the venous system (lower limbs or lesser pelvis), or *paradoxical embolism*; and others.; 2 *haemorrhagic brain stroke* – which is the result of blood exiting the brain's blood vessels, which leads to tissue destruction by extravasated blood, and the most common cause is the rupture of small cerebral arteries in the course of hypertension or vascular abnormalities (vascular malformations, hemangiomas); 3 *subarachnoid haemorrhage* – caused by haemorrhage into the fluid surrounding the brain, usually the cause is rupture of the aneurysm.

⁶ *Brain oedema* – due to the accumulation of water and increased sodium concentration there is an enlargement of brain tissue. This occurs during brain injuries, strokes, central nervous system infections, and osmotic plasma imbalance. It is particularly dangerous due to the limited capacity of the intracranial space.

⁷ *Multiple sclerosis* (lat. *sclerosismultiplex, SM*) – chronic, inflammatory, demyelinating condition of the central nervous system in which multifocal damage occurs (demyelination and axonal degradation) in nerve tissue. Most frequently in the course of multiphase periods of exacerbation and improvement. Generally, this is a disease of the nerve cells (neurons), glial cells (oligodendrocytes), or brain immune cells (microglia), which causes damage to the myelin sheath surrounding nerve cells making it impossible to properly transmit impulses along nerve pathways in the brain and spinal cord. The name of disease reflects the pathological process in various locations in the nervous system, as well as changes spread over time. It is now believed that it is an immune disease in which the immune system combats the body's own cells (nervous system). The disease was first described by Jean-Martin Charcot in 1868.

⁸ *Terminally ill* – patients in the terminal stages, that is, one in which the possibilities of further extending the life of the chronically ill are exhausted with a direct impact on the cause of the disease, and the patient's condition requires that he be taken care of. This is the time for proper palliative care, usually lasting approximately 6-8 weeks.

killing of someone who is suffering and terminally ill. Euthanasia is to be carried out in the name of the "human freedom" to decide for ourselves, but also to interrupt the pain or end the suffering in a phase in which nothing more can be done (resulting in death). From time to time, various countries are swept by a wave of discussion about its permissibility, and this dispute has been going on for centuries.

The aim of the study is not only to approximate the size of the problem of the dying and their families, but also to show the possibilities for social and medical solutions in both a rational (economic) and human manner, without resorting to experiments with euthanasia. Our study was conducted using a diagnostic survey, in which the following techniques were used: an analysis of documents; observation; interview. The observation and interview were conducted in 2011 in two hospices (the St. Lazarus Hospice in Krakow and the St. Brother Albert Hospice in Dąbrowa Tarnowska). Interviews were given to: the management, the volunteer manager, and staff at both institutions. In addition, research on social attitudes towards euthanasia was carried out in the same year in Tarnów (Part 5).

THE SCALE OF TERMINAL DISEASE

In Poland, there has been a rise in the incidence of cancer (more among men than women). Data from 2009 indicate that the highest number of deaths occurred in the following provinces: Masovia (12,832) and Silesia (11,953), and the lowest number in Lubuskie (2,346), Opole (2,424), and Podlaskie (2,790). The remaining provinces recorded an average mortality rate, but a fairly high rate was maintained in: Greater Poland (8.258), Lower Silesia (7.614), and Lesser Poland (7.316). Similarly, to take these indications including the distribution of the provinces, the numbers of cases or their ratios are recorded (Krajowy Rejestr Nowotworów 2013).

The NIH shows that of AIDS patients recorded – 2,867 – 1,192 died (from the implementation of research from 1985 to 28 February 2013). (Narodowy Instytut Zdrowia Publicznego 2013, <http://www.pzh.gov.pl/20.03.2013>) In terms of registration, the majority of such people were diagnosed in Lower Silesia (1.4), and the least in Świętokrzyskie Province (0.2).

The commencement of Alzheimer's disease usually begins in people over 65 years of age; below this age it affects less than 1% of the total (Rowland 2005), increases with age, and over 65 about 14% suffer from it, and over 80 it is close to 40% of the population. It is estimated that there are nearly 250 thousand sufferers (Barcikowska, Liberski 1998).

In Poland, over 65 thousand strokes per year (krs.udarmozgu.org/20.03.2013) are recorded, at a scale of 175 per 100 thousand men and 125 per 100 thousand women. It is a major cause of disability in people over the age of 40, and 30 thousand Poles die from the disease each year (30% in the first month).

In Poland there is a high probability of risk of developing multiple sclerosis. This mostly affects young people, with peak incidence between 20 and 40 years of age, and with a slight predominance in the female population. MS patients live almost 20 years shorter than those not affected. According to the Polish Multiple Sclerosis Society, only 2% of patients take the appropriate medication. Poland is the only country in the European Union where you can die of MS (as a result of complications: bedsores, congestive heart disease, urinary tract conditions).

However, in the case of accidents of various types (transport and others) the statistics for numbers, complications or deaths varies from day to day.

AID FOR THE TERMINALLY ILL – DIAGNOSIS, THERAPY, AND COST

The final stage of a terminal disease only allows for the treatment of symptoms (palliative medicine)⁹, without conducting causal treatment by teams of doctors, nurses, therapists and volunteers, and other people (family, priests, nuns, administrators). This involves not only costs related to the medical staff, but also drugs and possible visits to health or extra-medical centres. In the diagnosis of cancer (though not limited to this) the following

⁹ *Palliative medicine* – one of the newest medical specialties. It is derived from the Latin word *pallium* – a coat, or in its meaning accepting the importance of covering and supporting the patient. The WHO in 2002 defined it as activity that improves the quality of life of patients and their families facing the problems associated with life-threatening illness. This includes the prevention and combating of suffering, early diagnoses, careful examination and treatment of pain, and solving other problems – physical, psychosocial and spiritual, including: – ensuring relief from pain and other distressing symptoms; – affirming life and respecting death as a natural process; – not seeking to accelerate or postpone death; – integrating psychological and spiritual aspects of care; – offering a support system to help patients live as actively as possible to the end; – offering a support system to allow the patient's family to cope during the illness and the period of mourning after death; – is characterised by comprehensive action in solving the problems of patients and their families, including bereavement; – improving the quality of life can positively influence the course of the disease; – in combination with other methods, which aim to prolong life (chemo/radiotherapy), it may be introduced in the early stages of the disease and also includes diagnostics allowing a better interpretation and combating of disturbing complications.

are used: ultrasound, computer tomography, magnetic resonance imaging, positive emission tomography PET-CT¹⁰, mammography, and single-photon emission tomography SPECT¹¹. Treatments used: chemotherapy, radiation therapy, surgery, immunotherapy, local hyperthermia, and a group of medications (taking into account the underlying disease and comorbidities, or those which are a secondary consequence of the initial condition). In the debilitation stage, substances are used in order to obtain an improvement in appetite and a subjective feeling of strength (Maltoni at all 2001). From Department of Health information of 5 January 2011 on the treatment of oncological diseases, it is clear that hospital treatment costs 1.4 billion PLN, outpatient specialist services 200 million PLN, chemotherapy 1.4 billion PLN, and drugs 550 million PLN. Non-standard treatments are not reimbursed (Ministerstwo Zdrowia 2011a).

With respect to AIDS, anti-virus multiplication preparations are applied as well as those preventing its penetration into cells. The most common method is intensive antiviral therapy (HAART) which simultaneously applies several drugs from the group of reverse transcriptase nucleoside inhibitors¹², reverse transcriptase non-nucleoside inhibitors, HIV inhibitors, and fusion inhibitors and prevents viral entry into the cell targeting different stages of development of the virus (Gładysz 2007). Currently, treatment is fully reimbursed, under certain conditions (T-20 – the most expensive medication, priced at about 8,500 PLN – is non-refundable). The cost of HAART is about

¹⁰ *Positive emission tomography PET-CT* – positrons created in radioactive decay collide with electrons in the body to form together two quanta of electromagnetic radiation (photons) moving in opposite directions at an angle of 180 degrees. Detectors positioned at different angles relative to the patient's body allow determination of where the positrons arise, and this information is transmitted in digital form and recorded on a computer disk, which enables the construction of cross-sectional images of the patient. This test utilises the fact that lesions are accompanied by a specified change in the metabolism of certain chemical compounds. It detects tumours 90% of the time. It is part of nuclear medicine.

¹¹ *Single photon emission computed tomography SPECT* – is single-photon tomography which enables the visualisation of cerebral blood flow and its metabolism. The emitted gamma radiation is recorded by sensors placed in a camera connected to a computer that processes the information and presents it in the form of complex maps, and makes them available for three-dimensional imaging. The image is obtainable by the use of a multihead system (multiple sensors distributed around the head) or by a mechanical system which ensures the movement of the recorder around the patient's head. The test takes about 15 minutes (it may be shortened by the use of a gamma camera), it is used to diagnose brain disorders, mental illness, dementia syndromes, cancer of the brain. It is already a part of nuclear medicine.

¹² *Inhibitor* (Latin *inhibeo* – stop) – a chemical compound that causes inhibition or slowing down of a chemical reaction. This process is called inhibition.

40,000 PLN (Gładysz 2007). The financial calculations of the Ministry of Health in 2013 provided for a total of 198.258 million PLN (at 7,100 patients, there is only enough to treat 4,720 of them) (Ministerstwo Zdrowia 2011b).

In Alzheimer's disease the NINCDS-ARDA criteria are used, which are designed to rule out other disorders with similar symptoms, and genetic testing is conducted. Monitoring of the nervous system is conducted with the use of the diagnostic devices mentioned previously, and additionally, functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) and magnetic resonance spectroscopy are used. In neurological and neuropsychiatric diagnosis, MMSE¹³ and depression diagnosis are used. In treatment, the drugs used are to halt the progression of the disease, including: 1. increasing the level of acetylcholine¹⁴; 2. reducing the stimulation of the glutamatergic system; 3 other (cognitive improvement, psychopathological symptoms, and slowing down the process of brain cell destruction) (Szczeklik 2010). The diagnosis and therapy of the patient entail enormous costs, not only mental, but also material, especially for families. A stay in a specialised centre for patients with Alzheimer's disease in Poland costs approximately 4,700 PLN per month, charges for drugs and even diapers (reimbursement for 60 units per month) are covered out of the caregivers' pockets. In the advanced stage, close to 25-35% go to social welfare homes, personal care homes, or hospices (Puls Medycyny 2013).

In the case of stroke, it is essential to determine its type (ischaemic, haemorrhagic). To this end, a CT scan of the head is carried out, and in case of doubt, additional magnetic resonance imaging. With ischaemic strokes, determining the artery occlusion is carried out by angiography, which allows for possible surgical treatment (angioplasty, stenting, mechanical thrombectomy removing the thrombus). In order to determine, for example, the source of embolic material, arterial ultrasound, angiography, and echocardiography are used. In the acute phase, there is monitoring of vital signs, supplementation of water and electrolyte insufficiencies, blood pressure monitoring, blood glucose control (insulin), body temperature-lowering drugs, anticoagulants, anticonvulsants, and decongestants (Szczeklik 2006). According to the Stroke Foundation of Łódź the annual cost of treating strokes in Poland amounts to 675 million PLN (<http://krs.udarmozgu.org/> 20.03.2013) whereas the sum spent on one patient equals about 60,000 PLN (Czernecki, Prędotą-Panecka 2008).

The diagnosis of multiple sclerosis uses the McDonald criteria (2001, 2005) (McDonald at all 2011) based on clinical data, the results of additional

¹³ *MMSE* – a brief assessment tool for dementia. The original test was established in 1975.

¹⁴ *Acetylcholine (ACh)* – an organic compound, an ester of acetic acid and choline. It is a neuromediator synthesised in cholinergic neurons.

tests carried out by nuclear magnetic resonance MRI of the head (shows areas of demyelination within the white matter of the brain) and spinal cord, evoked potentials (visual, brainstem, somatosensory) and examination of cerebrospinal fluid (via lumbar puncture the presence of oligoclonal bands is tested, i.e. immunoglobulin produced by plasma cell clones within the nervous system) (Rudick, Whitaker 1987). To date, no drug has been found that would allow the total halting of the progression of the disease and cure, although there are many treatment methods that may be helpful. Therapies vary depending on the type of disease and the symptoms presenting. Treatment allows the patient to recover functions lost due to relapse and slow its development. *Interferons, glatiramer acetate, mitoxantrone, natalizumab, fingolimod* (Gilenya), *corticosteroids*, and also plasmapheresis are used. Symptomatic therapy covers treatment of common side effects, including: spasticity, sphincter disorders, paresis, difficulty in walking, ataxia, tremor, dizziness, sexual dysfunction, fatigue syndrome, paraesthesia¹⁵, chronic and sudden pain, and others (Liberski at all 2005). Reimbursement of medicines in Poland lasts two years, and the cost of treatment exceeds 2,000 PLN per person (Choroby Seniora.pl 2013), which the patient must pay for themselves. It should be understood that the modern drug Gilenya already costs approximately 9,000 PLN per month, which is about 100 thousand PLN per year and is not reimbursed (Imsm.blox.pl 2013, <http://imsm.blox.pl/20.03.2013>).

In the diagnosis and treatment of posttraumatic conditions all the procedures are used as in the cases shown above (taking into account the specifics of the damage), which in turn leads to the generation of a financial burden. However, it should be noted that the information presented in this paper on the costs of therapy for each condition becomes outdated every month. The costs continue to increase rapidly.

THE AID STRUCTURE FOR THE TERMINALLY ILL – PALLIATIVE CARE

People in the last stages of their disease are routinely managed by general practitioners (who are not always prepared for this) and hospital care (which often dispose of these uncomfortable, expensive, and incurable patients). The solution for someone with a terminal disease is palliative medicine, which is often referred to as the opposite of euthanasia. The WHO (2002) clearly

¹⁵ *Paraesthesia* (paraesthesiae) – in other words phantom feelings such as tingling, numbness, body temperature etc.

states that this care neither accelerates nor delays death, but includes the relief of pain and other symptoms, and control of the patient's mental health, social and spiritual problems. Equally important is family bereavement following the death of a loved one. Hospices, beyond their mission to work with the terminally ill, do not break off contact with the family, monitoring the regularity of the transition between stages of bereavement (phases – the acceptance of true loss, emotional and vegetative experience of grief, adaptation to the changed environment, renewal of strength, and focusing on new goals) (Hebanowski, de Walden-Gałaszko, Zylicz 2004).

Poland hosts at least 400 palliative care centres defined as such or by the term hospice (Jarosz 2007). Hospices are distinguished as: 1. for adults; 2. for children; 3. households. They work in 1. closed (fixed); and 2. daily systems. These hospices, as far back as 2006, had 918 places, and accepted 12,520 people as outpatients. The scale of the need for the establishment of such facilities may be seen in data from Lesser Poland province in 2011, in which various forms of palliative care were used by 3,500-4,000 people per year, and over ten thousand people needed it (<http://wiadomosci.gazeta.pl/20.03.2013>). Every year this type of centre is founded in Poland. In general, they are managed by secular or religious NGOs. They tend to be subsidised, as previously mentioned, by local governments, but in general still struggle with financial difficulties. For example, in Krakow (2011) the daily stay for 1 person cost close to 400 PLN, and under contract the National Health Fund gave 210 PLN (<http://wiadomosci.gazeta.pl/20.03.2013>). In the opinion of Dr. T. Grądalski at the St. Lazarus Hospital, the NHF refunded 21 beds while there were 30-40 people in need (now the number of beds has increased to 44). In contrast, home care involved 30 patients, when 50-60 were needed at this time (<http://wiadomosci.gazeta.pl/20.03.2013>). And, so the costs incurred are high (in 2011, the NHF allocated 24.7 million PLN to palliative care in Lesser Poland (<http://wiadomosci.gazeta.pl/20.03.2013>), and the annual budget of the Hospice in Krakow was about 6.5 million PLN, of which only part was covered by the NFH (<http://wiadomosci.gazeta.pl/20.03.2013>). This is why, alongside hospices, foundations are created to support their activities, whether through a collection of funds or creating and preparing the entire administrative structure.

The groups of people who gather around hospice work are generally those who have in some way come into contact with terminal disease (particularly cancer). The most common form of organisational structure is home care teams and patient wards. In contrast, the state creates palliative care wards in selected healthcare institutions or nursing homes. However, even more often we hear of these being closed as unprofitable for the institutions.

However, so far in Poland there are no specialised centres for daily and full-time care for patients with Alzheimer's disease. There are at most fifteen such facilities, of which Warsaw has two (one has 12 beds, and the other 40).

EUTHANASIA AS THE HIGHEST EXPRESSION OF LOVE OR A ROAD TO NOWHERE

Recently, more and more often the question is raised on the admissibility of shortening human life upon request, i.e. euthanasia. The reason, it seems, why fashionable ideas are transferred from other European countries relating to the human right to freedom of personal choice (including death), is to avoid pain, and for a dignified death, and even the specific interests of whole societies. The result is that nowadays we see on the one hand, a departure from timeless values, their devaluation in the formula approach to life and death on request (suicide, euthanasia), while on the other hand trying to give them the proper dimension, whose culmination is *humanity*. Dynamically developing medicine prolongs human life and improves the chances of survival for weak individuals, thus causing unforeseen consequences and posing challenges to humanity, which should be met, as long as it they can be regarded as such. Those who perceive the value of the individual through the prism of a resource of vital forces agree with the theory that natural selection should have a decisive influence on human life and death. Darwin (1809-1882) himself lamented the fact that human lifesaving medicine provides the opportunity for weak individuals to survive. He expressed his view by stating that *we build asylums for the imbecile, the maimed, and the sick. We institute poor-laws; and our medical men exert their utmost skill to save the life of every one to the last moment* (Darwin 2007). The possible consequences of this way of thinking are given by the German philosopher A. Tille (1895), who indicates that *He who makes an ideal of the encouraging (purity) of the race and wants to realise it has to reach for selection. The direct elimination of the weak, the unfortunate and unnecessary, have not yet been proposed by any serious person, but why not do this in an indirect way* (Bołoz 2007: 211). The consequences of the acceptance of Darwinian ethics can have unforeseen consequences for humanity. This may be confirmed by V. Frankl (1905–1997)¹⁶, who himself was convinced of the terrible implications of this way of thinking as a prisoner in a concentration camp. He cautions against this way of

¹⁶ V. Frankl – Austrian psychiatrist and psychotherapist, prisoner of concentration camps, including Auschwitz.

thinking, saying that *When we present a man... as nothing more than a product of different instincts, heredity and environments, we support (cherish) nihilism, to which modern man is already vulnerable... I am fully convinced that the gas chambers of Auschwitz, Treblinka, and Majdanek were not really the concept of some Ministry or other in Berlin, but were created on the desks and in the lecture halls of nihilistic scientists and philosophers* (Weikar <http://www.heveliusforum.org/20.03.2013>). In this sense, the human being seen as a thinking machine is not a value in itself; does not deserve decent treatment by virtue of their humanity, as shown by the “scientists” experimenting in the death camps. We may be wondering if these doctors are any different from those who see their patients through the prism of the cost of their treatment. Indeed, they make choices about what action to take, or are discouraged by costly medical procedures which save lives. These new, previously unknown extra-medical problems are forcing people to ask the question of whether life is an absolute value that must be protected at all costs. There are those who see the sustaining of human life at all costs as creating unnecessary suffering (T. Kielanowski 1987; Gadzinowski, Wiśniewski 2003). There is also no lack of voices deploring the fact that technical progress, in perfecting methods of saving and sustaining human life, has weakened the forces of nature that once eliminated weak individuals. And so what had hitherto been regarded as a boon to mankind, some consider a curse and a burden. In justifying *euthanasia*, however, it is not utilitarian but humane arguments that are used. Few dare to say that its legalisation would bring benefit to society in the form of financial relief. And we are not just talking about pensions, which are a burden on the state budget, but also the funding of extremely expensive medical procedures aimed at sustaining life. This courage is demonstrated by the well-known bioethicist P. Singer (2010), saying *Therapy for dying patients who do not want to live is a waste* (Singer 2010: 65). Supporting the humanitarian justifications is the result of a fake concern for the sick. They are seen as beings whose lives marked by suffering do not make sense. Thus, it is an act of kindness to shorten their torments. Extending human existence is thus presented as *creating a life that is long and full of physical and spiritual torment* (T. Kielanowski 1987; Gadzinowski, Wiśniewski 2003: 66). This attitude stems from the denial of suffering as an axiological aspect of human life. Anyone who considers that the problem is only the perception of the elderly as unnecessary because they do not work, and are therefore only a burden on the pension system and health insurance, would be wrong, however.

The contemporary social trend is trying to change existing views on the legalisation of *euthanasia*. It may take an active form (causing the death by

a specific action) or a passive form (it takes place as a result of discontinuing life-sustaining therapy). Another classification distinguishes between voluntary euthanasia (there is a conscious request for death) and involuntary (the patient is unable to express such a request, for example, is unconscious) (Nowa Encyklopedia Powszechna PWN 1995). In Polish legislation, and that of some European countries (Greece, Norway, Finland), it is treated as privileged in relation to the crime of murder. And so taking human life on request and under the influence of a compassionate doctor is a crime, but the responsibility of the perpetrator is lesser (lower penalty than in the case of murder). Other countries, including Sweden, do not provide for any right of preference, but the motives and impulses of the offender as mitigating circumstances affect the strength of the penalty. In 2012, the United Kingdom introduced an "End of Life Patient Charter", which allows the decision to shorten life to be taken by the patient or their family. In contrast, France in 2013 authorised its use in special cases (prolonged agony, uncontrolled pain). Countries that have introduced euthanasia are Australia, the Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg. While in Switzerland, it was accepted that the patient must consciously cause their own death in the presence of a doctor. F. Fenigsen (1997), in the times preceding the legalisation of euthanasia in the Netherlands, described the tacit acquiescence of the State and the use of involuntary euthanasia, or killing without the consent of the patient (11% of all deaths), approved by public opinion. This is practised on infants with birth defects, patients with psychiatric illnesses, those with mental handicaps, patients with senile dementia and those in a coma (for example as a result of a traffic accident). The main promoter of this action was the doctor J. van Berg (Fenigsen 1997), who absolutely damned families who did not notify requests for euthanasia from their relatives, claiming that they were guided by obsolete ethical standards, and therefore committees composed of physicians and laymen that would impose such a decision should be formed. The dangers emerging from this approach do not need setting out (getting rid of inconvenient people, people with different views, or a desire to take over assets). Opponents of its introduction, including M. Szweczyk (1996) derive the ban on euthanasia from the need to give legal norms the nature of a guarantee, saying that: *so long as we live in an imperfect world, in which decisions are taken by imperfect beings, thus must the margin of freedom given for decision making which violates the rights of others be as narrow as possible. (...) Consent to the deliberate killing of a human is always an approval of evil and should therefore be kept to an absolute minimum (death sentence), forced somewhat by the fact of living in an organised society. (...) Therefore, the extension of consent to the legalisation of killing another human creates a very*

dangerous precedent, much more harmful than the non-release of an individual from the evil of dying. The possibility of abuse which is borne by permission for legal euthanasia far exceeds the benefits that facilitating dying would bring. (...) The result of relief of suffering can certainly be obtained in other ways than intentional killing. The administration of drugs which dull or halt pain often brings death as a result, but this is not the intention of the individual providing the drugs. And this is the fundamental difference. Thus, acceptance or opposition to euthanasia is an expression of morality and ethics, and the legal solutions to decriminalise or penalise represent only a certain attitude to the moral and ethical principles generally applicable in a given community. However, through its operation the legal system shapes social attitudes. Also, medical ethics (formed in ancient times) set itself the goal of *primum non nocere* (first do no harm). The importance of medical ethics is owed to the fact that its standards were always placed over the principles accepted by society. Only the Nazi doctors rejected those standards, slaying the physically and mentally ill in their country, or conducting extermination in the occupied countries of Europe during the Second World War. As R. Fenigsen (1997) writes: *even just its mental acceptance by physicians would mean a complete reversal of the objectives and values of our profession.* Continuous progress in science raises great hopes, but more and more new ethical problems. The physician should look for a “narrow path” between benefits and possible abuses. There must be no exploration of an ethical alibi for justifying economic problems (living patients cost the state a great deal). The current Polish Code of Medical Ethics (1993) adopted by the National Congress of Physicians, in art. 2 states that: *The vocation of the physician is to protect human life and health (...) the highest ethical imperative for the good of the patient's physician*, and art. 30 states: *The physician cannot employ euthanasia* (Safjan 1998). Additionally, the authors of numerous texts in the field of psychiatry (Siwek 1996) emphasise that in somatic conditions there are almost always emotional and mood disorders and depression. This is influenced by the life-threatening situation in which the patient finds themselves; the risky treatments to which they are subjected; and the biological (metabolic) causes. Also not without significance are external factors, such as the deterioration of the social situation, the loss of prestige, isolation from healthy people, and dependence on the assistance of others. Thus, there is doubt whether a seriously ill individual can make a fully free choice, especially if the goal of this choice is their own death. In contrast, research on the motives for which euthanasia is required has shown that the absence of pain is the primary and most important factor in patient arguments in favour of earlier death. The decision on the willingness to undertake it has primarily

been justified by the conditions in which they happen to get sick, and the relationship of the nearest and dearest (Zaorska 1993). Thus, the argument for the individual's freedom of decision is invalid.

Also, the frequently presented thesis that religion does not always deny the right to euthanasia is not supported. There are various religious systems, but every great religion treats life as valuable. For Judaism, and Islam, human life is an absolute value, sacred, untouchable and only God has the right to decide on it, although now the position of Protestant theologians is not clear (an inalienable right is the right to a dignified death, so that the individual is themselves to the end). In Buddhism, despite the lack of consent to the destruction of man, in the absence of the possibility of patient recovery, they should be assisted in a peaceful death due to the *continuum* of consciousness (Tatarkiewicz 2007). Since St. Augustine (354-430 AD), Catholicism has opposed both active and passive euthanasia. The Catechism of the Catholic Church (Katechizm Kościoła Katolickiego 1994) states that *Action or omission which of itself or by intention causes death in order to eliminate pain, is a murder gravely contrary to the dignity of the human person and respect for the living God, his Creator*. It is also condemned in the encyclical *Evangelium Vitae* by John Paul II, stating that *what might seem logical and humane, when looked at more closely is seen to be senseless and inhumane. Here we are faced with one of the most distressing symptoms of the "culture of death", which is advancing above all in prosperous societies, marked by an attitude based on efficiency, and which sees the growing number of elderly and disabled people as expensive and cumbersome* (Jan Paweł II 1995).

The lack of acceptance of this for the majority of Polish society can be shown by research conducted in 2011 in Tarnow by G. Gałek (2011), K. Kawa (2011) and M. Stępa (2011). Particularly important was determining whether the public would be willing to approve legalisation. G. Gałek examined euthanasia as an ethical challenge for modern society using a survey. The survey consisted of 53 persons aged 25-64, mostly with disabilities, working in various positions in the Department of Protected Work in Tarnów (white-collar and blue-collar workers), of whom 3 were nurses, and 1 person had completed a series of chemotherapy a few months previously. The people discussing the reasons for requesting euthanasia in the majority indicated a fear of suffering (83.02%) and a lack of sufficient support (43.40%). In the respondents' evaluation, society is to some extent responsible for the desire for euthanasia (52.83%). Almost half of them (49.06%) admitted that its legalisation would be an expression of society's helplessness in the face of suffering patients. According to the respondents, the recently observed change in ethical attitudes may lead to a reduction in the importance of

human life (69.81%). The vast majority of people felt that good hospice/palliative care could prevent the desire for euthanasia in patients (71.70%). In contrast, the attitude of society (doctors and medical staff, students and non-medical employees, relatives of patients – 30 people aged 18-76) towards euthanasia in four dimensions (cognitive, emotional, evaluative, behavioural) with the help of the questionnaires and clinical trials of J. Wciórka's "White Card" (Wciórka 1996), was investigated by M. Kawa (2011). The attempt to legalise euthanasia often aroused anger (70%) and controversy (13.3%). The reactions were mostly negative, and rejected the idea. In the opinion of the respondents, euthanasia should be prohibited (63.3%). They believed that it should be punished. A significant number of non-medical practitioners were strongly opposed to its introduction (75%), with 53.3% of health professionals. In the group of students 66.7% of the respondents did not accept it. The results obtained by G. Gałek (2011) and K. Kawa (2011) were confirmed in pilot studies conducted by M. Stępa (2011) on a group of 60 students aged 24-42 using a modification of both the previously mentioned survey and projection methods, with a significantly higher negative opinion on its legalisation (96.28%). Men declared acceptance of euthanasia. The results obtained suggest that such tests should be repeated on a much larger population.

SUMMARY

Serious challenges for our society and the country's economy are posed by the increasing number of older and thus unproductive people. The age attained is often accompanied by the emergence of many chronic, and in the end, terminal diseases. The study has shown selected terminal conditions in the stages of unlikely recovery (cancer, AIDS, Alzheimer's disease, strokes, multiple sclerosis, accidents). In general, these are accompanied by: – in the patients: physical and mental pain; – in families: compassion, impotence, financial deficit; – and in the case of countries: cost generation. Perhaps this is the reason for voices to be raised for the acceptance of euthanasia as a solution for all concerned. The justification is a "dignified death" for the patient. However, the desire to preserve *humanity* cannot allow such a solution. The research conducted by G. Gałek (2011), K. Kawa (2011) and M. Stępa (2011) also contradicts the thesis that society approves of euthanasia.

In conclusion, the considerations presented have given rise to the formulation of proposals for the benefit of patients in the terminal stages of illness: 1. developing a base of specialist palliative care in the form of hospices, pallia-

tive wards, and home hospices; 2 receiving the right amounts of reimbursement by increasing them for palliative care; 3 establishing a fund to pay for the period of terminal care for the caregivers of people who want to remain in their own home to the end (certainly significantly reducing maintenance costs).

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Summary

The aim of the study is not only to approximate the size of the problem of the dying and their families, but also to show the possibilities for social and medical solutions in both a rational (economic) and human manner, without resorting to experiments with euthanasia. Our study was conducted using a diagnostic survey, in which the following techniques were used: an analysis of documents; observation; interview. The observation and interview were conducted in 2011 in two hospices (the St. Lazarus Hospice in Krakow and the St. Brother Albert Hospice in Dąbrowa Tarnowska). Interviews were given to: the management, the volunteer manager, and staff at both institutions. In addition, research on social attitudes towards euthanasia was carried out in the same year in Tarnów.

Key words: incurable disease, cancer, euthanasia

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT AND ITS DIAGNOSTICS IN SOCIAL STRUCTURE RELATIONSHIP NETWORKS

INTRODUCTION

Society's historical security depends on its management of a mix of the economy's most important risk factors. These risk factors include the following sectors: health, banking, enterprises, insurance system, pension funds, social networks, media, space management and regulative sectors. In the culture of the functional imperative which is focused on maximising the profit of enterprises, class and social structure can constitute either a firewall or open the doors to the performance of cultural obligations in the society. If social structures are poorly integrated, the maintaining of their stability and the stability of social order is put in danger. According to the World Health Organization, average life expectancy in the period between the years 1999 and 2000 was 61.4 years, while forecasts for the years 2020-2025 expect its increase to 71.6 years. It is anticipated that the entire population of developed countries will increase by 94% whilst the population of people that are 60 years or older will increase by 240%. This of course, definitely means that there will be a significant shift in age proportions toward the growth of the elderly population (Walden-Gałaszko de 2008: 3) and it constitutes a crucial argument in the societal discussion concerning health, disease, and long-term health care standards. Problems related to health-treatment, long waiting times for an appointment with the doctor, difficulties concerning accessing distant specialised health centres (clinics), existing information deficit on where and how to look for all kinds of support, paralysing stress, periodical lack of life-saving drugs, *non-caring* inhumane regulations, the loss of income in the family – all of the above-listed are just some of the problems faced by families taking care of family member who are suffering from cancer. Society's major task as far as the development of palliative care is concerned is not only the permanent acquisition of families to perform care for the cancer-stricken patients but also investing in perfecting the caregivers' skills that are vital especially in consequences arising after oncological treatment, such skills include those needed in combating pain, and skills necessary for palliative care. The main point of society's departure from the

reductionist biomedical model towards the epidemiological model results in a significant reduction in mortality due to chronic diseases (such as cardiovascular disease, stroke, diabetes and cancer). Nowadays this has led to an increase in the population of people living day by day with chronic disease, and consequently has led to an increase in demand for long-term care and long-term community support. One of the major challenges faced by medical science was the development of new evaluation parameters used for assessing the efficiency of medical care. Parameters include more than objective indicators of care (such as percentage decrease in mortality). Another challenge involves moving towards inclusion of the patient's perspective on the care provided (patient-centered outcomes) (Tobiasz-Adamczyk 2002: 41). When economic transition accelerates, the rebuilding of social organisation and social consciousness does not keep pace with the speed of the changes. In such conditions *people that are left to themselves, no longer know what is possible and what is impossible, what is fair and what is unfair; what hopes and revindications they are entitled to, and those in which they are going too far* (Szacki 2006: 392). In this situation, necessary measures on behalf of the state must be taken to foster a family capable of taking care of the ill. It is very important to protect *the healthy family* which incidentally happens to be in a situation of crisis due to a family member's grave illness. There is a strong need to support the family in the implementation of tasks related to their caring function and tasks related to meeting the basic needs of the ill family member. Family must be perceived from a broader perspective. We must examine it, as at a *healthy family* which incidentally, due to family member's sickness, happens to be in a crisis situation. With the introduction of a *social support strategy for the family as a unit of care*, a possible reduction in the number of hospitalisations may take place and there also may be an increase in the independence and autonomy of the families. There will be an increase in a family's ability to resolve everyday problems, to rebuild the necessary social support networks, and to improve the quality of care for sick members of the family.

FAMILY SOCIAL SUPPORT STRATEGY FOR PROVIDING ASSISTANCE TO A PERSON WITH AN ONCOLOGY RELATED DISEASE

The family (social) support strategy for providing assistance to a person with an oncology related disease consists of dialogue and directness and also the mobilisation of a social network to reduce deficits in the family with respect to the *unit of care*. It does so through a sequence of rational actions in cooperation with a multidisciplinary team of palliative caregivers. The sup-

port is targeted to meet the informational, medical, psychological, social and/or spiritual needs of a family based on a diagnosis of the social status of the family and a number of integrated activities by public institutions, such as the law, knowledge and financial means.

The family support strategy for providing assistance to a person with an oncology related disease aims at:

1. ensuring permanent monitoring, control and evaluation of provided support depending on the needs of the family during the progression of the illness;
2. inclusion of multi-disciplinary (multi-professional) palliative care teams and inclusion of social workers (established by a decision of the governor on the basis of the law of medical rescue, maintained by resources from the state budget and aided by counties. Multi-disciplinary palliative care teams enable the creation of a registry of recorded patients, documenting the kind of support being provided, (e.g. nurse visits, receipt of documentation concerning the need for support and assistance, coordination of assistance actions with other social services, creation of a national registry of volunteers who offer individual support based on their similar past experiences and information sharing);
3. raising awareness about home care for a patient with oncology-related disease through the establishment of a number of professional courses, and educational training for caregivers and also volunteers in counties, and providing online assistance for coping with chronic stress. This will reduce the cost of home care, decrease anxiety, and will positively affect the development of home hospices;
4. developing local social networks, cooperating with nongovernmental organizations, volunteers, and social workers. This will enable the creation of stable and lasting social contacts (interactions) for the ill family members and their families who may feel isolated and lonely.

The inclusion of a social worker into the family support strategy for providing assistance to a person with an oncology related disease comes from the need to involve the family itself in seeking alternative measures in this situation of severe distress, a situation that can be evaluated as too burdensome or too difficult to manage.

It is crucial to design, in the patient's presence, a *care plan* for family members. It must be a plan that will acknowledge and respect the patient's autonomy and freewill throughout the cancer treatment.

It is important to coordinate actions by informing and pointing out where one can seek support and how to plan future actions. In a situation where the family does not want to, or cannot take care of the patient any longer, activities that block families as *care units* must be left out.

The major task of local administration here is the inclusion of public administration, local government and third sector institutions in the support strategy. Their implementation of tasks connected with information and support stems from the institutions' abilities and obligations.

Step one: in accordance with the proposed strategy the first step at the municipal, voivodeship, and state level is presenting available web links to social service portals, medical, local and non-government organisations, providing links filled with up-to-date information concerning short and long-term home care, prevention, medical, social, financial, and legal aid. Web links that identify offices, hospitals, pharmacies, clinics, nongovernmental organisations, lawyers, volunteers, nutritionists, rehabilitation experts, point out all places where a family can receive help and support.

Step two: The next task is to share a local register of volunteers who offer personal support, and establishing a register of available hospices, daycare facilities, associations, places with training and educational courses concerning home care, palliative care, effective coping with chronic stress, and improvement of problem solving skills.

Step three: the family support strategy implies the integration and synchrony of actions taken by public service and local government institutions such as hospitals, clinics, municipal and county social welfare centres, regional centres for social policy, nongovernmental organizations, and the Professional Paramedic Unit.

It is possible to incorporate a Specialist Paramedic unit into the county paramedic aid system which is led by GPS and a communication platform (both educational and rescue) with the transmission of information to the dispatcher. The Emergency Department's tasks include the transport of patients, medical aid, and if necessary, the right to send information to the Municipal Social Welfare Centre about the need for a social worker's intervention and also the need for the necessary inclusion of a social palliative care coordinator into the family.

Step four: the family support strategy indicates the possibility of including the religious ministry in assisting the family of cancer patients. The task of the ministry (Roman Catholic Church and other churches) is the organisation of support groups and hospices. Other tasks include finding youth volunteers, and organising meetings for caregivers and families. The purpose of the meetings is to exchange care experience.

The implementation of a support strategy for the family results in a quick and action-oriented analysis of the needs of people affected by cancer. It determines both the weak and strong sides of care, lists threats faced by the family and opportunities which arise while providing assistance. It provides

an evaluation and assessment of the status of the family as a unit of care. The individual approach to the family aims to diminish the feeling of deprivation that many families have and aims to improve health care in accordance with EU standards.

The introduction of this strategy makes the monitoring of community support networks possible. The multidisciplinary team of palliative care can plan appropriate action when solving family problems related to caring for the sick.

THE INTEGRAL SOCIAL WORK APPROACH TO FAMILY AS A UNIT OF CARE IN ONCOLOGY-RELATED DISEASE

The term *active community support* means the possible interaction which activates a social agent (either an individual, a group, or an institution) to enhance the level of family care. It depends on the process of the reconstruction of the physical, emotional and intellectual characteristics that enable effective coping in a crisis situation. Its aim is to help reach the support network and to maintain the well-being of the family thanks to a gradual introduction of three assistance stages.

The information about the family and the situation of the cancer patient is collected. A social worker contacts the family and determines whether there is a problem in the family with providing palliative care for the patient. The important thing at this point is that the social worker must accept the family's point of view, jointly with the main family caregiver, and must analyse in detail and plan subsequent steps concerning care for the ill family member. By enabling wider access to related information, the social worker activates families and supports them in their search for solutions. The social worker should also assist in lowering the anxiety level and their actions should also lessen the feeling of deprivation and isolation that families experience.

The palliative care the social worker attempts to alter the dysfunctional behaviour of the family. The social worker focuses on avoiding possible conflicts and tries searching for new solutions. Intervention in family members' dysfunctional patterns/ways of behaviour takes place. In this phase the family is made aware of possible alternative forms of assistance such as online support and educational training. It is important to find alternative behaviours within the family and to improve long and short-term care skills which will later positively affect the quality of everyday life.

The main family caregiver is informed of the date and details of meeting with a multidisciplinary team of palliative care specialist. This is a team that proposes the short and long-term tasks connected to future care.

In this phase the main caregiver consults future tasks with an expert. The aim of the tasks is to encourage other family members to relieve caregivers in the care process, thus not only significantly reducing the risk of the main caregiver's burnout but also lowering the potential costs of the patient's hospitalization.

An essential feature of the support strategy is enabling the family to rebuild its resources and to improve the conditions of the patients' recovery in cooperation with social services (both medical and nonmedical ones). This short-term and long-term strategy increases the chance of helping the socially isolated elderly calls in an emergency situation as a result of a patient's sudden worsening of health condition. During this call by way of a communication platform (educational and paramedic) paramedics may now be able to inform the Municipal Social Welfare Centre of the address of a family that is in need of immediate support and assistance.

These actions will enhance the support of the elderly who fall victim to cancer. They will bring a new quality to social work, raise the prestige of the social worker and paramedic profession, and teach adaptive behaviours during a crisis situation in the local community. The integrated social work approach is used to plan care in the subsequent stages of the progression of a disease. What families need most is support and assistance, primarily in the first phase of the sickness, immediately after learning of the diagnosis of the terminal illness, secondly when the illness strikes back, and lastly when active pharmacological treatment is ceased.

According to the experiences of health care professionals, it is essential in these three phases that the family and the sick be understood and treated seriously. It is in these phases that providing support is most effective.

In addition, institutional support is necessary under the following conditions: when there is a lack of initiative and perseverance in care for cancer patients, after the collapse of the aid system, when the main caregiver's ability is limited due to senility, and when other serious family problems coexist.

Due to the nature of the problem, the process of informing the family about possible sources of support to fight cancer must be done gently. It is important to choose the right place and an adequate way and means of communication. Furthermore, the knowledge of what is involved in treatment and what forms of treatment are available should be aptly conveyed. We must note that the boundaries and limitations of support must be clearly defined at this point to avoid learned helplessness in the family. The creation of new frames of community support must also take place depending on the progression of the disease and the adaptive skills of the family itself.

Social work's prime interest in this matter is the possible impact of the palliative care social worker planning and solving a family's problems which

they formulate in collaboration with a multidisciplinary (multi-professional) team of palliative care professionals. This strategy aims to reduce conflicts which occur in the family. Such conflicts arise due to a fear of taking up new roles, the loss of the breadwinner's income, impossibility or inability to ensure high standards of care. As Robert Merton remarks, such persistent conflict within the set of roles might be big enough to seriously interfere with the proper execution of roles by individuals having a particular social status. It might be assumed that malfunctioning sets of roles are the most common life situation (Merton 2002: 420).

According to Peter Blau, superficial altruism permeates social life. People want to perform services and be able to reciprocate what they receive, yet at the root of this apparent altruism and selfishness egoism can be discovered. The willingness to assist others is motivated by people's expectation for social rewards. The basic reward that people are seeking is social approval. Being selfish and disregarding others prevents them from receiving this award (Blau 2009: 39).

There are also other reasons for having an interest in the support strategy. The strategy should be perceived as part of bigger plan directed at society, since the strategy directs societal attention to social problems such as social numbness, anomie, dehumanisation of social life, an increase in pathology, a reduction of the financial means aimed at cancer treatment, and an increase in social tension.

This strategy is designed to enhance the quality of cancer care and takes into account the individual needs of the patient which change over time due to the progression of the illness and the burnout of family members. This project involves constructing and/or restructuring social community support networks and educating the family with the necessary adaptive skills and modifying behaviour. And it is certainly true that the theoretical synthesis concerning health and disease, treatment and care, and support and assistance are an expression of a tendency present in medical and social sciences pursuing intellectual revival on which humanities base their tradition.

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Summary

There is a strong need to support the family in the implementation of tasks related to their caring function and tasks related to meeting the basic needs of the ill family member. Family must be perceived from a broader perspective. We must examine it as a healthy family which incidentally, due to family member's sickness, happens to be in a crisis situation. With the introduction of a social support strategy for the family as a unit of care, a possible reduction in the number of hospitalisations may take place and there also may be an increase in the independence and autonomy of the families. There will be an increase in a family's ability to resolve everyday problems, to rebuild the necessary social support networks, and to improve the quality of care for sick members of the family.

Key words: family, hospitalization, social support, relationship

SOCIAL ISSUES IN THE CZECH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM AS RELATED TO CHILDREN WITH SPECIFIC EDUCATIONAL NEEDS AND IN THE CONTEXT OF COOPERATION WITH PROFESSIONAL INSTITUTIONS

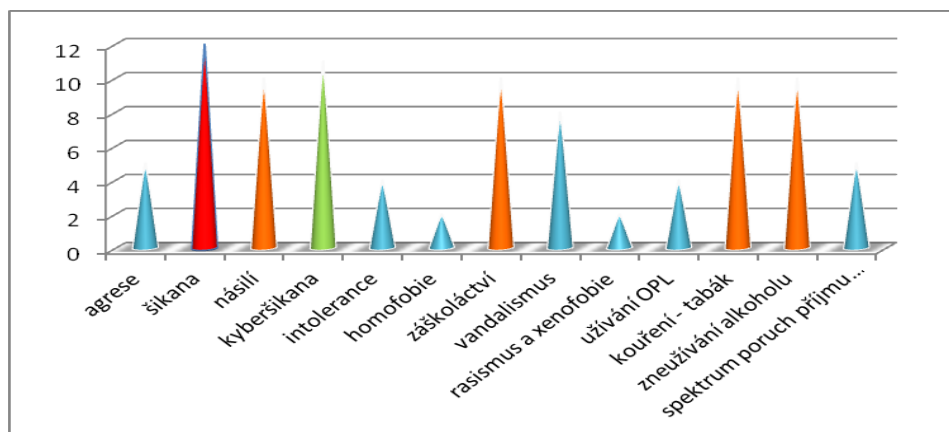
INTRODUCTION

Social issues relating to the prevention of risk behaviour in children and youth (previously referred to as the prevention of social-pathological phenomena) are regarded by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports of the Czech Republic as one of its priorities. They are addressed on various levels, e.g. by developing the National Strategy for Primary Prevention of Risk Behaviour in Children and Youth for the period 2013–2018 (Národní strategie primární prevence rizikového chování dětí a mládeže na období 2013–2018). Furthermore, they are also significantly represented in basic curricular documents ranging from preschool to grammar school education, or in general, secondary school education. These documents are called *Framework Education Programme (plus the name of a particular level of education)*, and specify educational objectives and key competencies to be attained by pupils. Last but not least, cooperation between individual subjects acting in the sphere of risk behaviour prevention, i.e. family – school – professional organisations, is also supported.

The significance of healthy lifestyle promotion and risk behaviour prevention is confirmed by a number of surveys mapping the life habits of children and adolescents. For example, in the field of nutrition, it follows from the National Report on the Health and Lifestyle of Children and School Children, produced in the framework of an international survey *Health Behaviour in School-aged Children: WHO Collaborative Cross-National Study (HBSC)* conducted in 2010, that for example, 33% of 13-year-old girls consume sweets on a daily basis, 27% of 13-year-old boys drink sweetened beverages on a daily basis, and only 42% of 15-year-old girls and 46% of 15-year-old boys have breakfast on a daily basis. As far as movement activities are

concerned, the report suggests that a large proportion of school-aged children are insufficiently active, and more than 80 % of youth watch TV for 5 hours a day (Kalman at all 2011). The international ESPAD study (The European School Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs) implies that 75% of students in the Czech Republic consumed alcohol within the last month (in consequence, the Czech Republic has ranked first among involved European countries, along with Denmark (Espad 2013)). The national report on the structure of the deceased sorted by disease classes in 2011 suggests that cardiovascular diseases are still the leading cause of death (49.3%), followed by neoplasms (25.8%) and injuries and intoxication (5.6%) (Poppová, Štyglerová 2012). According to the Czech AIDS Help Society (Česká společnost AIDS pomoc) and its statistics, it is obvious that the number of HIV-positive people in the Czech Republic are still on the rise. In 2000, 442 HIV-positive people were registered in the Czech Republic; by 28 February 2014, the number grew to 2,172 (Česká společnost AIDS pomoc).

Based on the information obtained from regional school coordinators of prevention and the data in regional prevention plans for 2013, the following incidence rate of risk behaviour types (in 2012) in a school environment was identified: bullying proved to be the most common phenomenon, followed by cyberbullying, smoking tobacco, alcohol abuse, violence, truancy and other negative behaviour types (refer to Graph 1).



Legend: aggression, bullying, violence, cyberbullying, intolerance, homophobia, truancy, vandalism, racism and xenophobia, use of NPS, smoking – tobacco, alcohol abuse, a spectrum of eating disorders

Graph 1. Incidence rate of risk behaviour types in a school environment in 2012

Source: *National Strategy for Primary Prevention of Risk Behaviour in Children and Youth for the period 2013–2018*, p. 5)

The *National Strategy for Primary Prevention of Risk Behaviour in Children and Youth for the period 2013–2018* defines the following target groups for risk behaviour prevention:

- Children from the age of 3 until young adults aged 26 on a general level – so-called general prevention.
- Specific groups of children and youth – where an increased risk of behavioural problems is assumed (e.g. children in families with a criminal record, addiction to alcohol etc.) – so-called selective prevention.
- Individuals with risk behaviour – those whose behaviour meets, in certain aspects, the characteristics of risk behaviour (e.g. experimenters with drugs, truants, aggressors etc.) – so-called indicated prevention.

General prevention is closely linked to the educational system that deals with the issue in curricular documents at all levels of education. This paper shall concentrate on the detailed analysis of the Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education with emphasis put on Stage 2 of elementary education.

THE FRAMEWORK EDUCATION PROGRAMME FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN RELATION TO SOCIAL ISSUES AND RISK BEHAVIOUR PREVENTION

In the past decade, the Czech educational system has gone through a so-called curriculum reform, i.e. new curricular documents, so-called Framework Education Programmes, have been introduced. Social education with an emphasis put on risk behaviour prevention (previously referred to as social-pathological phenomena) has been included in the education portfolio, and is thus reflected in preschool as well as primary and middle school, or vocational education. Social issues, including risk behaviour prevention, are closely related to health education and healthy lifestyle promotion. In consequence, they have been incorporated into the curriculum at both stages of elementary education, which complies with a requirement for the healthy lifestyle education to be systematic, comprehensive, reflecting the latest scientific findings, adapted to the child's bio-psycho-social needs and delivered at the earliest age (Machová, Kubátová 2009).

The document governing education at stage 1 and 2 of elementary education is called a **Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education** (FEP EE).

The education based on the document became binding for pupils in 1st and 5th forms of elementary schools in September 2007. The FEP EE has been re-

viewed several times, most recently on 1 September 2013. The FEP EE is structured into nine main educational areas, many of which are further divided into educational fields. The FEP EE defines main educational objectives and key competencies to be attained by pupils upon completing elementary education.

The key competencies are defined as a set of knowledge, skills, abilities, attitudes and values important for personal development of an individual and the individual's participation in society. Their selection and conception are based on values generally accepted in society as well as commonly held ideas on which competencies of an individual contribute to his/her education, contented and successful life and to strengthening the functions of civil society (FEP EE. 2013). The basic competencies are: learning competency, problem-solving competency, communication competency, social and personal competency, civic competency, professional competency.

At Stage 1 of elementary education, the risk behaviour prevention issue is primarily covered in the educational area, or rather educational field **Man and His World**, specifically in thematic areas *People Around Us* and *Man and His Health*.

At Stage 2 of elementary education, risk behaviour prevention (prevention of addictions, risk sexual behaviour, eating disorders, aggressiveness and bullying, etc.) is incorporated into several educational areas and fields, most significantly into the educational area **Man and Health**, specifically into the educational field **Health Education**.

Note: Before a detailed analysis of the educational field Health Education is carried out, it must be noted that the subject should be preferably taught by professionals qualified in Health Education. For that reason, with the FEP EE coming into effect, faculties of education throughout the Czech Republic started to train teachers in this field of study (e.g. Faculty of Education of Palacký University, Olomouc; Faculty of Education of Masaryk University, Brno; Faculty of Education of Charles University, Prague; etc.). In spite of this, there are only 30 % of teachers qualified in Health Education at schools (Hřivňová 2013 c: 292-307).

The educational field Health Education is primarily focused on the promotion of health, protection of health and healthy lifestyle. It is a subject that draws on a number of scientific disciplines (a multidisciplinary subject), adapts the latest knowledge didactically, and presents it in a form adequate to mental and other abilities of pupils. Also, it must balance the impact on cognitive, affective and psychomotor areas appropriately while respecting bio-psycho-social aspects of an individual and his/her health.

The FEP EE (version 2013) delimits the educational field Health Education, as well as other educational fields at Stage 2 of elementary education, by means of so-called *expected outcomes* and *subject matter*.

The Health Education comprises 16 expected outcomes specifying what a pupil should accomplish by the end of the 9th form of elementary school. The risk behaviour prevention issue is directly linked to two expected outcomes (EO), i.e. EO 13 and EO 14. Nevertheless, a detailed analysis of other EOs made clear that the risk behaviour prevention issue is also included in other EOs, e.g. EO 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 12 (compare FEP EE 2013):

EXPECTED OUTCOMES IN HEALTH EDUCATION

The pupil shall:

- VZ-9-1-01 respect the accepted rules for coexistence among peers and partners; contribute to the formation of good interpersonal relationships in society;
- VZ-9-1-02 explicate the roles of the members of the community (family, class, association) and give examples of positive and negative influence on the quality of social atmosphere (peer group, family environment) in terms of being beneficial for health;
- VZ-9-1-03 explain on examples direct connections between physical, mental and social health; explain the connection between satisfying basic human needs and the value of health;
- VZ-9-1-04 assess various ways of human behaviour in terms of responsibility for one's own health and the health of others, and deduce personal responsibility in favour of actively promoting health from them;
- VZ-9-1-05 endeavour within his/her abilities and experience to support health actively;
- VZ-9-1-06 express his/her own opinions on the issues of health and discuss them with his/her peers, family and immediate surroundings;
- VZ-9-1-07 put the composition of one's diet and eating habits in connection with the development of lifestyle diseases, and apply healthy eating habits within his/her possibilities;
- VZ-9-1-08 apply the mastered preventative methods of decision making, behaviour and conduct in relation to common, transmitted, lifestyle and other diseases; confide his/her health problems to someone and, if necessary, seek professional help;
- VZ-9-1-09 demonstrate a responsible approach to himself/herself, to the process of his/her adolescence and to the rules of healthy lifestyle; participate voluntarily in programmes promoting health within school and the municipality;
- VZ-9-1-10 use the mastered compensation and relaxation techniques and social skills independently to regenerate the body, overcome tiredness and prevent stressful situations;

- VZ-9-1-11 respect physiological changes in adolescence, react optimally to them and behave towards the opposite sex in a cultivated manner;
- VZ-9-1-12 assume responsibility for safe sexual behaviour in connection with health, ethics, morals and positive life goals; understand the importance of continence in adolescence and responsible sexual behaviour;
- VZ-9-1-13 put into context the health and psycho-social risks associated with the abuse of addictive substances and young person's life prospects; apply the mastered social skills and models of behaviour when faced with sociopathic phenomena at school and outside of it; seek professional help for himself/herself or others if necessary**
- VZ-9-1-14 evaluate on the basis of his/her knowledge and experience the potential manipulative influence of his/her peers, the media, sects; apply the mastered defensive communication skills against manipulation and aggression;**
- VZ-9-1-15 manifest responsible behaviour in risk situation in road and railway traffic; actively prevent situations when health and personal safety are endangered; provide adequate first aid if necessary;
- VZ-9-1-16 apply appropriate ways of behaviour and protection in model situations of threat, danger and emergency situations (FEP EE 2013: 81).

Achieving the EOs is also preconditioned by mastering the subject matter specified in the FEP EE for the educational field Health Education. The subject matter is structured into six thematic areas with specified partial topics. Topics relating to risk behaviour prevention are written in bold, namely (FEP EE 2013: 81-83):

1. INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS AND FORMS OF COEXISTENCE:

two-person relationships – companionship, friendship, love, partnership, marriage and parenthood;

relations and rules of coexistence within the community – family, school, **peer group**, municipality, association.

2. LIFE CHANGES AND WHAT THEY INVOLVE:

childhood, puberty, adolescence – physical, mental and social changes;

sexual maturation and reproductive health – health of the reproductive system, sexuality as a part of personality forming, continence, **premature sexual experience, promiscuity; teenage pregnancy and parenthood**; sexual identity disorders.

3. HEALTHY LIFESTYLE AND SELF CARE FOR HEALTH:

diet and health – fundamentals of a healthy diet, drinking regimen, the influence of living conditions and eating habits on health; eating disorders;

influences of the inner and outer environment on health – quality of air and water, noise level, light, temperature;

physical and mental hygiene, daily regimen – fundamental habits for personal, intimate and mental hygiene, hardening, daily regimen, balance of work and relax activities, the importance of movement for health, movement regimen;

protection against transmitted diseases – basic ways of diseases transmission and their prevention, respiratory diseases, food-borne diseases, diseases transmitted outdoors, **blood-borne and sexually transmitted diseases**, diseases transmitted through insect bite or contact with animals;

protection from chronic non-transmitted diseases and injuries – prevention of cardiovascular and metabolic diseases; preventive and medical care; responsible behaviour in case of injury and life-threatening situations (household, sports, workplace, traffic injuries), first aid basics.

4. HEALTH RISKS AND THEIR AVOIDANCE:

stress and its relation to health – compensation, relaxation and regenerative techniques for overcoming tiredness, reactions to stress and strengthening mental resistance;

self-destructive addictions – mental disorders, violence against oneself, **risk behaviour (alcohol, active and passive smoking, weapons, dangerous substances and objects, dangerous Internet)**, **violent behaviour**, difficult situations in life and how to manage them, **criminal activity**, doping in sport;

hidden forms and levels of individual violence and abuse, sexual criminality – **bullying and other expressions of violence; forms of sexual abuse of children; youth criminality; communication with professional aid services;**

safe conduct and communication – **communication with peers and strangers, movement in high-risk environments, danger of communication via electronic media, self-protection and mutual help in risk and in life-threatening situations;**

observation of the rules of safety and health protection – safe school environment, health protection during various activities, traffic safety, road and railway traffic risks, relations between road traffic participants, including managing aggressiveness, procedure in case of a road accident (emergency call, securing safety);

manipulative advertising and information – influences of advertising, activity of sects

personal safety in emergency situations – classification of emergency situations, alert signals and other methods of warning, basic tasks of population protection, evacuation, post-emergency situation activity, prevention of emergency situations.

5. VALUE AND PROMOTION OF HEALTH:

holistic concept of the individual in health and illness – components of health and their interaction, basic human needs and their hierarchy;

health promotion and its forms – prevention and intervention, acting on a change in the quality of the environment and **human behaviour, individual responsibility for health, healthy lifestyle promotion, health promotion programmes.**

6. PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT:

self-awareness and self-conception – relation to oneself, to others; healthy and balanced self-conception, forming the awareness of one's own identity;

self-regulation and self-organisation of activities and behaviour – practising self-reflexion, **self-control and self-restraint and managing difficult situations; setting personal goals and the steps to achieve them; assuming value attitudes and decision-making skills in order to resolve problems in interpersonal relationships; helping and prosocial behaviour;**

mental hygiene – social skills for preventing and managing stress, seeking assistance when in need;

interpersonal relationships, communication and cooperation – **respecting oneself and others, accepting the opinions of others, empathy; behaviour nurturing good relationships, active listening, dialogue, effective and assertive communication and cooperation in various situations, consequences of one's own conduct and behaviour** (FEP EE 2013: 76-78).

A survey "The Implementation of Health Education at Elementary Schools in the Czech Republic", conducted by the Healthy Lifestyle Research Centre at the Faculty of Education of Palacký University, Olomouc in cooperation with the Health Promotion and Education Association, identified thematic areas most thoroughly covered in Health Education lessons (Hřivnová 2013 c). Table 1 shows an overview of the areas. The survey implies that teachers most often care about thematic balance; as far as individual topics are concerned, the issue of healthy eating followed by the prevention of addictions are predominantly covered.

Thematic area	No. of schools in %
Thematic balance	53.9
Diet and eating habits	36.4
Prevention of addictions	36.4
Prevention of bullying, aggressiveness etc.	29.7
First aid and emergency situations	27.9
Reproductive health and sexual education	21.2
Health and its risk and preventive factors	19.4
Movement and movement activities	16.4
Mental health and stress prevention	13.9
Another variant	1.8

Also, so-called Standards for Elementary Education, in particular those for the educational field Health Education, deserve to be mentioned.

In connection with the version of FEP EE 2013 in effect, the development of standards and their introduction in the school practice are entering the system. **Standards for Elementary Education** are defined in the FEP EE as follows: *appendix to the → Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education. The standards consist of indicators specifying the expected outcomes* (FEP EE 2013: 14).

At present, the Standards for Elementary Education are approved for educational fields Czech Language and Literature, Mathematics and Its Applications and Foreign Language (English, German, French). The Standards are available at the portal of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports of the Czech Republic.

The Standards for Health Education are now only available in a draft version. On the web sites, a draft version of 30 April 2013 (Standardy pro základní vzdělávání – Výchova ke zdraví 2013a) is posted, which was updated as at 30 June 2013 (Standardy pro základní vzdělávání – Výchova ke zdraví 2013b), and the final version is still being reviewed. The task force commissioned by the MEYS consists of members of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, National Institute for Education, National Institute for Further Education, academic sphere for the field of Health Education and representatives of elementary schools and professional associations.

The standards development is motivated by the requirement for the “refinement and specification” of set expected outcomes. The specification of the EOs assumes the form of so-called indicators, five of which are defined on average for one EO. The indicators are formulated using so-called active verbs in perfective aspect in agreement with so-called Bloom’s Taxonomy of

Educational Objectives. Hence, the indicators specify in greater detail what a pupil should accomplish by the end of elementary school in the educational field Health Education. Also, one of the indicator-related requirements is that they must cover all the scope of an expected outcome, i.e. not only its partial components. In addition, the indicators must not “double” in individual EOs, and shall be defined with respect to all three components of personality (bio-psycho-social view) and the cognitive, affective and psychomotor educational objectives in Health Education. The indicators are formulated for education professionals, i.e. for teachers. The wording of the indicators shall be clear, comprehensible and unambiguous. Also, the subject matter defined in the FEP EE 2013 shall be covered in full, and the indicators shall reflect the latest scientific findings.

Illustrative tasks, forming an inseparable part of the standards being developed, have been designed for selected indicators and allow to check accomplishing the indicators, and thus the expected outcomes. For the time being, 1-2 illustrative tasks are offered for one EO (presumably, the bank of illustrative tasks for individual EOs will be extended and made available to teachers).

At present, the illustrative tasks already worked out are designed so that they reflect not only the cognitive, but also affective and psychomotor objectives of education.

The demandingness of current standards should be at so-called minimum level, i.e. the relevant indicators should be accomplished successfully by most (over 80 %) pupils of the 9th form.

As mentioned before, expected outcomes 13 and 14 are most closely linked to risk behaviour prevention in the educational field Health Education. That is why examples of Standards of Health Education draft version (Standardy pro základní vzdělávání – Výchova ke zdraví 2013b), are provided below for the expected outcomes 13 and 14.

Educational field	Health Education
Form	9 th
Thematic area	
Expected outcome according to FEP EE	VZ-9-1-13 The pupil shall put into context the health and psychosocial risks associated with the abuse of addictive substances and young person's life prospects; apply the mastered social skills and models of behaviour when faced with sociopathic phenomena at school and outside of it; seek professional help for himself/herself or others if necessary

Indicators	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. the pupil shall provide characteristics of physical, psychological and social addictions 2. the pupil shall give reasons why certain addictive substances are tolerated by the society while others are banned; explicate why it is prohibited by law to sell alcohol and tobacco products to people under 18 3. the pupil shall provide an overview of basic legal and illegal addictive substances; explicate how the addictive substances are used; explain health and other risks related to the abuse of the substances 4. the pupil shall demonstrate suitable ways of refusing addictive substances in a model situation 5. the pupil shall discuss non-substance addictions in terms of their influence on a person's health and life (addiction to work, person, gaming and gambling machines etc.). 6. the pupil shall search for contacts to specialised centres providing prevention and addiction treatment in the region
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Illustrative task

Write either letter L or letter I next to each of the addictive substances listed. L = legal (an addictive substance tolerated by law), I = illegal (an addictive substance prohibited by law).

Alcohol	
Marihuana	
Heroin	
Coffee	
Pervitin	
Ecstasy	
Tobacco	
Cocaine	
LSD	

Notes to the illustrative task

VZ-9-1-13.3

Illustrative task

Think about the reasons why a young person may start using addictive substances. Discuss with your classmates the reasons and situations leading a young person to using an addictive substance. Based on the discussion, select five most common reasons why a young person may start using addictive substances.

Notes to the illustrative task

VZ-9-1-13.5

Educational field	Health Education				
Form	9 th				
Thematic area					
Expected outcome according to FEP EE	VZ-9-1-14 The pupil shall evaluate on the basis of his/her knowledge and experience the potential manipulative influence of his/her peers, the media, sects; apply the mastered defensive communication skills against manipulation and aggression				
Indicators	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. the pupil shall express in his/her own words how certain social groups or individuals can manipulate other people and specify possible risks of manipulation 2. the pupil shall clarify the need of a critical approach to the media information 3. the pupil shall analyse the information on products packaging and other available information materials; assess the truthfulness of statements in specific advertisements 4. the pupil shall name the rules of assertive communication; apply the assertive and other communication skills in model situations to defend himself/herself against manipulative influences 5. the pupil shall discuss manipulation and aggressive behaviour; give examples of possible solutions for the victim of manipulation or aggression (e.g. contacts to professional aid) 6. the pupil shall adhere to the rules of safe behaviour on the Internet or social networks 				
Illustrative task					
Match the words with individual roles in the table: emotional blackmail, compromise, well-meant advice, threatening, proposal of a solution, pressure, continuous surveillance, objective criticism.					
<table border="1"> <tr> <td>MANIPULATOR</td> <td>FRIEND</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> </table>		MANIPULATOR	FRIEND		
MANIPULATOR	FRIEND				
Notes to the illustrative task	VZ-9-1-14.1				
Illustrative task					
Circle the rules in conflict with the rules of safe behaviour on the Internet and social networks:					
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) I shall report an inappropriate or dangerous text I have found on the Internet to specialists, e.g. at: http://aplikace.policie.cz/hotline/; b) When chatting, I shall only give my real address to a person who has given me his/hers; c) I shall not use facebook before my 13th birthday; 					

d) In principle, I shall not reply to offensive, rude or vulgar e-mails and messages; e) I shall never open attachments to e-mails delivered from unknown addresses; f) I shall send photographs of mine, in particular intimate ones, only to my best friends; g) When using facebook, I shall always bear in mind that all my photographs and personal information will be stored there even after I cancel my account.	
Notes to the illustrative task	VZ-9-1-14.6

EDUCATION OF PUPILS WITH SPECIFIC EDUCATIONAL NEEDS AND A LINK TO RISK BEHAVIOUR PREVENTION

An appendix to the Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education is concerned with the education of pupils with special educational needs. The group of pupils with special educational needs includes pupils with disabilities (physical disability, visual and/or hearing impairment, mental retardation, autism, speech impediments, simultaneously handicapped with multiple disabilities and learning or behavioural developmental disorders), and physically handicapped pupils (physical debilitation, long-term illness and mild health disorders leading to learning and behavioural problems). **The group also includes socially disadvantaged pupils (coming from a family background with low socio-cultural position, at risk of sociopathic phenomena, having court-ordered institutional care or education in a juvenile correction institution and pupils in refugee status and asylum-seekers).**

Obviously, risk behaviour shall only be prevented in the last group. In terms of education of socially disadvantaged pupils, the FEP EE pays special attention to the conditions of education of pupils from different socio-cultural backgrounds, but also to **pupils coming from a family background with a low socio-cultural and economic position that are most at risk of sociopathic phenomena.**

According to the FEP EE 2013, the following conditions shall be fulfilled for the education of socially disadvantaged pupils to be successful:

- individual or group care;
- preparatory classes;
- help of an assistant teacher;
- a smaller number of pupils in the class;
- corresponding methods and forms of work;
- specific textbooks and materials;
- regular communication and feedback;

– cooperation with a psychologist, special education teacher – child behaviour-disorder specialist, social worker or other specialists (FEP EE 2013: 126-128).

However, the educational objectives, key competencies, expected outcomes and subject matter are identical for these pupils, which is also the case of the educational field Health Education.

To conclude the issue of introduction of risk behaviour prevention in the education of pupils at Czech schools, in particular in the educational field Health Education, it can be stated that health education has its place in the education of pupils (and even pupils with specific educational needs). The survey “The Implementation of Health Education at Elementary Schools in the Czech Republic”, conducted by the Healthy Lifestyle Research Centre (Centrum výzkumu zdravého životního stylu) at the Faculty of Education of Palacký University, Olomouc, in co-operation with the Health Promotion and Education Association, showed, among others, that 95% of elementary school head-teachers consider it meaningful to educate pupils in this field, and 70 % of them think that health education can impact on the society as a whole (e.g. through the decrease in the incidence of risk behaviour and other undesirable phenomena) (Hřivnová 2013 a, b, c, d).

PROFESSIONAL INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED IN THE PREVENTION OF RISK BEHAVIOUR IN CHILDREN AND YOUTH

There is a whole range of professional institutions involved in the risk behaviour prevention. These are both governmental and nongovernmental institutions. As far as the role of the government is concerned, an important position belongs to the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports of the Czech Republic (MEYS) which has set primary prevention of risk behaviour as one of its priorities. In the field of prevention, the MEYS holds responsibility, among others, for the conception, content and coordination of specific primary prevention, works out methodical materials for selective primary prevention and prepares legislative materials, organises work meetings with regional school coordinators of prevention, prevention methodologists in pedagogical-psychological counselling centres and employees of educational care centres working in the field of primary prevention. Furthermore, it certifies the professional competence of risk behaviour primary prevention programmes, cooperates with professional associations, pedagogical initiatives and nongovernmental organisations working in the field of specific primary prevention of risk behaviour. (www.msmt.cz).

In order to ensure effective communication with all the institutions or individuals involved, the MEYS has established a web portal *Prevence-info.cz* for those who are engaged in primary prevention and strive to implement activities aimed at preventing risk behaviour-related problems and consequences, or possibly minimising their effect (*Prevence rizikového chování*).

The MEYS coordinates the risk behaviour prevention activities both on a horizontal and vertical level. On the horizontal level, the prevention assumes the form of a close co-operation with the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of the Interior (National Crime Prevention Committee), the Office of the Government of the Czech Republic (Government Council for Drug Policy Coordination). On the vertical level, the MEYS leads and coordinates the activities of regional school coordinators of prevention, prevention methodologists (employees of pedagogical-psychological counselling centres) and school prevention methodologists through regional school coordinators and methodologists of prevention. The MEYS also allocates on average CZK 20 million to the implementation of activities in the field of the prevention of risk behaviour in children and youth. Projects subsidised from this grant scheme are mainly projects of schools and educational facilities, projects of services for schools and educational facilities and information delivery projects (www.msmt.cz).

In addition to the governmental institutions engaged in the primary prevention, there are also nongovernmental institutions in the Czech Republic. The nongovernmental organisations dealing with the youth's risk behaviour prevention include, among others, civic associations as per Act no. 83/1990 and public benefit companies as per Act no. 245/1995. The MEYS registers approximately 90 of these institutions in the Czech Republic. In the Olomouc region, this applies to the following organisations: E.g. Kappa Help, Pontis Šumperk, P-centrum Olomouc and Sdružení Podané ruce (*Prevence rizikového chování*).

Using the P-centrum civic association as an example, we shall now explicate the activities of these associations and societies. P-centrum Olomouc provides services in the field of care of families with children, works with endangered families with children in the U Mloka family centre, provides people addicted to drugs, alcohol, and gambling and their relatives with outpatient treatment and counselling, offers clients after drug-addiction treatment follow-up programmes, including sheltered flats, and also implements programmes of primary antidrug prevention for schools. In this area, P-centrum presents itself as a professional centre providing services in the sphere of specific primary prevention to class teams at elementary and se-

condary schools, individual pupils, parents, education professionals and university students mainly in Olomouc Region. The aid is based on a comprehensive preventive programme reflecting the “KAB” model, i.e. affecting not only children’s knowledge but also their skills and attitudes. Preventive programmes promoting healthy lifestyle and focused on legal as well as illegal drugs are adapted to the current situation at the place of the client’s residence (school). The main objective of the educational activities is to deepen and extend teachers’ knowledge and skills in the field of work with children prone to risk behaviour. The association also trains school methodologists of prevention so that they are capable of identifying pupils at risk and recommending intervention preventive programmes for pupils and classes (p-centrum.cz).

CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis of the Framework Education Programme for Pre-school Education and Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education, it can be stated that the issue of risk behaviour prevention has a firm place in curricular documents, and manifests itself most predominantly at Stage 2 of elementary education. The topics are fully integrated in both the expected outcomes and the subject matter and even in the newly developed Standards of Health Education in the Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education, in the educational area Human and Health and the educational field Health Education. Risk behaviour prevention is also emphasised in “Appendix D” of the FEP EE 2013 that governs, among others, the education of socially disadvantaged pupils who are most often at risk of social-pathological behaviour.

The general, selective and indicated prevention in the Czech Republic is also covered by both governmental and nongovernmental professional institutions. On the governmental level, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports plays a vital part as a coordinating body; on the nongovernmental level, non-profit organisations, such as civic associations and public benefit societies, are also important.

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Summary

Since 2007 education in the Czech Republic has followed a new curricular document called the Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education. This document has been amended and reviewed several times, most recently in September 2013. The key competencies that elementary school students should acquire include communicative competency, social and personal competency and civil competency. Their development is also supported by the educational area Man and Health and the educational field Health Education. The specific expected outcomes and content of this field of study include a very wide issue associated with health care in all bio-psycho-social aspects, promotion of healthy lifestyle and elimination of risk factors. They also include personality and social development and social issues including the prevention of risk behaviour and social-pathological phenomena. These issues are addressed both in the context of the education of pupils without specific educational needs and pupils with specific educational needs, e.g. at special schools. In the context of cooperation between educational institutions and professional subjects, particularly primary, but also the secondary and tertiary prevention, involves searching for an optimum solution in the area of risk behaviour or social-pathological phenomena.

Key words: Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education, key competencies, Health Education, expected outcomes, a pupil with specific educational needs, risk behaviour (social-pathological phenomena), primary prevention, professional institutions

THE MEANING OF LIFE, SELF ESTEEM, AND SOCIAL SUPPORT OF HOMELESS PEOPLE

HOMELESSNESS

Absolute poverty represents one of the main global issues of humanity, with its basic characteristic being a day-to-day struggle for survival. It has taken the form of homelessness, which is one of the problems of a postmodern society in many countries around the world. Homelessness has also become a part of our society in Slovakia. We classify homelessness as a socially pathological phenomenon. Social pathology defines this phenomenon as a destructive or auto-destructive behaviour in people. It is comprised of pathological behaviour, pathological conditions, social, cultural conditions and processes evocating or causing pathological behaviour (Balogová et al. 2003). *Anybody can be a homeless person. Man, woman, child, whole families, young, old, sick, healthy, employed, unemployed, addicted or abstainer, ex-convict, abused woman or a boy from an orphanage* (Beňová 2008: 10). Giddens (1999) points out a fact, that in the last few years, the term homeless person was transferred to a category of people, who have nowhere to sleep, and because of that, they sleep on the streets or in old, abandoned boarding houses, or they temporally live in a charity hospice.

In the EU, people are considered to be homeless when not only are they seen on streets or in hospices, but also those, who are hidden, wandering from hospice to hospice or sleeping under bridges and in other places. People at risk of losing a home, are unemployed, or are victims of domestic abuse, and who cannot afford to pay the rent are considered to be a potential homeless person (Beňová 2008). Hradecká, Hradecký (1996) mention extreme exclusion when discussing homeless persons. Homeless people are usually unemployed. Neglected looks, inappropriate clothing, and poor health prove to be a problem when looking for a job as they adversely affect the employer when choosing future employees. Homeless persons are a socially excluded group of people. Vágnerová (1998) states that homeless people usually have unsatisfied needs and are under the influence of bad experiences tend to quit, expecting nothing from life et al., which leads to an attitude of resignation, apathy and fatalism.

THE MEANING OF LIFE

The of social worker dictionary defines the meaning of life as a regulative term that modifies and explains social norms by which a person should guide themselves. A person's value system along with their confrontation with social norms helps define the secret of an individual's existence; also known as the meaning of life (Strieženec 1996). To understand the meaning of life means to understand ourselves. When we discuss the meaning of life, it does not have to mean only one thing; therefore, we can talk about a so-called plurality of meanings. We assign different meanings to each of our spheres of life. We can examine the pathology of purpose of our existence, because such meanings can strengthen each other (when we reach one meaning we can proceed to reach another one) or contradict each other (Šulavíková, Sejčová 2008). When we ponder the purpose of our existence from the point of view of psychology, two types of questions arise. The first being the exploitation of the understanding of that purpose, and the second being the creation of purpose. The creation of understanding of the meaning of life can be defined as a process. In this process, people judge, re-evaluate and verify the significance of events while discovering the meaning of life. According to Taylor, an increased necessity to find the meaning of what is happening occurs mainly in situations that bother the person very much. The creation of the meaning is best explained as something that is most required and most important in a particular situation. According to some authors, the ability to discover a meaning is something a person is born with. Creating this meaning is very important for a person as it helps them better identify and evaluate themselves (Křivohlavý 2006). It does not matter in what situation a person finds themselves; their life is still potentially meaningful. According to P. Macek (1997), to be nobody but ourselves, to be aware of our value, and to consider our future belongs at the top of the system of values and interests of a person. Some of our authors like Orosová, Zelina, Kováč, Komárik, and Halama approach a person's meaning of life through an analysis of the meaning of life's function, by naming components and dimensions of meaningfulness in which the meaning of life can thrive and develop. Particularly, it is an acknowledgment of the presence of relevant and significant goals, values, beliefs, life aspirations, and plans in a person's life. Life goals, that enrich life with a purpose, are an outcome of a functioning of beliefs, and they are so connected with them that they become inseparable. Life plans and goals are real factors that contribute to the regulation of human behaviour. Studies show (Orosová 1991), that through analysis we can define how much of a cognitive reflection preferred values will have on the level of meaningful-

ness and life goals of a person. A system of listed beliefs is supposed to provide an individual with context and a specific form of understanding of the outer world and an awareness of meaningfulness of the world and their own life. It is not static and it also possesses the ability to eliminate negative events in feelings followed by existential facts. A system of beliefs also functions as a provider of certain behavioural criteria. In its core, the meaning of life represents a compilation of goals, values and beliefs, which give a person a feeling of value and purposefulness in their life.

SELF ESTEEM

According to Shavelson & col. (1976), self-image is a way of perceiving ourselves. This perception is formed by experience with the environment and significant others.

We can define three aspects of self-image: the cognitive aspect, which deals with its structure and content; the affective aspect defines the relationship of an individual with themselves and their self-evaluation; the aspect of action defines how a person will act in accordance with their self-knowledge and self-evaluation (Blatný & col., 1993, Macek 1997). Much research has proved that if a person values themselves, they could establish harmony in their life. A positive self-image lowers the risks of drug and alcohol addiction and the risk of suicide (Stempelová 1998). The affective part has the greatest practical use when it comes to researching self-image. Rogers defines self-evaluation as a person's acceptance of themselves and how positive their relationship is with themselves (Hoyle & col. 1998).

The feeling of self-value is strongly influenced by the feedback of social environment, and therefore a need of positive self-evaluation has a supportive role in creating and maintaining social relationships.

SOCIAL SUPPORT

The system of social support can be understood as some sort of absorptive system that protects people from the potentially adverse influence of stressful situations. Many foreign and local authors agree on this definition. People with a strong system of social support at their disposal appear to be better equipped to deal with serious changes in life or everyday annoyances (Cohen, Wills [in:] Křivohlavý 2006). In a wider sense, by social support we understand it to mean help that is provided by other people to a person in a stressful situation (Křivohlavý 2006).

A person gains strength to mobilise their own psychological resources when they are emotionally and generally supported by others. To fight stress and stressful situations, a person needs to feel someone backing them up, supporting them, someone to talk to about their problems.

It has been proved, that receivers of social support tend to avoid being reliant on their social network and ask for help only when all of the others coping strategies have failed. According to Satir (1994), the way to creating and maintaining a connection to proper, effective, and responsible behaviour is to have a sense of our own value.

INSTITUTE OF CHRIST THE HIGH PRIEST /IKV/ ŽAKOVCE - A CHARITY PROJECT

The warden and administrator of the Institute of Christ the High Priest is Ing. Marián Kuffa, Dr.h.c. It was his idea to turn an old farm into a centre and shelter for homeless people in Žakovce, Kežmarok County. In the case of community work with homeless people, employees of the Institute are trying to create such ground that would help homeless people and problematic citizens to reintegrate and begin a standard life, a family where they would be useful and create values for our society. Problematic people are taken care of 24/7, not only during working hours, but also outside of them. The employees who work on their reintegration also reside with them. They organise various activities for them and even spend their evenings with them. Homeless individuals are not inactive in this institution. Employees of the Institute follow these three rules when working to reintegrate homeless persons: *1/ Alcohol and other addictive substances are forbidden. 2/ The Prevention and forbiddance of criminal activity. 3/ Occupational therapy.* During reintegration, homeless persons go through three stages. The first stage: *They neither care about other people nor themselves when they enter the facility.* The second stage: *They only care about themselves.* Third stage: *They care not only for themselves, but look for opportunities on how to help others.* During occupational therapy, homeless people assist around the facility in which they reside. They try to be self-sufficient, some of them even work around the farm (the facility is self-sufficient when it comes to the production of potatoes, milk, eggs, meat and, partially, vegetables) since expenses to provide food are just too high. A bakery has been built on the grounds of the Institute, therefore making it self-sufficient when it comes to the production of bread. Many of them work on construction. We can say that the building for the physically disabled was built by homeless persons. This gives them a feeling of capability and usefulness, and some of them have found a new meaning of life. Many of them found

themselves working as janitors, caretakers or cooks in this building. To change a person not only on the outside, but also from the inside, is the core of reintegration (Inštitút Krista Veľkňaza, <http://www.ikv.sk/dbjs.phtm>).

GOAL OF THE STUDY

The goal was *to study the meaning of life for homeless persons; to study the differences in this meaning and its two dimensions (actual meaning of life, searching for meaning of life) in relationship to satisfaction with social support.*

Method

Study sample: A study sample was made involving 175 homeless persons from the Institute of Christ the High Priest (IKV) in Žakovce. 38% of them were women and the average age being 42.6, SD=10.21 (Minimum: 19 years, maximum: 66 years). 104 homeless persons submitted a completed questionnaire.

Procedure

Taking part in this study was voluntary and anonymous. Data collection was carried out with the researcher guiding the whole event. The warden and administrator of IKV in Žakovce gave his consent for this data collection.

METHODOLOGY

Meaning in Life

Meaning in life questionnaire (Steger, Frazier, Oishi et al. 2006). The questionnaire was comprised of 10 parts, 2 dimensions of meaning of life: 1. *Dimension of the actual meaning of life* (if they believed that their life had a meaning), 2. *Dimension of searching for a meaning of life* (if they seek a meaning and try to understand it). Subjects answered every question with numbers from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), this being based on Likert's scale type. The Cronbach's Alpha value of MLQ was 0.80.

Self Esteem

Self-image was monitored by SELF-methodology, created by J. Výrost (Vasil'ová, Bendžalová 2004). The participants were asked to compare them-

selves with other people from their social network using the Likert's scale: 1- far less than others, 2- less than others, 3- more than others, 4- far more than others were. They were supposed to grade these components: self-image, happiness, success, physical endurance, mental endurance, self-confidence, sense of humour, ability to communicate and number of acquaintances, along with some extra factors like: ability to get up, shake off and move further, desire to work and desire to help others.

Social Support

Social support was monitored by the question "How would you rate your satisfaction with how many reliable people you have, using percentage? %". Using the Visual Binning method, it was able to create three groups of homeless people based on their satisfaction with social support: low level of satisfaction ($\leq 20\%$), moderate level of satisfaction (21 – 40%) and higher level of satisfaction (41%+).

Statistical Analysis

Results were analysed through SPSS 20 using the Mann-Whitney U test, Kruskal-Wallis test, and Kendall's serial correlating coefficient.

RESULTS

Meaning of Life for Homeless People

The study uncovered that searching for the meaning of life is on higher level than the actual meaning of life. ($Md^{\text{actual meaning of life}} = 22, 0$, $Md^{\text{searching for meaning of life}} = 24,0$).

The Role of Gender in the Meaning of Life of Homeless People

The studies showed that there was no huge difference between men and women in the dimension of the actual meaning of life for homeless persons ($U \text{ test} = 2,473$, $z = -0, 96$, $N=152$, $p= 0,336$). On the contrary, there were huge differences in the dimension of planning for the future ($U \text{ test} = 2,091$, $z = -2, 11$, $N = 150$, $p = 0,035$, $Md^{\text{men}} = 25,0$, $Md^{\text{women}} = 23, 5$). A higher level of planning for future was discovered among homeless men.

Meaning of Life and Satisfaction with Social Support

Significant statistical differences were discovered in the dimension of the actual meaning of life ($\chi^2 = 22,8$, $p < 0,001$, $Md^{\text{low level of satisfaction with social support}} = 21$, $Md^{\text{moderate level of satisfaction with social support}} = 21$, $Md^{\text{higher level of satisfaction with social support}} = 28$, 5) and in the dimension of the planning of the meaning of life ($\chi^2 = 25,5$, $p < 0,001$, $Md^{\text{low level of satisfaction with social support}} = 24$, $Md^{\text{moderate level of satisfaction with social support}} = 24$, $Md^{\text{high level of satisfaction with social support}} = 28$, 0) among the three groups of homeless persons diversified by their level of satisfaction with social support.

Homeless persons with a higher level of satisfaction with social support (41%+) showed a higher level of the actual meaning of life and searching for the meaning of life than homeless persons with a lower ($\leq 20\%$) and moderate level (21 – 40%) of satisfaction with social support.

The Meaning of Life and SELF

Statistically significant, positive results between self-image and the actual meaning of life were discovered in observed components of happiness, success, ability to communicate, ability to get up, shake off and move further, desire to work and the desire to help others. Statistically significant, positive results between self-image and the factor for searching for the meaning of life were discovered in observed components of happiness, self-confidence, sense of humour, ability to communicate, ability to get up, shake off and move further, desire to work and the desire to help others. The strongest relationship was discovered between the self-image component of happiness and the factor of searching for the meaning of life.

CONCLUSION

It is inarguable that homelessness has a significant impact on loss of life expectations (Nusselder et al. 2012). In the dimension of the actual meaning of life, the study did not confirm differences based on gender, but a higher level of planning of future was discovered among homeless men. The posted results correspond with the research results of the qualitative study by authors Liu et al. (2009), which showed the aspirations and hopes of homeless men in handling and resolving presented life situations.

The results show that homeless persons with a higher level of satisfaction with social support listed higher levels of the actual meaning of life and higher levels of searching for the meaning of life in comparison to homeless

persons with a lower and moderate level of satisfaction with social support. The posted results correspond with the conclusions of other studies which show that social support plays an important role in the process leading to homelessness, and that it is one of the important factors in relation to the life expectations of homeless persons. The absence of social support can lead to suicidal thoughts and hopelessness connected with handling their life situation (van Wyk, van Wyk 2011, Schutt, Meschede, Rierdan 1994).

The motivation of the homeless persons of the IKV to participate in the research, which is strongly affected by the fact that they belong to the target group of much research, belongs to the basic limits of the study. The study's goal was to point out the homelessness phenomenon in Slovakia and also to point out ways of how to assist such persons, particularly in the above-mentioned IKV.

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Summary

The aim of this research study was to examine the meaning of life for homeless people; examine the differences in their meaning of life in two aspects (the actual sense of life, and the long-term search for a comprehensive meaning of life) in relation to their gender and degree of satisfaction with social support in their environment. The goal of this research was to study the relationship between the components of self-image and the factors of the meaning of life. 104 homeless persons who took part in the research were from the Institute of Christ the High Priest (CHP) in Žakovce. 38% of the sample group were women, the average age of the

sample group was 42.6, and the SD equalled 10.21. During the research, the respondents were presented with a survey questionnaire on the meaning of life (Steger, Frazier, Oishi, et al. 2006). The perceived level of surroundings' social support was monitored by the question *At how many percent are you satisfied with the number of persons whom you can rely on in times of trouble?...%*, and self-image was studied by the Self methodology (Vasilová, Bendžalová 2004). A distinctively higher level of planning for the future was observed among homeless males. Individuals who declared greater satisfaction with social support that they received from their surroundings also reported increased levels of a temporary sense of life as well as of a long-term search for a comprehensive meaning in life than the subjects reporting lower and medium levels of satisfaction with perceived social support. It was discovered, that the strongest relationship occurred between the self-image component of desire to help others and the actual meaning of life, and between the self-image component of happiness and the factor of searching for the meaning of life. The results suggested the importance of considering gender traits in measuring personal life satisfaction and a demand for the provision of social support and strengthening self-image in social work with homeless people.

Key words: meaning of life, self esteem, social support, gender, homeless people

CHILDREN ROUGH SLEEPERS - FROM THE ANALYSIS OF THE PHENOMENON TO AN ATTEMPT TO SOLVE THE PROBLEM

INTRODUCTION

Homelessness among children and youth is a profoundly disturbing phenomenon, and its dimensions are difficult to diagnose unambiguously (GUS, 2012, 2013; MPiPS, 2013; Szczygieł, 2013, 2014a). Owing to the complexity of the factors determining the emergence of this phenomenon, its individual course in each case, and the diversity of the ways of getting out of it, in-depth research in this scope has to be conducted. It is also necessary to scrutinise the phenomenon from different viewpoints – the one of young people who experience this state, as well as the institutions dealing with the solution and prevention of this problem. The aim of this paper is to present the results of research on the phenomenon of homelessness among children and youth realised within the scope of the project *Children Rough Sleepers* (The Daphne III Programme) and to elaborate on the role which multi-institutional partnerships can fulfil in the area of social problems that are difficult to solve, using funds from the EU budget.

THE ASSUMPTIONS OF THE PROJECT *CHILDREN ROUGH SLEEPERS*

The project *Children Rough Sleepers* (full name: A Study Relating to Children Rough Sleepers who are Runaways & Homeless and Victims of Sexual Exploitation/Abuse & other Violence on the Streets and Development of Knowledge Transfer Activities that Improve Services & Policies to Support & Protect these Vulnerable Children) was implemented in the beginning of 2013 in a partnership comprising ten institutions, the headquarters of which are located in nine countries of the European Union. The project manager is Professor Kate Moss, a leading British homelessness specialist and scientist at the University of Wolverhampton (The UK), who is also the project coordi-

nator. Besides the University, the partnership also comprises the Association *Komunikujeme* (Czech Republic), International Child Development Initiatives – ICDI (The Netherlands), *Conversas de Rua Associacao* (Portugal), CCRESS Ltd. (The UK), Romanian Society for Lifelong Learning (Romania), *AGreenment* Association (Italy), EuroCoop (Slovenia), Simetrias (Spain), Regional Social Welfare Resource Centre (Hungary) and the *Centre of Education and Enterprise Support* Association from Rzeszow, which represents the Polish partner in the project. Such a construction of the partnership enables optimum realisation of the major assumptions, namely:

- evaluating the scale of the phenomenon of children who run away from home as a result of experiencing violence, sexual exploitation or abuse;
- offering complex aid and content-related support for people who take care of such children.

The project has clearly distinguished two aims, which refer to the diagnosis of the situation and the development of ways of preventing it and assisting those involved. Hence, the system of partnership and the division of responsibilities for the realisation of particular tasks that are assigned according to partners' experience and the main objectives concerning prospective realisation effects. This division takes into account abilities and experience, which some of the partners gained during the realisation of the previous project under the guidance of the University of Wolverhampton, which related the diagnosis of the situation and the development of the ways of helping homeless women (the project *Women Rough Sleepers*, also realised within the scope of the Daphne Programme). The results of the research conducted in that project enabled the determination of the current project's objectives, as well as its territorial scope, with particular regard to the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. For this reason, institutions were invited to the new partnership, which in their activity encountered difficult social problems and realised projects aimed at youth. It is the practical experience of partner institutions within the scope of the support offered to children and youth and activity, with a view of strengthening the aid provided by public institutions, which is the key element deciding upon the success of the activities realised within the project. Owing to the fact that the activities are realised in two stages (i.e. a diagnosis of the situation through research and the development of the forms of support and aid) the key experience of the partners did not have to be research work, but the ability to offer support for children and youth. Due to the fact that while this paper was being prepared, while the realisation of the project was still in progress, some of the elements under discussion will be based on the assumptions of the project realisation.

THE RESEARCH PART OF THE PROJECT

The University of Wolverhampton was responsible for the formulation of the entire research concept. The aim of the research was to determine the scale and the causes of the existence of the phenomenon of homelessness among children and youth (in the project the phrase *children rough sleepers* was used). Owing to the broad generalisation in such a formulated major purpose and the fact that there two observation dimensions were established – children and youth as well as aid institutions – it was decided that a range of specific aims within the scope of the research conducted in both groups should be distinguished.

The aims that were established for the group of children and youth experiencing homelessness comprise (Szczygieł, 2014b) :

- the identification of homelessness determinants;
- the determination of the character of homelessness;
- the indication of the key experiences connected with homelessness;
- the identification of the factors eliminating and preventing homelessness.

The aims for the group of aid institutions are (Szczygieł, 2014b):

- the determination of the role of aid institutions with reference to children and youth experiencing homelessness;
- the identification of the state of knowledge on children and youth homelessness;
- the analysis of the regulations in force within this scope;
- the analysis of institutions' needs in the scope of trainings and content-related support;
- the identification of the current community solutions and common initiatives;
- the identification of the examples of effective activity;
- the determination of the proposals of necessary changes.

For the purpose of the research it was agreed that the notion *child* would refer to a person under the age of 18 (in individual cases – a person under the age of 21, as long as it was consistent with the aim of the research realisation). Owing to the difficulty mentioned in the introduction, in diagnosing the phenomenon of homelessness among young people, it was decided that the definition of the phenomenon would comprise three semantic distinguishing features, namely homelessness, flatlessness, the lack of a roof above the heads of children, determined by the following characteristics (Moss & Singh, 2014):

- living on the street in the widest sense including inhabiting wasteland, unoccupied dwellings, sleeping or bedded down in the open air (streets, doorways, parks, for example) using non-significant or sporadic specia-

- lised resources or housed homeless and living in the open or in non-adapted accommodation;
- children who spend the majority of their time on the street or outside of the care of responsible adults;
 - living in a situation where that child is inadequately protected, directed or supervised by responsible adults;
 - children who run away, leave home or are thrown out, commonly referred to as ‘Runaways’: including young people who stay away from home for at least one night without the permission of their parent or caregiver;
 - a homeless child who has no home where they can be expected to live, and who may be staying with friends, in a hostel, a refuge or in a shelter or another type of ad hoc or temporary accommodation;
 - a street homeless child who is sleeping rough outside on the street or elsewhere in a place not designed for regular sleeping, or who is living in accommodation not designed for human habitation;
 - children in “roving” accommodation;
 - roofless according to the European ETHOS typology of triple exclusion that is, social or legal or physical.

The acceptance of such a broad definition ensued from the will of reflecting not only the concrete experiences of children but also cultural dimensions or the differences between the countries that participate in the research.

The first stage of the research was literature review, which also comprised the analysis of the available research results coming from public statistics. This review enabled an indication of the main sources of available data (in the case of Poland there was the data of Central Statistical Office and the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy), the analysis of the research results conducted by the research institutions within the scope of the projects, indirect inference on the percentage of homeless children who experienced this state as a result of violence or abuse. However, since on the basis of the literature review it was not possible to indicate the determinants of the occurrence of the phenomenon of homelessness among children and youth, it was necessary to carry out a complex, structuralised measurement, which gave the possibility of comparing the results in particular countries, which could not be obtained on the basis of the literature review alone. During the course of the work two semi-structuralised questionnaires of in-depth interviews were prepared, which respectively consisted of 38 questions addressed to children and youth and 18 questions addressed to institutions. The research was conducted in nine European countries on the same principles, namely among 20 children, and comprising 20 institutions assisting them in various aspects (within the scope of the present paper the results of the research conducted

in Poland be presented mainly). The research was being realised in the period of July – December 2013.

THE SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH CONDUCTED AMONG HOMELESS CHILDREN AND IN AID INSTITUTIONS

The interviews were conducted with 20 children, 9 of which were boys and 11 were girls between the ages of 8 to 18 years. All children were of Polish nationality. A part of them were staying in educational care facilities or foster families, whereas some of them returned to their biological families or managed to become independent. Eighteen of the children were studying and half of them stated that they had difficulties with learning. Five of the children smoked regularly and one admitted to have taken drugs. Three children used to drink alcohol. The cause that was most frequently indicated to be the reason of homelessness was the social dysfunction of the family, which ensued from the lack of an emotional bond between the child's parents, the alcoholism of a parent or abandonment by their family and the lack of the possibility of being supported by the other parent. None of the children explained that the reason for their homelessness was a result of the death of their parents. Describing their families, the children indicated the symptoms of the problems, but a clear tendency to soften the description was observed, so the interviewer did not have a negative image of the family. Only a few of the children (the older ones) endeavoured to present an objective description, giving an explanation for the situation as well as indicating the concrete shortcomings on the part of the parents, and their emotional attitude towards the situation. Virtually none of the children led a roving mode of life (except for one case) nor was a gang member (except for two cases). Children did not possess firearms nor did they commit offences (only petty thefts were diagnosed). The children were not forced into prostitution, and did not experience sex-related violence during the stay outside the home (none of the children indicated this problem to be the reason of their homelessness and did not experience it at any stage of their lives). The majority of the children were not offered any aid before having become homeless. At a later period, aid was provided after a child returned to their family or foster care. In the opinion of the majority of the children, effective prevention of the phenomenon of homelessness can consist in support for parents and families in the realisation of the child-rearing process, getting out of a difficult situation (e.g. alcoholism), and building an honest relation between

parents. Some of the children also indicated their parents' attitude towards one another (a flexible and open one was more desired than a strict one); the will to experience such a state was also diagnosed among the children (the wilful escape from home). In describing their plans for the future, the majority of the children showed a will to finish the next stage of education or to start studying at a university, become independent and start a family.

The results of the research conducted in aid institutions indicated that the key way of providing support for homeless children is to run educational care facilities for children, who do not have their home, and as a result of the decision of the court are placed in such institutions. The majority of the respondents consisted of workers from these types of institutions, but the interviews were also conducted with the employees of the foundations and associations acting for the benefit of children, streetworkers, psychotherapists, and at a police station. The participants of the research indicated that the problem of homelessness is extremely difficult to diagnose and to evaluate its dimensions even in the area of a particular institution's activity. The difficulty of the diagnosis ensues not only from the hidden character of the problem, but also the fact that it was not diagnosed at previous stages of administrative procedure that were followed with respect to children. Virtually in all cases that were discussed during the research, the justification of the court concerning placing a child in an educational care facility or foster care never contained the information regarding homelessness (understood as broadly as it is in the project), but in more than the half of the cases, episodes of running away from homes or frequent staying the night outside home were diagnosed. Such a situation is the reason for which the caregivers and the employees of the institutions themselves had to find solution and a form of help for children experiencing homelessness. None of the respondents was a participant of a course concerning the subject or presenting ways of working with a child who had experienced homelessness. Within this scope the participants of the research indicated their own methods of therapies and work with such children in their institutions. Almost every participant of the interviews emphasised the procedural inconveniences ensuing from regulations, which caused instability in the aid system. What was mentioned here was the financing of the centres, which annually have to sign a contract, which makes it impossible to employ the personnel for a long term, causes high fluctuation and, as a result of that, a lack of stability among children, who experience constant changes. Moreover, the participants fiercely criticised the present model of aid, which assumed that community interviews are conducted by the employees of Community Social Welfare Centres within the scope of social work, which results in problems not being perceived in the previous

phases of their arousal, but only an extreme situation is diagnosed. The main factor preventing the occurrence of such phenomena would be, in the respondent's opinion, work with the entire family in their natural environment. Some of the institutions in which the interviews were conducted, managed to establish such a pattern of conduct, though, for formal and legal reasons it was hard to realise it completely, however it had already produced the predicted effects (after a few years after it had been implemented).

DEVELOPING FORMS OF AID AS A RESULT OF EFFECTIVE PARTNERSHIP AND PROJECT REALISATION

Within the scope of further project realisation, there was a plan to prepare guidelines for the employees of institutions and for the children who experience homelessness (as a final effect of research realisation, apart from the report presenting the results), and also to organise workshops on the subject dedicated to aid institutions. In the workshop phase of the project, partner institutions will be particularly engaged; they will present their ideas concerning the subjects of the workshops and organise them in their environment. This practical dimension of project realisation would not be possible without the participation of the institutions which assist children and youth in various aspects or active work in aid institutions. The proposition of the workshops prepared by the academe, in spite of the high content value, might not have sufficient application value, which ensues from the lack of practical knowledge on the subject of assistance and the mechanisms functioning in this area. Only the knowledge acquired on the basis of the conducted research, in spite of its key role, and owing to the aim of the project, does not provide direct tips "how" homeless children and institutions operating in particular countries should be supported in the best possible way. Thus, the element that is necessary for the proper realisation of this undertaking are the institutions dealing with the realisation of similar or even the same actions in everyday work. This is an added value of the project, which also enables the use of the previous broad experience in the activity of those institutions. This experience comprises not only the skill of providing direct aid for institutions or children, but also the skill of providing multidirectional support, including the organisation and conducting of workshops, the creation of sources and forms of knowledge popularisation, so that the project effects could reach as wide a circle of recipients as possible. Considering the aim of the project, which was not only the diagnosis of the situation but also the proposition of a concrete, adequate and trusted help, it was necessary to

guarantee balance in the partnership scheme. Therefore, the University of Wolverhampton, a strong scientific centre which has the experience in diagnosing the phenomenon of homelessness, formulated the project research concept. In the partnership it constituted the only scientific centre, which provided research coherence and enabled the use of the experience from the previous projects and actions realised within the subject of homelessness. The remaining partner institutions, which were private training institutions, social welfare centres, and nongovernmental institutions, which operate *inter alia* for the benefit of excluded people and conducting the activities within the scope of direct support, have the experience necessary for the realisation of the second phase of the project – workshops. Owing to their previous activity, they can propose the most adequate support on the subject, and, acting in concrete conditions, they can test its effectiveness. Considering the adopted construction of the project, the support was decided to be implemented in the form of workshops, though, giving the possibility of choosing from the proposed subjects. It will enable the avoidance of a situation in which the theme would be artificially imposed, as it would not be effective. It finds its justification not only in the lack of knowledge on the phenomenon of homelessness among children and youth *a priori* (before the project realisation), but also in the characteristics of each country, in which the *faces* of homelessness are definitely different, and also in association with the local aid and institutional environment, in which the research was realised and the situation was diagnosed. During the research, a complex review of state policy and the regulations on aid for children and youth experiencing such a state in each country enabled the drawing concrete conclusions, which will also be taken into consideration while preparing the form of support for institutions. Owing to that, the proposed subjects of the workshops and their evaluation after being realised will enable an international comparison of the expected aid forms in the particular countries of the project.

While analysing the situation of the functioning of the partnership itself, the feature that was worth noticing was its hierarchy, which, however, allows the flexible and democratic realisation of the undertaken actions. These features translate into the achievement of the very good effects of this project realisation. As the coordinator is a scientific institution, it is considered by the partners to be an *expert* in this area. It was of great significance in a situation in which the research tools were being prepared, where a constant and very intensive cooperation between the partners and the coordinator presenting particular versions of research method was observed. The partners were willing to share their experience, and those comments were taken into account in particular elements of methodology, which enabled the partner

institutions to become convinced that they were treated *partner-like*. This element of management of the project realisation was fruitful in the effective and quick preparation of the research plan and the particular interview questionnaires as well as the conducted research. Also, the content-related support of the coordinator while the interviews were being conducted helped the partner institutions (which had no previous experience in the realisation of a research project) with their efficient conduct. Similarly, a complete and wide information flow at every stage of project realisation resulted in the clarity of the realised tasks and it made the project a model example of the good cooperation of the academe with the practical sphere.

CONCLUSION

Effective international partnership is a guarantee of the realisation of the planned activities. Undertaking difficult issues, through a careful diagnosis of certain problems, can be fruitful only in an environment that gives complete comprehension of the aim and the realised activities. A key element is also the efficient management of the entire process, emphasising the significance and importance of each institution engaged in the project realisation. The presented example of the program *Children Rough Sleepers* gives the basis for an indication of the key elements enabling a solution to difficult social problems. The co-participation of the world of science and practice does not have to lead to tensions and a lack of understanding, but is based on the knowledge and experience of each subject – can contribute to the proposition of concrete, adequate and necessary solutions. The role of a coordinator is of key significance in this respect, and does not consist in emphasising their casting vote, but the ability to choose and combine the most necessary elements of knowledge and experience in all of the subjects involved in the project realisation.

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Summary

Homelessness among children and youth is a profoundly disturbing phenomenon, and its dimensions are difficult to diagnose unambiguously. Owing to the complexity of the factors determining the emergence of this phenomenon, its individual course in each case, and the diversity of the ways of getting out of it, in-depth research in this scope has to be conducted. It is also necessary to scrutinise the phenomenon from different viewpoints – the one of young people who experience this state, as well as the institutions dealing with the solution and prevention of this problem. The aim of this paper is to present the results of research on the phenomenon of homelessness among children and youth realised within the scope of the project Children Rough Sleepers (The Daphne III Programme) and to elaborate on the role which multi-institutional partnerships can fulfil in the area of social problems that are difficult to solve, using funds from the EU budget.

Key words: homelessness, children, partnerships

FAMILY IN POSTMODERN SOCIETY

INTRODUCTION

The postmodern era, which we live in, is characterised by the demand for freedom. One person's freedom ends where another person's freedom begins. The idea of tolerating another person's freedom is not new; it has its roots in the works of Thomas Hobbes whose political philosophy stands at the very beginning of the early modern period.

The moral rules are strictly purposeful; they ensure balance – arrestment, which is in the best interest of all members of the world community. The fight against each other, selfishness and immorality are eventually to the detriment of the one who disturbs the balance.

The 20th century, face to face with tragic events, brought forth a new concept of the world opening up the options of substantive quest for the essence of mankind – its domesticity, concentration and responsibility. Born into the time and space continuum of one's life, human beings are subject to the life movement. The resource of potential for good and meaningful living, not only for the present but also – and above all – for future generations, is found in a family. Family is the environment where one can find the option and resource of a free relationship to each other, dignity, trust and self-confidence.

FAMILY IN POSTMODERN SOCIETY

Our time and space continuum and the hot postmodern presence in the early 21st century has been pre-signed and fulfilled with the statement of Friedrich Nietzsche. We are bridging over; our performance is just good enough for today, however we always have slightly higher demands for ourselves tomorrow. This is how we have become a tool of volition and reification of ourselves – the reification is obvious at every moment of our lives.

Our thought is imaginary, drawing on Cartesian philosophy with a strict “clare et distincte” requirement for clear and distinctive thinking.

Entities (Seiendes) in our imagination are thrown in front of us in the form of objects having their particular shape with the option of being present at hand and with the potential of being owned by our mind.

We are forged in the current methodology and are hardly able to think of the things we cannot imagine. We unwillingly succumb to a certain pattern and conceive our world on the basis of this pattern. We seem to be stuck in a kaleidoscopic postmodern world with a growing difficulty to perceive the substance, thereby losing the access and opportunity to be in the natural world and to live naturally there.

The world itself has become a space for phenomena. On the other hand, the world cannot be reduced to a mere entity, yet we all are “being-in-the-world” through the entities; we “are” in the world. Through the entities, we also perceive our everyday nature and the need for the concern (care).

A human being, predestined in the concreteness of their ex-sistence (meaning the emergence in the uniqueness) is born into the world thereby adapting to a certain social group, given a space of home and an opportunity for domesticity.

Home is therefore related to the term POLIS – the Ancient Greek term for “city” or “city-state”, which does not only denote a social concept within the meaning of “citizenship”. It also refers to the Ancient Greek verb PELEIN – to stay.

To understand the wider meaning of “home” and domesticity of a human being, it is necessary to go back to the Ancient roots from which our culture grows. Heraclitus of Ephesus saw home as a fiery centre of the world; yet for Aristotle the meaning of the word “polis” is based on the principle of a large family meaning the individual existence in a society which is a part of the world as a whole based on a principle of functioning and law of the whole without any margin, with no option of defining, grasping, weighing, measuring or any other instantiation.

Family, the particular family of a particular person, is a phenomenon in a way – a phenomenon sticking out of the background to reveal itself. If we want to understand a phenomenon from the phenomenological point of view, we need to question the latency and it is the very transition from latency to non-latency which will reveal the truth, called by the Ancient Greeks “aletheia”.

Truth revealed as non-latency, not subject to time changes of the modern, the postmodern or the global age which we, probably, head for.

Family in its foundation, from the archetypal age, has always provided home in the proper sense of the word “fiery centre”, as postulated by Heidegger and Hölderlin. It is a place of absolute acceptance and kindness, occasion and offer of good, even if accompanied by mistakes and drawbacks. Genuine kindness and acceptance within the meaning of “communio” make it possible for a human being to domesticate in its living, to form a basis for

the relation to “You” as emphasized by Martin Buber, and to form a basis for the future asymmetric responsibility as introduced by Levinas. An affable face and greater responsibility for the others than for oneself must be essentially lived through, experienced in concrete living, cannot be transmitted, ensured or arranged for. It must be experienced in one’s own life, in the essential experience of an urgent moment of the living itself.

Family, if functioning as a home, always offers this higher principle, and it must be realised that the saturation is transcendent – it reaches beyond the horizon, works across generations. A human being is intertwined with their ancestors and descendants right in the time and space of life, thereby creating a kind of generational chain with an option of not only genetic but also psycho-social-spiritual transmissions.

Family for a human being (in its uniqueness and originality) represents an organism which is able to carry on through generations in creating further and further spaces and options for the future time and space for the descendants’ lives, it is also a place for transmitting the model of managing various situational attacks in everyday life.

We are born into the time and space of our life – into the ex-sistence, we perceive the actuality of our life, the presence of time, at every moment we are required to implement our life movement in the context of our original life and we are confronted with anxiety.

Anxiety is our essential experience as early as in our birth. The ever-present demand of unsecured living is a source of life-long existential anxiety and the individuality of a human being is its projection screen with a potential of trans-generational transmissions. Anxiety and fear allow people to become a human being in the proper sense of the word. They open up the path to the authenticity and to the opportunity for domesticity (Hogenová 2005).

The demand to ex-sist in the world is connected with the openness and ability to relate oneself to the people around, to society and the whole of the world and therefore to minimise anxiety. Anxiety accompanies human beings throughout their space and time, and has a specific nature at certain stages of our life (Čálek 2004). It is childhood and the original family which is of great importance to future adaptability, to the upcoming challenges and demands related to anxiety in adulthood. Ex-sistence within the meaning of “living” is something thrown outside the safety of being, thrown into a relative solitude of individual existence, with responsibility to cope with anxiety and death.

The human “burdening freedom” is a movement of the inner heart as well as exteriority between “here and there”, allowing for the risk of loss, as the rival is life itself, so mighty and mysterious. Thus, the visualisation of the ancestors’ (parents’) openness to play is very important and irreplaceable for

the descendants (children). Through their authentic living, parents naturally guide their children to discipline, introduce them to authenticity, honesty, responsibility and thereby help their descendants in finding the options of free cognition.

The life movement of every human being in the family system runs in coordination with other family members, particularly in the periods of existential shocks (demands provoked by separation upheavals), the solidarity of the shocked – the shaky – comes to the fore.

The existential shock is related to the life referents (Patočka 1996). If we perceive life as the Heideggerian movement along the path of life from birth to death, the Time “between” has certain developmental stages and particular phases are intertwined through the concrete claims for events. It is a concreteness of the claim in the time and space of human life – typical thought and co-being with parents in childhood, emancipation in puberty and adolescence, work and concern in adulthood and the currently revealed horizon – telos – in old age.

Jan Patočka (1996), through the concept of three life referents, explains the irreplaceability of the path along which a soul becomes what it can become – unified, coherent, in the shape of a sharp-edged crystal.

In the first life movement – referent (anchorage – home), childhood, people satisfy themselves by explanations presented in the form of a story, they perceive their life space within boundaries, they do not endeavour, they only accept, succumb to the “vis major” of their parents. This is the very period when the love of parents is very important along with a secure, defining, embracing and tolerating family environment, protecting against the disproportionate demands of the world around, and mediating the very important feeling of acceptance of originality and overall setting of the child. Now, the human being is offered a necessary time, called “kairos” used for fulfilling the potential of growth and maturation. It is the time and space of the existence where the demands of the trans-generational line and the ambient world take place, maturity and growth in the sense of option of the life movement in the individuality and authenticity. The period of anchorage, which Patočka calls “home”, is perceived in the psycho-social-spiritual development of a human being as very important fundamentals of the future emotional anchorage and concentration, and forms a basis for option and openness to the authentic living.

Through their love, parents define a safe space for the development of a child, they draw on their own experience of childhood and parenthood for them is also a period of certain separation demands – demand for the role of the parent.

The process of maturation in children wakes up the consciousness of themselves, young people are addressed in various ways, the target is the thinking itself and independence from the intellectual point of view, not in terms of life itself. This release to an independent existence occurs later. It demands the ability to share the world with other people and responsibility.

In the second life movement – referent (work – struggle), people are presented with a double perspective – the first is that of an ordinary life, living in everyday concern and provision of livelihood through work. The other is a top view – the reflection of a certain situated-ness, assessment of one's deeds and responsibilities for the deeds and failures (responsibility for what I have failed to do, say, etc.).

Personal responsibility is very demanding; the sacrifice is in the authenticity of life.

In the context of a family and family pattern, the opportunity given to children is in the perception of the gift of everyday life, the transmission of boldness and integrity and sufficient courage to include death in every minute of one's existence. Our continuous dialogue with ancestors and descendants gives us the opportunity to sacrifice ourselves. This is the inevitable fate of all parents and their descendants.

In what other way may a young person at the beginning of adulthood fulfil the demand of "life movement" as postulated by Patočka: work, struggle, defence of their existence? Parents feeling good about the anchored adulthood of their child have an easier path to the horizon of their life and would have more integrity in not being afraid of death.

In the third life movement – referent (the absolute) – people, according to Patočka (1996), explicitly relate to the whole, here existence finally reaches its sense, where people are not afraid of their own finiteness – death, because they disclose the referent which makes sense in all the aspects, all the being as well as non-being, existence and non-existence, sense and non-sense. This disclosure is aletheic, disclosing and incommunicable, it is the original experience which everyone must go through, it cannot be passed on and, in fact, communicated either. The third life movement is only possible if a human being is on the limits of his/her life experience. To understand the meaning, metaphors may only be of use, not the verifiable (measurable, manifestable) approach to a certain thing. It is transcendence over the horizon, time is experienced authentically, and things in lives are not determining. Emptiness forms the background of meaningfulness, the emptiness lies beyond the horizon – telos. "Chórismos" according to Plato; "negative Platonism" according to Patočka; and "an opening of being" according to Heidegger.

The entire historical experience settles down in the human inner heart. Human life, as a movement along a path, is nothing but answering from the offered possibilities/options and values where people constantly choose the proper ones. The values become real through the process of assessment. According to Heidegger (Heidegger 1996), a human being needs something outside themselves because they are in constant risk of getting lost. The essence of life in the phenomenological context is given; it is the beginning – “arché”. This beginning is not conceived nor chosen by people, it is instead given beforehand. According to Heidegger, it is a disposition to mobility, with a significant trans-generational transmission.

The phenomenological perspective of a human being is – in a way – an archetypal time and space continuum, where the presence is intertwined with the past, where everything is interconnected.

It is a space inhabited by the living as well as the dead without any difference, reigned by the “time of sacred continuance”. Yet, it is also a dimension where one cannot deny feeling the absolute personal responsibility for the destiny of the whole.

Patočka’s (1996) history-conscious mankind lives through its relation to what transcends the entity.

Family and its member “inhabit” this space. This space is reigned by a generic time which encompasses the living members as well as the deceased and those who are to be born.

Human perception is not point-based, we live in temporality – the living and have lived temporality which functions essentially and also resonates essentially (Hogenová 2008). Temporality has a vital role specifically in the context of a family. Home is created by the family if and only if people living at home have a common past, presence and planned future. This means, they all live in a common “Dasein”. They plan their life by assigning and allocating the similar or identical importance to a given presence. Of course, there are always some differences, they are inherent in the specific Dasein, yet there is something that unifies all the family and home members.

„I” participates in time thus developing its own movement: Dasein, which is not only the development of its own time, it is a Dasein of all entities appearing in the world community. Now, Dasein becomes an access to the deepest source of life in each person. The world community is the home of all different people, otherness as a whole without any margin – enabling the identical, the unified. It enables “Aghaton” – good, which is implemented in the vocation for entering the world community, it engages and summons us to Dasein along the path of our life from birth, through the contracting future, to the life horizon, death – “Telos”. A human being is born and there-

by implements the individuation potential of becoming an individual, at the same time he/she becomes a member of a certain community which he/she was born into. The community for the newly born is formed by his/her closest relatives, i.e. mother, father, then it widens to a broader space – polis (society) which is a part of the whole of the world thereby establishing the context of space as a part of the human existence in time-and-space.

The generic time of a human being is not only his/her presence but also his/her ancestors who implemented their life movement in the framework of their individualisation and who passed beyond the horizon, as well as the descendants who are not yet born, i.e. those who will be born in their own time and space continuum.

Time and space where human existence takes place nowadays – in the postmodern era, is a time that passes by the past, it is a linear time where the option of creating relationships fades out and the sense of existence is endangered. Such a world is no longer inhabited by beings and things that were once intertwined through their mutual relations, and the meaning is nowadays only defined by a mere casuistry.

There is also another time-and-space continuum. It is an emptied time, a no-name, dark dimension of depersonalised actuality, where the meanings are determined by a mere finality and the sense of existence is not revealed through a relation nor remains hidden, but it is lost in the no-name time. This dimension is experienced in the accumulation of wealth and the contest for prestige. A human being loses access to the beings in their uniqueness, is encircled by things which are needed for one's life to manifest that he/she "is", "exists". Nevertheless, through owning, the things become mere present-at-hand objects, and the beings become depersonalised, alienated to themselves and to others. A non-authentic person, immature in his/her egoism, remains at the level of reification, in owning the things and eventually becomes a thing him/herself. He/she has a permanent need to see his/her objects – to grasp them with eyes and hands in order to manifest the ownership and also to assure him/herself of his/her existence. His/her living is becoming forward-oriented, the presence is not experienced personally, everything is oriented towards the future and the human being loses themselves as a result. The consumer-oriented society and the consumer-oriented people project themselves through the things, completely lacking authenticity and are becoming rescendent (objectified).

As Hogenová (2008) suggested, the sense is not hidden, it is completely lost. We have forgotten that we forgot. We have forgotten twice...

Everyday life naturally encompasses the concern and provision of things, as a necessity required for survival. The risk inherent in the concern (care) is

the fall into self-oblivion, non-authenticity, reification – objectification, where even the very concern loses its meaning. It is typical of young people to raise questions, to mount resistance and rebellion with the aim of confirming the values.

The question arises as to whether the achievements really correspond to the expectations; but the questioning, reconciliation and desperation bring us back to the whole, back home. It is a return which is the third life movement, the very return to God.

The path does not lead through finding certainty, peace and balance. It is rather a jump to absurdity. The absurdity consists in the lack of any tangible, reported certainty.

Thus, human existence is linked with anxiety – God is silent.

Home is linked with a demand for authenticity and boldness. When the demand is satisfied, it opens up the opportunity for domesticity with other people in the whole of the world.

The Ancient Greek concept of *IZONOMIA* (balance) between reason, boldness and indulgence is the basis for authentic human existence. Heraclitus' image of a child moving gamepieces in a game is unsurpassed and actually unsurpassable. The same idea is exemplified in a family gathered around a game, with children, parent and grandparents all involved in the game. The generation gaps and differences between sub-systems vanish for a moment and an opportunity arises for the family as a whole to enter the area of "cross" when all the participants find themselves in a time which can be identified as "GENERATIONAL TIME". At this – almost sacred – moment, every member of the family is firmly bound to all the others, in the framework of the cross, he/she is as close to and as far from the others to the same extent – the sufficient closeness and distance to the specific individual life movement. Now, opportunity and space are offered to satisfy the demand of separation processes. Children are given a chance to "spread their wings" to explore the sphere of independence and to satisfy the demand of the 2nd life referent (as postulated by Patočka (1996)), parents are allowed to stay in "generous benevolence" and grandparents are offered a path to the confidence that their days have been fulfilled, and are encouraged to follow the path beyond the horizon of their lives.

The demand of a life crisis in the sense of necessary individuation passage, through a dark, inanimate timelessness offers the opportunity for turning, waiting in the darkest point of burdensome situated-ness. Here, in the demand of this moment, the idea may be re-born again. The idea is present at the beginning of every deed, in every meeting with oneself, with another person, in the least important situations. Only if the human mind succeeded

in rediscovering the whole of the Cosmos something could change within us, in society, in the universe.

When we realise that an individual is a member of a family and the family – with its emotional pole – represents an organism which reacts very sensitively to changes in society or situations outside the home area – the emotional pole, as a protected and safe area for all those who inhabit the area, we would find ourselves in phenomenological meditation on time and space continuum.

Home is a whole, in order to be, it must emerge constantly, it must be born on and on in its originality with no imitations. This is the home which, in the basis of human existence, opens up the chance for arresting (balancing) existence, and subsequently the polis and the universe as well.

CONCLUSION

Meditations on the importance of family and home must present the question for the whole of society, not only in individual parts – but in practical life purposes. An ecological way of living, nowadays frequently discussed, also applies in terms of family and relationships. Through the accumulation of things, their application, use and replacement, we can provide momentary well-being to our descendants. Yet, through the common experience of time in the family circle, generic time, we bless not only the currently living but even more those who are to come.

Our individual existence develops an unlimited wealth of life thanks to the relationships which we establish with ourselves, with others, with Nature, the environment, things, and on the whole, part of which we are (Pelcová 2001).

A human being is privileged in the world order through logos, which are a gift of the perception of world order, the search for truth and the essence of things, which are all only accessible through spiritual insight – reason. This allows understanding, which is something completely different from knowledge.

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Summary

Meditations on the importance of family and home must present the question for the whole of society, not only in individual parts – but in practical life purposes. An ecological way of living, nowadays frequently discussed, also applies in terms of family and relationships. Through the accumulation of things, their application, use and replacement, we can provide momentary well-being to our descendants. Yet, through the common experience of time in the family circle, generic time, we bless not only the currently living but even more those who are to come. A human being is privileged in the world order through logos, which are a gift of the perception of world order, the search for truth and the essence of things, which are all only accessible through spiritual insight – reason. This allows understanding, which is something completely different from knowledge.

Keys words: family, family house, generation, security

COOPERATION OF EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS IN SOLVING PROBLEMS OF THE CONTEMPORARY FAMILY

FORMULATION OF THE ISSUE

In having the task of guaranteeing not only the survival but also the development of the younger generation, the family today is a priority of family social politics in Ukraine. Any society, regardless of the country, is interested in having families who not only provide material needs for the child, but also cultivate the child's cultural-educational level of development. Thus, the family, as a fundamental social institution of the development and formation of a personality, is one of the objects of current social pedagogy work in Ukraine. Taking into account certain negative elements of the process of globalisation and considering the current politico-economical situation in the country, scholars and pedagogy practitioners observe a sharp decrease in social communication interactions among family members and a change in social and family values, which in turn cannot positively enable the development and formation of the new generation. Then there follows an analysis of the role of including in the preparation of social pedagogues the benefits of a collaboration between educational and social institutions and thus providing up-to-date information on the on-going search and development of new approaches to solving the rearing issues of the contemporary family.

ANALYSIS OF LATEST RESEARCH AND PUBLICATIONS

Various aspects of collaboration between the family and social institutions have been researched by pedagogues, psychologists, and sociologists, among them: T. Aleksieienko, V. Kravets, I. Rybalchenko, V. Picha, Ye. Siavavko, P. Shcherban, and many others. Preparation of social-pedagogical professionals to resolve the issue of family upbringing has become the focal point of scholarly schools under the direction of O. Bezpalko, I. Zvierieva, A. Kapska, and others.

FORMULATION OF THE GOALS OF THE ARTICLE

In considering the socio-cultural processes which inevitably influence the traditional understanding of the concept of the family, approaches of parents to the realisation of their upbringing functions that in turn create conflicts and problems – we will focus our attention on the appropriateness of the content of the professional preparation of social-pedagogues to enable them to provide assistance to families in crisis, the collaboration of educational and social institutions with the goal of foreseeing and overcoming the problems of the contemporary family – on the basis of the preparation of social pedagogues at Ukrainian Catholic University (UCU).

SUMMARY OF BASIC RESEARCH

The preparation of professionals to undertake social pedagogical activities in Ukraine, having undergone a complicated road of formation, has reached the status of being recognised and acknowledged and is today developing as a healthy system: there is an active development of scholarly schools of social pedagogy (O. Bezpalko, I. Zvierieva, A. Kapska, H. Laktionova, L. Mishchyk, V. Polishchuk, S. Kharchenko, and others); conceptual principles of preparing professionals in Social Pedagogy have been developed; the scholarly direction and code of the specialty Social Pedagogy have been registered; the different levels of requirements to achieve degrees in the field: bachelor (4 yrs.), master (1.5 yrs.), and candidate of sciences (3 yrs.) have been realised. Numerous valuable monographs, scholarly publications, textbooks, guides, scholarly-methodological recommendations in the field of Social Pedagogy have been published.

The preparation of professionals in Social Pedagogy in Ukraine, especially at UCU, is a gradual process. For the teaching staff of the Department of General and Social Pedagogy, entrusted with the educational process, the following issues are always relevant. What kind of a graduate in Social Pedagogy are we aiming for? How do we combine academic learning with practical work in the social sphere so that the UCU graduate has the desired competencies for effective performance on individual, interactive, and social levels?

It is understandable that such questions are actualised with the awareness that social-pedagogy has its inherent characteristics of development. *First of all*, it is open, since any system that has to work hand in hand with another, has to be open. *Secondly*, it is in a state of perpetual development: constantly perfected and restructured, since its development takes place in its interac-

tion with the social environment of concrete societies; it is the subject of the social politics of the country, the scholarly schools of social pedagogy, community organisations, and other spheres of socio-pedagogical activity. Therefore, the process of mastery of the socio-pedagogical professional cannot passively reflect social development. It has to be filled with active searching for new ways of forming the personality of the professional, who will be able to analyse, compare, change, foresee, remove and foretell negative social-pedagogical problems in society and will be able to work with various categories of the population. The greatest attention has to be accorded the family since it stands on the front line of socialisation.

Within this context significant weight is given to the teaching of subjects, whose contents are mainly centred on forming in students competencies of a practical-methodological character suitable for working with families. One of the essential professional characteristics of a graduate of Social Pedagogy is the ability to work under circumstances of informal interaction, to make contact and ensure accessible and purposeful mediation between the child and the family on the one hand, and society, state, and community institutions, on the other.

Today, the modern family is the subject of research of many disciplines. In the content of the preparation of pedagogues, we use a complex of scholarly research from the fields of psychology, sociology, history, demography, anthropology, etc. It is precisely this multidisciplinary approach which permits a total examination and analysis of the historical walk of social, economic, education-cultural aspects of the development of the family as a social institution, analysing the different changes in its structure, researching alterations in the interactions among family members, basically tracing changes in the acknowledged function of the family and thereby, alterations in the family's lifestyle.

In the structure of the educational professional programmes we accord great significance to subjects that form the foundations for understanding the concept of the family, family values, family upbringing, and parenthood. The students are first introduced to the concept of the family and family upbringing in theoretical courses, such as Pedagogy, Ethno-Pedagogy, and Sociology.

A deepening and broadening of the theoretical knowledge of the noted concepts take place within the framework of the key essential professional topic – Social Pedagogy. In the structure of this discipline there is the module “Family as the object of social-pedagogical activity” which in its turn captures the relation of three sub-headings. Further, we offer the contents of each of these sub-headings, taking into account the obvious theoretical practical experience of the research of specialists in Social Pedagogy (Bezpalko 2006;

Bezpalko 2009; Bezpalko, Zvierieva, Kyianytsia, Kuzminskyi 2007; Kapska 2005; Zvierieva 2007).

Sub-Heading 1: Place and role of the family in the socialisation process of the individual. Analysis of the functions and parameters of the family.

Family – a small dynamic group of people who live together and are connected by family relations (marriage, blood relationship, adoption, care) as well as by the commonality of the formation and satisfaction of socio-economic and other needs, and by a common moral responsibility.

Fundamental socialising functions of the family: providing for the physical and mental development and the development of abilities and potential possibilities; providing the child with a sense of security; formulating value orientations of an individual; mastering by the child of basic social norms.

Functions of the family as a social institution: homemaking–economic; reproductive; communicative, upraising, recreational, psychotherapeutic.

Basic parameters of the family: socio-cultural, socio-economical, hygienic, demographic.

Typology of families: according to general composition – (nuclear family, complex family, i.e., family of many generations), incomplete family, maternal family; according to the number of children – childless, few children, many children; according to unrelated children – caregiving, foster; according to family duration – young, middle, marriage age, mature; according to style of family – democratic, authoritarian; according to national composition – one nation, multi-national, with citizens from different countries, of people with various religious denominations; according to residence – urban, village, distant; according to material status – indigent, well-to-do, elite; according to the professional occupation of a couple – working, farmer; according to social status – social homology (same family), socially heterogeneous (not related); according to peculiar conditions of family life – student, distant, outside of marriage; according to quality of family interaction – fortunate families, unfortunate families, (families with lasting conflicts in the relationship of a couple, parents and children, families with alcohol or drug dependent members; families with a low moral-cultural level of parents; families with violence towards family members; families with imprisoned or sentenced members; families in which there are serious mistakes and gaps in the raising of children).

Parental characteristics: a couple's value orientations, parental rules and expectations, parental emotions, parental positions, parental responsibilities, style of family upbringing.

Types of family upbringing: secular, religious, elite, marginal and other.

Relationship with children: dictatorial, caring, peaceful co-existence, cooperation.

Typical problems and mistakes of parents in raising children are examined through two groups – incorrect expectations and actions of parents which are connected with influencing children with the whole set-up of the life of the family, their personal examples; incorrect anticipations and actions of parents which are related to their direct impact on the formation of the personality of the child.

Methods of raising the upbringing potentials of the family.

Sub-Heading 2: Contents of the socio-pedagogical work with the family.

The content and forms of socio-pedagogical work with a family are dependent on the grouping of the following elements: type of family, problems which exist in the family, the type of social institution which works with the family, and the direction of the professional preparation of the specialist who is serving the family.

Basic content of the social-pedagogical work with a family concerns the provision for the family of various forms of social services (social assistance and social services), rehabilitative or prophylactic work, social accompaniment of selected categories of families and a social assessment of troubled families. They are realised in the practical activities of the social pedagogues through the use of assessment methods and various forms of socio-pedagogical intervention, the selection of which is done on the basis of the above enumerated elements.

Sub-Heading 3. Forms of social-pedagogical work with families: *individual* – conversation, counseling, information sharing; counseling on a hotline telephone, letters; *group* – training, seminars, lectures, courses, consultations, family club, school for young parents, video-lectures, meetings with specialists, press conference, evening of questions and answers, etc. Massive – theme of the day (e.g., Mother's Day, Sport Family Day), a thematic week filled with cultural activities and events in local centres, etc.

Therefore, as we can see from the above quoted information, the educational course Social Pedagogy in the contents of the preparation of social pedagogues at UCU sets the theoretical-methodological foundations for the study of the family. Further study of the family happens in a practical-technological context. This is enabled by the following educational disciplines: prophylactics of family violence, innovative models of providing social services, the techniques of socio-pedagogical work with different types of families and family counseling. A common characteristic of the given educational processes is that the subjects are taught not only by specialists who possess theoretical-practical work experience, but also by invited staff members of social institutions with practical experience in working

with families. It is exactly this joint characteristic that makes the learning process a kind of cooperation between the educational institution and the social institutions of the city with the goal of formulating the readiness of young specialists to work on problems which the contemporary family encounters.

Problems encountered by modern families can be categorised according to the following conditions (Bulenko 2001):

- violation of the family's mechanism of adaptation to dynamic processes in socio-political and economic spheres;
- weakening of defense mechanisms (both material as well as psychological);
- a structural-functionary transformation of the family due to ambivalence or
- conflict in family roles;
- decline of the meaning of the family in the system of life values of the personality with further re-orientation of a significant number of youth towards extra-marital relationships and repeated marriages;
- degeneration of children-parents interaction, due to the inappropriateness and dogmatism of the parental roles;
- orientation of the couple on a small family;
- heightening of misunderstandings among partners in the orientation of the family towards democratic (from the side of the female) or patriarchal (from the side of the male) development;
- dysfunctional development of the family evidenced by: tendency towards dominance,
- a struggle for authority between both partners, disagreement on the roles of behaviour,
- intolerance to adaptation of established norms, manipulations by partner or children, ignorance of the needs and emotions of the members of the family;
- complications in family adaptation of a young marriage due to inadequate pre-wedding expectations, heightened expectations of the partner;
- instability of life plans due to conditions of economic instability.

The work of the urban institutions is essentially oriented on families who are undergoing the above-noted problems. Families placed under care are underprivileged or troubled ones: those with many children, families of migrants and refugees, those who are raising children with special needs, indigent families, and families of single or teenage mothers. It is obvious that exactly that person who is providing assistance to the family can best present the nature of such work to students – future social pedagogues. UCU's scholarly-pedagogical staff greatly values this collaboration.

Let us look at the variety of services which are presented to students by the staff members of social institutions, and who also eventually engage the students themselves into their activities.

SOCIAL SERVICES TO FAMILIES

In the process of presentation and learning of this type of social pedagogical activity, the students gain skills in giving quality and valid information to families on:

- the variety of subsidies, guaranteed by the state according to existing law;
- all sorts of possible material support (clothes, medicine, food, health care for members of the family, etc.) guaranteed by the state;
- psychological assistance for the family in difficult life situations;
- counseling services.

Special significance is attributed to the mechanism of explaining benefits which are given to young families, single or underage mothers. A separate branch of social services focuses on work with youth who are planning to get married.

Preparation of youth for family life foresees a program of efforts which are directed at forming the skills for a healthy lifestyle, family planning, preservation of reproductive health, the birth of healthy babies, the development of family traditions.

It is important to provide on-going updates of the basic information on the existing network of social agencies in a city, which provide cultural-educational and physical health promoting services to members of a family, simultaneously exposing and providing them with styles of meaningful recreation.

Socio-rehabilitative work with the family. In presenting socio-rehabilitative work with a family, the main focus of social service staff is oriented on the analysis of the characteristics of providing counseling and holding psychotherapeutic conversations with the parents, a couple, and children; training activities, which can be carried out with the married couples, as well as separately with men and women, joint training with parents and children, seminars, video-lectures, meetings with specialists, self-help groups, etc.

Special attention is paid to completing assessments and developing a treatment plan, especially when the family is older in age than the counselor; aspects worthwhile for the counselor to consider when providing assistance to parents in resolving issues of family upbringing. In analysing the

meetings with young parents who are just awaiting the birth of a child, problematic issues are examined which eventually emerge, such as – socio-psychological, psycho-pedagogical assistance to parents in upbringing children of various age groups with consideration of the individual-psychological characteristics of each child, preparation of the child for school, application of various forms and methods of family upbringing, the resolution of difficult problems in the mutual interaction of parents and children, the decisions of legal issues of such mutual relations.

Socio-prophylactic work with a family. The given form of work is broadly represented by the work of social services in a city, and therefore students have the opportunity to learn about current information and its realistic functioning. This form of activity is orientated towards the strengthening of the institution of family by forming in the population an understanding of the family as a basic value in the life of a person:

- preparation of youth for family life, a responsible parenthood;
- propagation of a healthy lifestyle among family members;
- psycho-pedagogical education of couples on issues of building constructive interactions and family upbringing;
- forewarning of typical reasons for separation.

On-going work with the family. This form of socio-pedagogical work needs quite a few psycho-pedagogical competencies. The staff of social services orients the students to:

- methods of assessing concrete situations in a family, an analysis of the situation, evaluation and determination whether it is unacceptable or dangerous;
- assessment of direct intrusion into the situation;
- developing and agreeing on a plan of compatible action by the social pedagogue and the family;
- direct support of clients during the time of on-going work;
- completion of work and its evaluation.

Social services to the family. The given form of social-pedagogical activities of social institutions also foresees a series of special methods and mechanisms with which the expert familiarises the students. Among these are the following:

- disclosure of a needy family;
- introduction to the family, collection of information – an assessment, formulation of a positive motivation for working with a social pedagogue;
- overcoming the resistance of separate members of the family regarding joint work with the social pedagogue by explaining its possibilities and addressing the positive potential of the family;

- reaching an agreement with the family for joint socio-pedagogical work, the drafting and signing of an agreement between the social pedagogue and the family;
- overcoming the effects of the family's misfortune, removal of its sources, the stabilisation and correction of interrelations, the establishment of ties of the family with micro- and macro-environments;
- prophylactics of the residuals of the misfortune, directing the family towards independent resolution of problems;
- exit of the social pedagogue from the family, completion of the term of the activity of the contract;
- analysis of the results of the socio-pedagogue's services;
- providing the family with proposals on a variety of ways of overcoming possible problems.

Assessment of the home environment by the social pedagogue foresees:

- establishment of a violation of human rights;
- the establishment of interaction of the social pedagogue with family members with the goal of encouraging them to overcome misfortune in the family;
- averting the residuals of a human rights violation in the family;
- informing the proper authorities about evidence of a human rights violation in the family;
- survey and examination of the everyday living situation of the family, an evaluation of the completion by members of the family of recommendations of the social pedagogue as to prevention of human rights violations in the family;
- concern about the deprivation of parental rights of the parents, separation of the child from the family; directing the victims of family violence to crisis centres, shelters for women and underage children;
- recruit appropriate medical personnel, psychologists, lawyers and other professionals to help resolve problems in the family;
- contribute to a public campaign on raising awareness in Ukrainian society about the signs and existence of family violence.

Thus, as we see, social services involve a variety of forms of activities which in most cases are ahead of the development of the theoretical part of social pedagogy. To compensate this vacuum we have the possibility of close cooperation with the staff of various social services in the city of Lviv, especially the Lviv Educational Foundation, the Lviv Social Service Centre for Families, Children and Youth, and many others.

In the process of providing educational activities, concrete tasks of a practical nature are delegated to the student, as for example: the creation of a curriculum for providing pedagogical knowledge to young parents; the selection of psycho-pedagogical materials to provide counseling to on the

issue of social upbringing; the development and presentation of motivational information to parents with the goal of engaging them in socio-upbringing processes in pre-school and general educational institutions.

Practical activities from professional courses in educational programmes for preparing social pedagogy specialists, have both a practical as well as a personal direction. Lecturers, in an understanding with the invited staff of social services, diversify them with new experience in resolving typical as well as issues born in our times, such as distant relations, in cases where parents and children live in distant places and communicate with each other on Skype.

We believe that such an approach – having a part of classes in collaboration with social services – enables our students to form their own individual style of professional behaviour, to gain a complex of current methods for working with families, to understand the mechanisms of performing this or that task, and for social services to prepare for themselves worthy professionals who are familiar with contemporary approaches in working with a personality, a family, or a group. Working in such a style, and having as a consultant a staff member of social services or another social institution, our students will be ready to perform a critical analysis of the problems which emerge in the process of upbringing as well as be able to professionally provide: (a) assistance to parents in resolving the mutual interaction with children of various ages; (b) provide necessary information as to the solution of complicated issues which emerge in the process of the socialisation of an individual.

CONCLUSION

In summation, one can come to the conclusion that the system of the professional preparation of social pedagogues in the area of preparing them for working with families at UCU is open to working collaboratively with social institutions of the city and the region. Such collaboration enables a diversity of the educational program of the preparation of students by new approaches, module methods which address current needs both of the families as well as the social sphere of society, which in turn enhances the development of professional thinking in students and the perfection of their socio-pedagogical competencies.

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Summary

In the article the author presents an analysis of the theoretical and practical experience of resolving problems in a family by the specialists of the socio-pedagogical sphere of Ukraine from the time of independence. The family and family upbringing is examined from the angle of interdisciplinary research. A module of a professional program of the preparation of specialists for the area of social services which is oriented towards a detailed study of the family as an object of social-pedagogical work. Current issues of the institution of the family are examined. Through concrete forms of socio-pedagogical activities, the possibilities of resolving current problems of family through the collaboration of educational and social institutions are examined.

Key words: family, professional preparation of social pedagogues for work with families, aspects of collaboration with educational and social institutions

INTER-SECTORAL COOPERATION FOR SOLVING THE PROBLEMS OF WORKING PARENTS - AD HOC ACTIVITIES OR LONG-TERM POLICY?

INTRODUCTION

In Poland there are 15,573,000 professionally active people, including 8,562,000 men and 7,011,000 women (Central Statistical Office 2014a: 83). To a major extent, the working people are parents who experience difficulty in combining their professional and family roles. This refers both to parents of newborn children and those caring for older children ([http://stat.gov.pl/28.08.2014a, b](http://stat.gov.pl/28.08.2014a,b)) or other dependants. The difficulties in combining their duties results in 15% of men and 23% of women deciding not to have children, and for every second woman at the age of 25–44 the care of a child is the main reason for inactivity in the labour market (Czapiński, Panek 2013: 132). In solving these issues legal tools become helpful, namely those related to the rights of the employees-parents and the regulations regarding flexible forms of employment, also as regards institutions, i.e. access to care facilities. In that context also very important are views on the division of roles and duties in a family. The purpose of this article is to present the instruments which facilitate combining professional work and parenthood in light of the existing legal and institutional solutions, as well as actions undertaken for the performance of the task and its promotion.

LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL INSTRUMENTS WHICH ENABLE COMBINING PROFESSIONAL AND FAMILY ROLES

Employees-parents may avail of the solutions set out in the Labour Code (LC), referring directly or indirectly to combining professional work and family duties, particularly child care. These are legal instruments regulating the rights related to parenthood, solutions in the form of flexible forms of employment and flexible forms of working time organisation.

The rights related to parenthood include:

- a ban on terminating an employment agreement during pregnancy or maternity leave (Article 177 LC);

- basic maternity leave – intended for child care in the first months after birth. The length of the leave depends on the number of children born at one time and may last from 20 weeks (in the case of one child) to 37 weeks (in the case of five or more children). The obligatory length of leave for a female employee is 14 weeks, whereas the remaining part may be used by the employee-father of the child (Article 180 LC);
- additional maternity leave granted directly after the utilisation of maternity leave, lasting from 6 to 8 weeks (depending on the number of children born at one time). Granting such leave may be requested in whole or in part by either the mother or the father of a child (Article 1821 LC);
- parental leave of 26 weeks, which is provided to both of the child's parents (Article 1821a LC);
- paternity leave of 2 weeks applicable to an employee-father of a child, granted by the time the child completes their 12th month of life (Article 182³ LC);
- child care leave (Article 186 LC) granted to employees-parents in order to personally care for a child, lasting 36 months and must be utilised by the time the child completes their 5th year of life. Starting from 1 October 2013, one month of such leave must be used by the other parent. If the given parent fails to avail of such leave, the leave is lost (Act of Ministry of Labour and Social Policy from 19th September 2013);
- breast-feeding breaks provided for a female employee, which can be taken during working time (Article 187 LC);
- exemption from work of 2 days within a calendar year provided to an employee upbringing a child up to the completion of 14 years of age (Article 188 LC).

The tools which enable combining professional and family life also include flexible forms of work. These are:

- tele-work – professional work done outside of the employer's registered office, in which the employee submits the results of their work to the employer through electronic means (Article 67⁵⁻¹⁷ LC). As regards the place of performing the tele-work, the following differentiation may be made: tele-work at home (either on a permanent basis or temporarily) – done by an employee at home (permanently or alternately at home and at the office) and communication with the employer through IT technology, tele-work done outside of the registered office of the company but in fixed places such as a tele-centre, a tele-cottage, a tele-village or nomadic (mobile) tele-work done at a location where the employee is present at the given moment, e.g. on the way, at the customer's, keeping in contact with the employer through communicative means (Wiśniewski 2007: 50-55; Szpunar 2007: 48; Szluz 2013: 263);

- job-sharing – sharing a workstation between at least two employees, who are “jointly responsible for one FTE” (Machol-Zajdel 2008: 401). This is a modern form of work, in which the time, duties and liabilities are shared. Such a form of work enables the maintenance of qualifications and job on the one hand, and a higher engagement in family duties on the other (Machol-Zajdel 2008: 401-402);
- part-time work – working fewer hours than the FTE set out in the labour regulations. It enables adjustment of the working hours to the needs of the employee, which enables combining professional work and family duties, particularly for women who return to work after having given birth to a child;
- substitution work – specific-time agreement entered into for the time of absence of another employee;
- temporary work – specific-time work or performance of a specific job at the employer-user, in which staff is employed through a temporary work agency;
- work at home – a form of combining child care with professional work (Sochańska-Kawiecka, Kołakowska-Seroczyńska, Morysińska 2009: 35-36; <http://crzl.gov.pl>).

Tools that enable combining professional and family roles also include flexible forms of working time organisation, which are:

- equivalent working time system – extended daily working hours of an employee balanced with shorter working hours or days off (Article 135–137 LC);
- interrupted working time system – work on a given day is divided into two periods, with the break in-between not counting as working time (Article 139 LC);
- specific-task working system – the working time is regulated by the tasks set out by the employer. The employee may perform the task at any convenient time (Article 140 LC);
- variable working time system – full time job within hours determined by the employee within the working timeframes set out by the employer. The employees independently determine the starting and ending time of their full time job (Article 140¹ LC);
- individual working time system – it is determined at the written request of an employee and adjusted to their individual needs within the applicable full/part-time job (Article 142 LC);
- shortened working week system – introduced at the written request of an employee, which enables them to work for less than 5 days a week, however they will work more than 8 hours a day (Article 143 LC);

- weekend work – part-time work, solely on Fridays, Saturdays and Sundays, introduced at the written request of an employee with regard to the individual needs of the employee (Article 144 LC);
- reduced working hours system – introduced at the request of an employee entitled to child care leave. This simultaneously combines professional activity with child care (Article 1867 LC) (Sochańska-Kawiecka, Kołakowska-Seroczyńska, Marysińska 2009: 37-40).

An important role in combining professional and family roles is fulfilled by care institutions, which ensure care for those children whose parents are professionally active. The operation of such institutions is regulated by the Act of 4 February 2011 on Child Care at the Age of up to 3 Years (day care centres and child clubs); and the Act of 7 September 1992 on the Educational System (nursery schools). In Poland, the availability of such institutional forms of care is limited, mainly due to an insufficient number of outlets and places created therein. Currently, the number of institutional forms for care for small children is still insufficient compared to the needs of the working parents. At the end of 2013 there were in operation 1,526 outlets caring for children up to 3 years of age, which jointly had at its disposal 59,600 places. At the end of 2013 the institutions were attended by 55,500 small children, whereas within the whole year – 87,600 children (<http://stat.gov.pl/28.08.2014c>). As regards nursery school type outlets, there were 21,497 outlets operating in the 2013/2014 school year, which had at its disposal 986,300 places at the actual nursery schools and 2,300 at nursery school complexes and 47,100 at nursery outlets (Central Statistical Office 2014b: 259). Not all of the children avail of such form of care. In the 2012/2013 school year, nursery school was attended by 59.3% children at the age of 3–4 years, and 71.6% children at the age of 3–6 years (Central Statistical Office 2013: 61).

ACTIONS FOR COMBINING PROFESSIONAL AND FAMILY ROLES

The above listed legal and institutional instruments are intended to facilitate the combination of professional and family life by working parents. In practice, the tools seem to be hardly effective and only slightly enable performance of professional and parental tasks. From the report entitled *Combining Family and Professional Roles by Women and Men* it appears that parents often face a difficult dilemma – whether to choose professional or family life. In the opinion of the report authors, there are no mechanisms or instruments to satisfactorily enable performance of parental tasks without the

necessity of giving up professional ambitions. This is related to the opinion that professional work requires sacrifice of family life, whereas devoting one's time solely to family life represents depreciation of one's position in the labour market. This is translated into employment-related decisions, which are different depending on gender. Women decide to start a professional carrier less frequently than men. And also, women usually completely resign from work within the first years of maternity or choose less satisfactory work with regard to form or type. Conversely, men work overtime, which may result in limited contact with children (Sochańska-Kawiecka, Kołakowska-Seroczyńska, Marysińska 2009: 120).

Differences between engagement in care duties by professionally active women and men seem to be confirmed by the data of the Central Statistical Office (Central Statistical Office 2012). Moreover, differences in the scope of use of parental rights are reflected, as well as different use of the flexible working time system. The results of research among hired staff allow the formulation of a statement that flexible working time organisation is not a popular solution. The majority of the hired staff (87.6%) has fixed times for starting and ending work. Most often, fixed working hours apply more to women (89.3%) than to men (86%); to the residents of villages (90.7%) than the cities (86.1%); people working in the public sector (90.6%) than in the private sector (86%); and people working full time (88.9%) than part-time (68.2%). Only 4.6% of staff, and in that number 5.2% men and 3.9% women, avail of the possibility of working a specific number of hours a per month, with the use of the so called "bank of hours", in which is kept information on the time worked. Such staff are more often city residents rather than village residents (5.1% to 3.5%), and private rather than public sector employees (4.8% to 4.2%). To a slightly higher extent, staff use the possibility of determining flexible working hours in one day, within the timeframe set out by the employer. In practice, this means working a determined number of hours, but the starting and ending time of the work is determined by the employee. Such a solution is used by 5.7% of staff (including 6.3% men and 5% women), more often they are city residents than village residents (6.3% to 4.4%), and private rather than public sector staff (6.5% to 4.2%). Individual determination of one's working plan refers to 1.6% of hired staff and to an extent more men than women (1.8% to 1.4%), city residents rather than village residents (1.9% to 1%), private rather than public sector staff (2.1% to 0.8%). However, the data shows that better possibilities for flexible working time organisation are provided to part-time employees – such possibilities are used by 30.4% of people; whereas 6.4% of hired staff is working part-time, including women (9.2%) rather than men (3.9%). In the case of women

working part time, 29.7% may adjust working hours to their private lives, compared to 8.4% women declaring such a possibility when working full time. 12.6% of men may flexibly organise their working time (Central Statistical Office 2012: 29-30). In the context of child care the possibility of changing the working hours seems important for the working parents (start and end) owing to family reasons or taking a day off without using their holiday leave. Such solutions may only be applied to 21.2% of staff (excluding people whose work enables flexibility this figure drops to 16%), 38.3% may apply such solutions only in exceptional cases, whereas 40.5% cannot avail of such solutions at all (Central Statistical Office 2012: 32).

Personally caring for a child is related to the complete or partial resignation from professional work. Care is also enabled through child care leave, which may be availed of by both parents. In Poland, such leave is primarily taken by women. Data from the Central Statistical Office shows that the right to child care leave of at least 1 month was taken by 38.4% of women and 1.2% of men (Central Statistical Office 2012: 39). Combining professional work and child care is also possible through working time reduction. Further data from the Central Statistical Office shows that 12.7% of people caring for a child up to 8 years of age declared a reduction of working time for at least 1 month. More frequently this is done by women than men (22.5% to 3%) (Central Statistical Office 2012: 40). Another solution in the absence of the possibility to simultaneously care for a child and work is the complete or temporary resignation from work. Such a solution was chosen by 5.5% of staff, however, more often by women than men (9.8% to 1.1%). To a larger extent this referred to young women with a lower level of education, which may be related to the rather unstable nature of their employment which prevents the use of child care leave (Central Statistical Office 2012: 42-43). In the first quarter of 2014 owing to child care and disabled care 95,000 people were working part time, of which 89.5% were women. Due to family and housekeeping duties 1,547,000 professionally inactive people were not looking for work, mostly women who represented 87.7% (Central Statistical Office 2014a: 103, 131).

Beside the legal aspect of activities for facilitating the combination of professional and family roles with regard to parental rights and the flexibility of the form and time of work, important is also support related to providing institutional care for a child when parents are at work. Research by the Central Statistical Office shows, however, that only a slight number of households with children up to 14 years of age take advantage of care institutions. Only 31.8% parents use care services, mostly for 6–8 hours a day. This refers more often to city residents (2 in 5 households) rather than village residents (1 in 5

households). Use of the services of organised care outlets is also different depending on the education of a mother. One can see that the higher the education of a mother, the more the family uses the support of institutional care, particularly for longer than 6 hours per day. Those from households which do not use care services solve the problem of child care by using the unpaid support of relatives or friends, or giving up work completely or partially. Usually women limit their professional duties to caring for a child. The number of women is 20 times higher in this case than the number of men. Among the reasons for which people become professionally inactive due to the failure of benefiting from care services are: the high expenses of care services (55.4% women who do work or work part time), lack of care services during the day or at an inconvenient time, too large a distance from the place of residence, insufficient number of places at the facility, inconvenient opening hours of the facility (34.1%), insufficient quality of care related to the low level of education at nursery school, and the absence of adequate personnel or lack of confidence in the personnel (4.6%) (Central Statistical Office 2012: 46-50).

The party whose interest in the family situation of an employee could facilitate the combining of duties in professional and family life is also the employer. However, regarding social awareness the labour market and the family situation are two independent domains. Therefore, employers are not convinced as to the solutions preventing the work/family conflict, while the employees do not expect changes in the labour market with regard to combining roles (Sochańska-Kawiecka, Kołakowska-Seroczyńska, Marysińska 2009: 7). Yet, many companies undertake actions in which they are not legally obliged and which are focused on supporting employees-parents. Such undertakings include *family friendly employment* programmes, i.e. activities of the employers facilitating their employees to combine roles and, as a consequence, bringing benefits to both parties in the employment agreement. Among the benefits for the employer are listed stable staff, limitation of the cost of recruitment of new staff, higher engagement of staff, improvement of working motivation and productivity, protection of investments in employees, reduction of absences, mitigation of difficulties resulting from breaks at work owing to personal reasons, facilitation of recruitment of new staff, building a positive image of the company. Benefits for the employee are related to mitigation of the personal/family life conflict with work, easier combination of professional and family duties, stress reduction, limitation of concerns related to a loss of job, higher motivation to work, protection of the acquired qualifications and improvement of productivity, which is translated into earnings. Major barriers which may hinder such activities are: the attitude of the employer owing to the absence of duty to support staff, difficult

situation of small and medium-sized companies, necessity to adjust work organisation, costs of benefits, opposition of staff who are not covered with the support, lack of cooperation between the negotiating parties (Balcerzak-Paradowska 2008: 24). Examples of *family friendly employment* are:

- facilitation of return from maternity/child care leave,
- granting bonuses in the case of faster return from maternity/upbringing leave,
- facilitation of professional re-activation of staff after child care leave by virtue of training or work at home,
- application of more flexible forms of employment and working time organisation,
- interest of employer in activities for creation and operation of child care outlets,
- activities focused on changing stereotypes in the perception of the roles of women and men and shaping partner relationships in families,
- propagation of *work-life balance* programmes and *family friendly employment*, for example by information actions, training for employers and managers (Balcerzak-Paradowska 2008: 32-33).

Referring to solutions which may be proposed by the employers, it is worth paying attention to the expectations of working Poles with regard to the possibility of combining professional work and parental duties. From the *Social Diagnosis 2013* it appears that the most preferred solution is flexible working time (55% of men, 57% of women). Further include: better possibility to care for children up to 7 years of age (33% of men, 37% of women), higher allowances (24% of men, 22% of women) and the possibility of partial work at home (20% of men, 24% of women). Attention has also been paid to the length of maternity leave (19% of men, 24% of women) (Czapiński, Panek 2013: 130).

Improvements proposed to parents in order to facilitate combining professional and parental duties are appreciated in competitions organised among companies and staff. Examples are: *Equal Chances Company*, *Mum at Work* for companies which are friendly to women who combine maternity with professional work (<http://www.mikolaj.org.pl>) or *Family Friendly Company* Poland-Wide Competition for Entrepreneurs (<http://rodzina-i-kariera.infor.pl>). There have also been indicated solutions which might facilitate the combining of duties by employees-parents. These include: medical care for pregnant women and children, child-birth benefits (layette, additional paid leave), rooms for breast-feeding mothers, working rooms for mothers with children, nursery schools, day care centres, company clubs for small children, additional protection of mothers against dismissal, mainte-

nance of links with parents during their maternity or child care leave, workshops and training for parents, vouchers for sports and recreational activities for parents and children, subsidies for family holidays, priority of parents in planning holiday leaves (<http://www.mpips.gov.pl>, date access: 19.05.2014 a). In the Podkarpackie province among the initiatives in which the importance of female-friendly companies is emphasised, including those who support combining work and family through flexible working time, nursery schools at the company, or the possibility of working at home, is the project entitled *Women – Implementation of International Strategy for Prevention of Leave of Well Educated Young Women*, which has been performed by the Rzeszów Agency for Regional Development (RARR, <http://www.rarr.rzeszow.pl>). An example of an undertaking aimed at promoting the idea of combining professional and family duties among the employers and the employees, through such tools as flexible work, long-distance work, job-sharing, time-off during the day, hourly leave and the creation of company day care centres or child clubs, is the project entitled *Parents at Start* by the Association of the First Quarter Mothers (Stowarzyszenie Matki I Kwartału) (<http://www.mpips.gov.pl>, date access: 19.05.2014 b).

SUMMARY

Family and work have for many years been occupying the highest position in the ranking of values highly regarded by Poles. However, for many working parents the combination of activeness in the areas of work and family is a huge burden. The special situation in the context of child care and simultaneous professional work refers to women who are mothers. Actions aimed at supporting the working parents become important. Partners of projects performed for combining professional and family duties should not only pay attention both to the already existing legal and organisational solutions but also to cultural attitudes related to perceiving the social roles, division of roles in a family and, in that context, analyse the possibility to combine family and professional duties. It would be worth drawing the partners' attention, particularly those of the local government sector, to the consideration of tasks related to the development of care services in the territorial social policy strategies. It is necessary to develop care outlets and monitor the consequences of the introduced family supporting solutions, including the extension of maternity leave and the level of use of parental rights by fathers, from the point of view of the situation of women in the labour market. For effective promotion of solutions supporting the combination of professional

and family duties by the partners, it would be advisable to carry out educational campaigns among the employers and the employees, as well as social campaigns related to the partner division of duties in families. A large role to be played here is for media and non-government organisations. It seems, therefore, that such understood partnership, i.e. cooperation for the achievement of a common objective in the form of facilitated combination of professional and family duties, may generate long-term positive effects in future.

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Summary

Family and work have for many years been occupying the highest position in the ranking of values highly regarded by Poles. However, for many working parents the combination of activeness in the areas of work and family is a huge burden. The special situation in the context of child care and simultaneous professional work refers to women who are mothers. Actions aimed at supporting the working parents become important. Partners of projects performed for combining professional and family duties should not only pay attention both to the already existing legal and organisational solutions but also to cultural attitudes related to perceiving the social roles, division of roles in a family and, in that context, analyse the possibility to combine family and professional duties. It would be worth drawing the partners' attention, particularly those of the local government sector, to the consideration of tasks related to the development of care services in the territorial social policy strategies. It is necessary to develop care outlets and monitor the consequences of the introduced family supporting solutions, including the extension of maternity leave and the level of use of parental rights by fathers, from the point of view of the situation of women in the labour market. For effective promotion of solutions supporting

the combination of professional and family duties by the partners, it would be advisable to carry out educational campaigns among the employers and the employees, as well as social campaigns related to the partner division of duties in families. A large role to be played here is for media and non-government organisations. It seems, therefore, that such understood partnership, i.e. cooperation for the achievement of a common objective in the form of facilitated combination of professional and family duties, may generate long-term positive effects in future. The purpose of this article is to present the instruments which facilitate combining professional work and parenthood in light of the existing legal and institutional solutions, as well as actions undertaken for the performance of the task and its promotion.

Key words: family, working parents, partnership

THE VOLUNTEER MOVEMENT IN UKRAINE AND ITS ROLE IN THE CROSS-SECTORAL PARTNERSHIP

At the heart of volunteerism are the ideas of service and solidarity and the belief that together we can make the world a better place. In that sense, we can say that volunteerism is the ultimate expression of what the United Nations is all about.

Kofi Atta Annan

INTRODUCTION

Volunteer activity is the basis for the foundation and development of civil society. During the last 10–15 years, the number of individuals involved (or planning to be) in volunteer activities in Ukraine drastically increased, reflecting the increasing role and influence of the volunteer movement in the country.

In Ukraine, the volunteer movement appeared at the beginning of the 1990s, when in 1993 the UNO Volunteers Program was introduced, and 131 persons were mobilised. In May, 1998, Ukraine initiated the Regional Program “Initiatives on the Volunteer Works”. The Program’s idea belonged to the New York Open Society Institute, commonly known as the Soros Foundation, and is implemented through the national divisions’ network. The main goal of the Program is to re-introduce the volunteer movement as a basis of civil society and the continuity of democratic reforms, the increase of citizens’ volunteer work share, aimed at solving specific social problems.

In 2001, Ukraine joined in the celebration of International Volunteers’ Day (December, 5). Officially, the volunteer movement in Ukraine was acknowledged by a Decree of the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine, issued on December, 10, 2003 (*Postanova Kabinetu Ministriv Ukrainy* 2014).

According to the “Democratic Initiatives” Foundation (Autumn, 2013), 21.4% of adults of almost all age groups are involved in volunteer activities in Ukraine. Among much of the volunteers (more than 80%) are youth aged between 15 and 19, and more than 72% are women (*Cikavi fakty pro volonterstvo v Ukraini* 2014).

It should be stressed that during ten years of studies of the Ukrainian Non-Governmental Organisations State and Dynamics (2002–2012), the amount of volunteer NGOs decreased from 78% in 2002 to 69% in 2011. Simultaneously, during the last few years Ukrainian organisations started engaging students, as well as the recipients of volunteer work (Palyvoda, S. Golota 2012).

Analysing the types of volunteer services or assistance, we can say they connect almost all spheres of life. According to the “Democratic Initiatives” Foundation (Autumn 2013), almost 41% of volunteers sacrifice not only their material values, but also their time (Mykoliuk 2013).

Today, there are about 14653 charitable organisations in Ukraine, the main goal of which is to help poor people. According to the National Charitable Rate, in 2012 Ukrainians donated 580 million hryvnia. (according to official statistics, the annual incomes of the charitable organisations total 4.6367 billion hryvnia, which is higher than the National Charitable Rate figure). About 300 Ukrainians annually travel the world as volunteers (*Rozvytok blagodijnyctva v suchasnij Ukraini* 2014).

The main volunteer organisations, unions and centres in Ukraine are the Ukrainian Civic Center “Volunteer”, the Volunteer Center “Good Will”, the GURT Resource Center, the Ukrainian Association of Youth Cooperation “Alternative–V”, the Inter-regional Volunteer Organisation “WORLD – Ukraine” (Solidarity, Volunteer, Initiative, Tolerance), and the UNO – Ukraine Volunteers.

The increase in numbers of the volunteer movement showed the urgency of legal regulations to determine the organisational and legal basis of volunteer activity, the development of the volunteer movement, volunteers’ legal status, financial sources etc.

This why on April 19, 2011, the Supreme Council of Ukraine adopted the project of the Law on Volunteer Activity, signed by the President on May 11, 2011. In September 2013, the President signed Decree№ 473/2013 *On introducing changes to some Presidential Decrees on Volunteer Activity* (Vidomosti Verchownoi Rady Ukrainy 2011, Vidomosti Verchownoi Rady Ukrainy 2013). Simultaneously, the overwhelming legal regulation of volunteer activity largely narrows its development potential in Ukraine.

THE HISTORY OF VOLUNTEER ACTIVITIES IN UKRAINE

For a long time in history, volunteer activities were one of the features of the Ukrainian nation. The Ukrainian language dictionary presents a wide range of the corresponding synonyms (*доброчинність, доброчинство,*

добродійство, добродіяння, благодіяння...), which specifically mean one thing: *to grant help, support someone in something*.

The history of volunteering in Ukraine and Russia dates back more than 100 years. Russia has always been rich in people, who helped others in need or illness free of charge.

The first national volunteers – the Red Cross, an organisation of volunteer Sisters of Mercy at hospitals. Before World War I, the Great Princess Yelizaveta Fedorivna on her own expense, created the Marfo-Mariyinski hostel in Moscow. Not only during the war, but even during the years of the Revolution, its sisters brought in and helped the wounded from the city streets, and gave food to the starving.

In Ukraine, the term “volunteer” wasn’t introduced until the 1990s. People who engaged in socially significant activities were called the good-doers, altruists, civil activists, philanthropists (Princes Volodumur, Yaroslav the Wise, Get’man Petro Sagaydachnu, Mazepa), and private philanthropists Tereshchenkis, Semerentis, Brotskis.

In the Soviet years, when the good of the country was put far above the good of the individual, the term “volunteer” possessed a very specific ideological and patriotic twist: so called were the people who were eager to serve not the needs of the individual persons, but the needs of the general party, the communist idea or a socialistic state. During that time the concept of the “Soviet man” as a citizen meant certain social bonds, such as to pensioners, members of the Comsomol and the Communists, implemented in the forms of patronage over children, schools, veterans: mentorship over juvenile delinquents, taking part in common activities, membership in the “Timur Teams”, volunteer peoples’ brigades (*Molodiez dlia molodiez* 2001).

In the 1990s, along with the FYSS Centers’ development, and the lack of professional cadres, the need for social work arose for the socially active volunteers.

The Ukrainian nation, after its active vote during the 1991 national independence referendum for a sovereign and independent state, got a unique opportunity to prove itself among the developed civilised countries of the world. Today, a democratic society has arisen in Ukraine, a society to be based on the principles of freedom, creation and humanism. Formal state structures are unable to react to all the social needs, hence the importance of the volunteer movement. Evidence of the start of this process and development is to be found in the foundation of the modern non-governmental organisations, more than 20 thousand in number. However, only a small part of them works with volunteers.

In May 1998, Ukraine, among other Central and Eastern European states as well as several Asian countries, started implementing the Regional Pro-

gram “Initiatives for Volunteer Works”. The Program’s idea belongs to the New York Open Society Institute, commonly known as the Soros Foundation, and is implemented through the national divisions’ network. The main goal of the Program is to re-introduce the volunteer movement as a basis of civil society and the continuity of democratic reforms, the increase of the citizens’ volunteer work share, aimed at solving specific social problems (Kapska 2000).

The Ukrainian Program’s goals and tasks consist of: Ukrainian civil activity reinforcement through development of the volunteer movement aimed at the widest possible citizenship inclusion into socially useful works in the NGOs, social services and medical sphere participation to help solve social problems (Vidomosti Verchownoi Rady Ukrainy 2011). In terms of the Program, the Volunteer Center “Good Will” was created, which started recruiting volunteers and directed them to NGOs. Since 1998, volunteer management training was introduced for more than 40 NGO representatives. To popularise the volunteer movement the book “Volunteer Activity in Ukraine: the Past, the Present and the Future”, five “Good Will” bulletins and the handbook “Volunteer Activities’ Management. How to Introduce Society to Solving its Problems” were published.

It is also worth mentioning that not only NGOs, but also state organisations try to develop the volunteer movement in Ukraine. An example of this is the activity of the FYSS, where volunteers are working alongside professional social workers. The FYSSC volunteers’ services gradually became one of the national youth policy priorities. In February–March, 1999, a social poll on an NGOs participation in working with youth was held by the Ukrainian Social Studies Institute. Representatives of more than 183 NGOs from eight regions of Ukraine took part in the poll. The most active social work with children and youth is done by youth (19%), women (12%), juveniles (12%) volunteer organisations, along with disabled social workers (18%). All the social work is done voluntarily.

During the social projects and services fair held in the Kiev City State Administration (KCSA) in November 1999, and organised by both the “Gurt” Resource Centre and the KCSA social service, 75 organisations were questioned on volunteer work needs.

The UNO General Assembly announced the year 2001 to be the International Year of the Volunteer. The main goals of the act were: to increase volunteer work approval, its support and approval, popularisation, development of the network to further promote and exchange information on it. The condition set to achieve the stated goals was the cooperation of such social sectors as civil organisations, state and private individuals.

On March 22, 2001, the President of Ukraine signed a decree to hold the International Year of the Volunteer in Ukraine.

So, all the facts mentioned above suggest that the demand for volunteer work grows annually. Many organisations were found in Ukraine, which recruit and train volunteers, or other organisations specialising solely on volunteer development. It is worth mentioning that today, in Kiev, for example, there are at least three factors enabling the promotion of volunteer activity in civil life:

1. The existence of social services users and the sphere for volunteer activities proposed by the NGOs.
2. The existence of potential volunteers, eager to be introduced to organisations and training.
3. The existence of world volunteer movement models and methodological recommendations on volunteer sector work, gradually implemented training events to develop trainers.

So, we can conclude that under modern conditions, a deeper social and state understanding of different social development aspects is needed. Social problems must be solved, and the success of the changes at hand depends on social services and support personnel qualifications, which in turn require the corresponding training; it becomes a top priority in the new national policy implementation. The great volunteer movement formation is one of the main ways for efficient social work in any country.

GOALS, TASKS AND FUNCTIONS OF THE UKRAINIAN SOCIAL VOLUNTEER MOVEMENT

The Ukrainian nation, after its active vote during the 1991 national independence referendum for a sovereign and independent state, got a unique opportunity to prove itself among the developed civilised world countries. Today, a democratic society has arisen in Ukraine, a society to be based on the principles of freedom, creation and humanism. Formal state structures are unable to react to all social needs, hence the importance of the volunteer movement. Evidence of the start and development of this process can be found in the foundation of modern non-governmental organisations, more than 20 thousand in number.

However, only a small part of them works with volunteers. In May 1998, Ukraine, among other Central and Eastern European states as well as several Asian countries, started implementing the Regional Program "Initiatives on the Volunteer Works". The program's idea belongs to the New York Open

Society Institute of the Soros Foundation, and is implemented through the national divisions' network. The main goal of the program is to re-introduce the volunteer movement as a basis of civil society and a continuation of democratic reforms, the increase of the citizens' volunteer work share, aimed at solving specific social problems. The Ukrainian program's goals and tasks consist of: Ukrainian civil activity reinforcement through development of the volunteer movement aimed at the widest possible citizenship inclusion into socially useful works in NGOs, social services and medical sphere participation to help solve social problems. In terms of the program, the Volunteer Centre "Good Will" was founded, which began recruiting volunteers and directing them to NGOs (Zvierieva, Laktionova 2001).

Along with this, a matter of great importance was and is to train the organizations' representatives in the management of volunteer activities, as it is one of the main problems why society remains uncooperative. Since 1998, volunteer management training was introduced for more than 40 NGO representatives. To popularise the volunteer movement the book "Volunteer Activity in Ukraine: the Past, the Present and the Future", five "Good Will" bulletins, and a handbook "Volunteer Activities' Management. How to Introduce Society to Solving its Problems" were published.

It is worth mentioning that not only NGOs, but the state itself seeks development of the volunteer movement in Ukraine. An example of this is FYSSC activities, where volunteers are working alongside professional social workers. The FYSSC volunteers' services gradually became one of the national youth policy priorities. It is worth mentioning that today, in Kiev, for example, there are at least three factors enabling the promotion of volunteer activity in civil life: the existence of social services users and the sphere for volunteer activities proposed by the NGOs; the existence of potential volunteers, eager to be introduced to organisation and training; the existence of world volunteer movement models and methodological recommendations on volunteer sector work, gradually implemented by training events to develop trainers.

Almost every time, the volunteers' goals coincide with the goals performed by the paid staff, and the volunteers themselves are used as assistants in the important terms of the program's goal spheres.

The volunteer's work must be professionally organised and supervised. Volunteers can do any kind of work, not just the simplest things which do not require a professional background. A volunteer is not a mere assistant or social worker taking care of others, they can be a teacher, IT-specialist, politician, engineer or designer.

In setting the goals for volunteers, organisations must take into account the individual abilities of each person. Volunteers can do work that does not

correspond with the paid tasks; they can introduce new ideas to the organisation; create and promote a common opinion on the organisation; introduce new people to the organisation; help collect donations; promote social activity.

Volunteers can do work they would have never engaged in with paid jobs. Volunteers who give their time and effort to an organisation want to be its part, they want to have a voice in it and influence the decisions made. In fact, that others are interested in what they think and take into account their point of view, proves the importance of the volunteers for the organisation. An ability to influence even a mere part of the organisation's activities is a specific motivation type, as any person feels involved in the organisation in general.

Volunteer movement development in Ukraine is based on the following tasks:

Firstly, acknowledging a level increase. The state government and local authorities must be sure in the mechanics of volunteers' participation in consultations on and studies of the issues to evaluate the qualitative contribution of the volunteer sector in general which can add to national benefit and development. Dealing with issues must be based on the better experience of smaller groups, local societies, national NGOs, as well as on the results of volunteers' international activities.

Secondly, there is motivation. The ways to introduce people to volunteer activity are outlined, depending on specific social conditions. The state can propose: its training programs for volunteers on topics such as techniques, management, finances; assistance in obtaining official status, insurance and social support to set volunteers among equal specialists in other professional spheres; a decrease in tax rates for those supporting volunteer initiatives; under certain conditions, to account for volunteer activities as a military service; providing part of the resources, such as handbooks, drugs, financial support etc., for the volunteers to use.

In this way both social and private sector employees can agree to join volunteer movements without losing their jobs. Besides, the UNO system can outline the best ways of further volunteer service support from society. It can take the form of a national volunteer crops establishment to solve environmental issues, AIDS, cultural heritage preservation and propaganda problems.

Thirdly, the introduction of an information exchange system. TV, radio, printed and electronic media can spread information regarding volunteer achievements, and in this way support the usage of the existing "better practice" and working procedures to help each community to not "re-invent the wheel". Such information exchange can be done at the local, provincial, neighbouring and distant states level due to electronic media assets.

Finally, there is propaganda. This task's fulfillment is aimed at seeking volunteer services' demands and proposals to provide services as a volunteer in terms of the spheres at hand, as well as at shaping the general supportive climate, official and social view in support of volunteer initiatives. This process must also be aimed at the acknowledgement of volunteers' status, utilising developed schemes, and the establishment of an information exchange system. It is vital here to account for the competence and professionalism of the volunteers-specialists, as well as for the advantage to society received from their labour (for example, campaigns on rational environmental utilisation programme development etc.).

VOLUNTEER ACTIVITIES IN UKRAINE: PROGRESS AND PROBLEMS

Volunteer movement development in Ukraine is influenced by the following basic directions:

1. volunteer – free labour in non-commercial organisations helping different groups of people in any activity, education, development spheres. Such a volunteer movement direction which is not age restricted enables their creative and social self-realisation, self-development and self-observance;
2. systematic or episodic volunteer assistance, provided to state institutions as part of their social policy implementation – help, aimed at educational establishments in their work, social assurance institutions in their work with children and youth with special needs, as well as with aged people;
3. volunteer activity is a result of creative self-development and the education of others, but it is not a professional activity;
4. pedagogically orientated volunteer activity is, inter alia, a mechanism to develop personality, its socialisation and spiritual foundation. This direction develops in children and youth unions (with the aim of socially significant activities), in different Family and Youth Social Services Centres (FYSSC).

The volunteer movement's characteristic feature, spontaneously developing within different social institutions, organisations and unions in Ukraine, is an inclusion of the 15–20 year old youth taking part in volunteer activities. Drawing the attention of juveniles, youth, and the elderly is an efficient way to encourage active personal self-realisation in terms of activity and communication as a cultural process.

Further detailed analysis of the process' composition reveals that volunteers, due to social and pedagogical activity, shape valuable life priorities, and obtain valuable day-to-day personal life skills: self-realisation, self-organisa-

tion, self-development, self-regulation and self-rehabilitation, and self-education and self-upbringing (Golovanova, Gapon 1996).

It is worth mentioning that one of the main problems of the Ukrainian volunteer movement is a number of difficulties in such activity. The volunteer organisers should not only familiarise themselves with the movement's history in other countries, organise work and control, learn to work out plans and tasks for the volunteers, but also to always account for the thoughts and experience of the volunteers themselves.

Today, there are the following volunteer movement centres in Ukraine:

- Coordination Council on Volunteer Movement Development and Support within the Labour and Social Policy Ministry of Ukraine;
- Ukrainian Civic Centre “Volunteer”;
- Civic Organisations Development Resource Centre “Gurt”;
- Ukrainian National Centre for Youth Social Services;
- „Pensioner” Volunteer Organisation, War Veterans Organisation Councils;
- Civic Organisations and Initiatives Coalition for a Tobacco-Free Ukraine.

In 2001, in Kiev, an initiative was pronounced to organise a “Volunteer of the Year” competition, proposed by the Civic Organisations Development Resource Centre “Gurt” and the General Domestic Policy Department. This paper clearly states the motives, number of participants, volunteer activity spheres, and evaluation criteria.

The goal of the contest was to publicly acclaim volunteer work and thank the people who gave their time, knowledge, power, energy, skills, and devotion to working for the sake of the public.

Volunteer activity spheres:

- social security;
- healthcare;
- education and upbringing;
- environmental protection;
- sports and tourism;
- culture and youth movement;
- international cooperation development;
- legal protection;
- volunteer activities' management.

In modern Ukraine, the volunteer movement has become more and more popular. Examples of such free help can be seen in the ecological and social spheres. The volunteer movement gradually enters the economic sphere. For example, the State Tax Administration of Ukraine allows volunteers (students, pensioners, former Tax Administration bodies' officials) to work as its

tax consultants. The experiment was initiated in the Zhtomur region, where 70 persons were trained using a special programme.

Volunteer movement has actively developed in the Ternopil, Zaporizhzhia, L'viv, Vinnitsa, and Kherson regions. Some of the objectives of the volunteers' activity are the Mothers' Movement Against Drugs and AIDS, helping youth be better parents, psychological assistance to pregnant women, helping gutter children, orphans and children from adverse families, and boarding school pupils.

One of the main objectives of the Lugansk region volunteer movement is the so-called "Veteran Drugstore". More than 23,500 pensioner-volunteers support and organise material help for the disabled, war veterans and people living alone. Red Cross-based centres host 37 medics-volunteers to treat people in need.

On December 19, 2003, with support from the Labour and Social Policy Ministry of Ukraine, in coordination with the Ukrainian Veteran Council, the Ukrainian Pensioner Volunteers Assembly was gathered.

Ukrainian volunteer movement development was also stimulated by implementation of a Presidential Decree approved State Program on "Health of Old People". Today, the volunteer movement is one of the effective ways for social security and life standards have increased for the elderly, with a positive specific work aimed at the inclusion of a wide range of pensioners and youth in charitable activity.

Today, more than two thousand pensioner volunteers take care of approximately half a million seniors, disabled, orphans who appeared to be in unfavorable living conditions and in need of outside assistance. The pensioner volunteer movement develops in three main ways: "Pensioner-to-pensioner" help, "Pensioner-to-children", and "Veteran Drugstores" – a special type of a store selling Ukrainian-made drugs at manufacturer's prices, or with a 30% discount. Nowadays there are more than 1700 such shops in Ukraine.

Active development of the volunteer movement takes place within the Ukrainian students' community too. For example, in 1997 the Lugansk T.Shevchenko National Pedagogical University created a "SOVA" (student volunteer-activists squad) Volunteer squad in its Historical Department.

During its existence, the squad moved from specific charitable activities to the shaping and implementation of its own social projects and participation in regional, inter-regional and international projects.

Volunteer movement development dynamics from the "SOVA" squad foundation are proof of the constant search by students for new directions, forms and ways of participation in the cities and regions' social problems resolve, and for widening the range of such participation and communications with state and non-governmental social services.

Any volunteer groups within the Youth Social Services Centres act in terms of social programs implemented by the Centres and pre-planned by the working papers and tasks which are shaped for each Centre by the state.

Nowadays, a prominent role in the increasing status of volunteers within the SSC, as well as in shaping positive public perception towards their activities, is played by the installment of a volunteer education system.

Accounting for the features of youth social services' activities and tasks, different education forms are used to train volunteers in order to sharpen their knowledge and skills, for example:

- during the year –volunteer school;
- during a year and a half – topical volunteer courses;
- during a month – volunteer-assistant training camp;
- during the week – advanced study courses.

The Centres engaged in volunteer work must plan systematic study courses, consultations, discussions, seminars, “round tables”, and training to differentiate the ways volunteers get to know the essence, directions, and types of social pedagogical work depending on their professional background for such work.

Regional YSSC documentation analysis has led to an outline of the main directions of volunteer work:

1. Social rehabilitation work, negative youth phenomenon' prevention and overcome:
 - work with youth with a tendency towards asocial behaviour;
 - prevention and overcoming alcohol and drug abuse, smoking;
 - sexual diseases and AIDS/HIV prevention;
 - support for juveniles – victims of moral, physical, sexual violence.
2. Social care and protection of the least secure children and youth:
 - support and assurance of the creative talents of disabled juveniles;
 - social support for young families;
 - social work with orphans and children lacking parental supervision;
 - social support for military-aged and unemployed youth, assistance with employment;
 - social work with female youth;
 - support for youth and children in self-upbringing, self-determination and self-improvement;
 - shaping and development of creative personality qualities;
 - development and support for talented youth and children.

Different regions have different ways and principles to introduce people to volunteer activity. The most common way is to invite students of the corresponding specialties (social workers, psychologists, lawyers, medics) to

participate in social work through volunteer groups. For example, in Zaporizhzhia 12 social teachers and students-psychologists of the Zaporizhzhia State University's Social Pedagogics and Psychology Department, work voluntarily. They contribute to juvenile sexual education in summer school camps. In the Dnipropetrovsk region the Program "Femida's Scales" is under way, carried out by the volunteer legal youth club, members of which are law student graduates of Dnipropetrovsk State University.

Within the Chernivtsi YSSC, a number of volunteer squads are comprised of local pedagogical university students. Besides them, students of the pedagogical college and medical workers actively participate in volunteer activities.

In Vinnitsa, volunteer-students of the local pedagogical university's Philology Department have drawn up a study course, "Learning Classic Literature" with its aim of improving the general cultural and intellectual level of youth with certain mental digressions. In Lutsk, volunteer work is done by 25 volunteers made up of medical college and Psychological Department students. Their professional background surely influenced the specifics of their volunteer activity.

Around the world, one of the main objects of the volunteer activities is NGOs: youth, juvenile and female. Ukrainian NGOs are insufficiently included in social work. However, there are examples of such cooperation. For instance, in Chernivtsi volunteer groups constantly communicate with active youth NGOs – "The Bukovina's Guides", "In Harmony with Nature", and the children's organizations "Sprout" and "Rainbow".

Most of the volunteers work at non-governmental organisations (NGOs). They are one of the main human resources for NGOs. Their work is a basis of the private sector. According to M. Kordinski, the Odessa "Other's Child" club leader, NGOs, having no real financial resources, use as a main resource the charitable, volunteer work of their members and other resources brought with them. The volunteer movement in Ukraine is determined by social life humanisation and is responsive to social needs. The volunteer work is considered able to be guided into the community service sphere, health care, employment, social support, cultural, urban, artistic, and religious traditions renovation.

The Kherson Youth Organisations and Informal Unions Association "Freedom" organises regional concerts together with Kherson regional YSSC specialists.

Members of the Kharkiv city youth Modelling Center "Ludus" assist YSSC psychologists to carry out club work, business games, and a "Debates" club with juveniles in local clubs.

It is well-known that religious organisations play one a prominent role in volunteer social work. Unlike civil ones, religious organisations in Ukraine

do a great amount of varied social work. However, their activity rarely coincides with, and is rarely used by the YSSC. For example, in Zhutomur 8 St. Sophia's Catholic Cathedral Legion volunteers work with a family club for children with special needs, known as "The Special Child". They carry out social patronage of disabled children at home.

Cooperation with the religious organisations of various faiths is considered helpful in widening and varying the social work done by volunteers. Some precautions in cooperation between the SSC and religious organisations are a reason of inertial thinking and oftentimes false alarms. With mutual respect to the individual religious views of each partner, these misunderstandings can be avoided.

To be able to work, volunteers need a sufficient theoretical and practical basis. For instance, between 1997–1998 in Mukolaiv, while implementing the "Volunteer Trust Phone" Program, 25 volunteers visited lectures, role and psychological training, along with practicing the "Trust Phone", and receiving the corresponding certificates afterwards.

In 2005, Dnipropetrovsk was visited by foreign volunteers. From July 13th until August 2nd, an International Volunteer Camp was organised, with participants from many foreign countries. It was dedicated to working with youth. Volunteers brought many new and interesting notions into the world of children and their development. English, French, PC, swimming, football, and volleyball classes were carried out. Informational events on member-countries national features, traditions, dances, and songs left no one unattached. Our children prepared a concert to show Ukrainian life and culture.

So, we can conclude that volunteer activity in Ukraine, however not massive, is sufficient to name it a social event, and an important part of non-governmental social services. In general, the volunteer movement can be seen as a basis for our county's prosperity, and the volunteers themselves as pioneers guiding the way to development. If you are not yet a volunteer, then you just have not realised all benefits of becoming one, so, as they say, it is "better late, than never".

CONCLUSIONS

Nowadays, the situation in Ukraine is characterised by social, psychological and economic instability which is leading to a decrease in the social living standards, social moral norms and values devaluation, and crime and violence rate increase in Eastern regions. Social and psychological problems in Ukraine reflect the psychological status of different social

groups. What is more, a group of people in need is clearly outlined. Among them are young unemployed youth and adult people, children with a lack of parental supervision or even without parents, pensioners and nowadays, displaced persons.

To solve these problems it is needed, firstly, to learn the real needs of different social groups; secondly, to outline, prove and spread social and pedagogical work methods to help solve these problems; thirdly, there is an urgent need for qualified specialists who are able to professionally introduce developed social and pedagogical work concepts and programmes.

Volunteer activity is a way to self-perceive and self-check. That is why volunteer work is participated in by different groups of volunteers, people of any age and sex, with any education, who can perceive the outlined needs of other people and voluntarily, but professionally help them.

Under modern conditions, a deep social, governmental understanding of the different social development optimisation occurs. Social problems must be persistently solved, and the success of the changes outlined depends upon the qualifications of social support specialists that envision corresponding cadre training. It becomes the top priority for a new country's policy. Shaping the great volunteer movement is one of the ways to efficient social work in any country.

Volunteers are important for any society, as they work for free, showing society that there are more important things than material goods. Environmental protection, culture, development, and a country's positive image are the main priorities for volunteers. That is what helps society to confidently stand proud, and the volunteer to be satisfied while getting valuable life experience along with professional skills and knowledge.

Volunteer activity in Ukraine, however not massive, is a social effect and an important part of non-governmental social services activity. In general, the volunteer movement can be seen as a basis for our county's prosperity, and the volunteers themselves as pioneers guiding the way of development. If you are not yet a volunteer, then you just have not realised all benefits of becoming one, so, as they say, it is "better late, than never".

In modern times, an urgent need for social, state-realised importance of different social development aspects of optimisation arises. Social problems must be persistently solved, and the success of the changes outlined depends upon the qualification of social support specialists that envision corresponding cadre training. It becomes the top priority for a new country's policy. Shaping the great volunteer movement is one of the ways to efficient social work in our country.

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Summary

Volunteer activity is the basis for the foundation and development of civil society. Volunteers are important for any society, as they work for free, showing society that there are more important things than material goods. Environmental protection, culture, development, and a country's positive image are the main priorities for volunteers. That is what helps society to confidently stand proud, and the volunteer to be satisfied while getting valuable life experience along with professional skills and knowledge. Volunteer activity in Ukraine, however not massive, is a social effect and an important part of non-governmental social services activity. In general, the volunteer movement can be seen as a basis for our country's prosperity, and the volunteers themselves as pioneers guiding the way of development. In modern times, an urgent need for social, state-realised importance of different social development aspects of optimisation arises. Social problems must be persistently solved, and the success of the changes outlined depends upon the qualification of social support specialists that envision corresponding cadre training. It becomes the top priority for a new country's policy. Shaping the great volunteer movement is one of the ways to efficient social work in our country.

Key words: volunteers, volunteering in Ukraine, the problems of volunteers, volunteer history

DEVELOPMENT OF PARTNERSHIP AND COOPERATION TO COUNTERACT SOCIAL EXCLUSION PHENOMENA. TO START... WHY PARTNERSHIP?

Partners are co-workers, thinkers and dreamers. To work as partners we put away our comfortable, safe and tested professional rules and to start co-operation, which is a very demanding creative process, we give up our controlling position.

Michelle Evans

INTRODUCTION

It is easy to speak about partnership, but it is much more difficult to live it. Lately, partnership has become a strong element of our reality. The word partnership has become very fashionable and popular. It has many meanings and it includes various relationships, connections, networks and types of organisations.

The idea of intersectoral partnership within the framework of which authorities representing units of local government, economic entities and third sector organisations cooperate to solve complex local and regional problems is winning many supporters. Partnerships are initiated by companies, non-governmental organisations or public institutions and act at a local, regional, national or global level. Intersectoral cooperation rarely becomes an easy and quick solution to problems. Partnership undertakings require determination, perseverance and courage. Each party brings different experiences and skills thanks to which intersectoral co-operation can become sustainable, efficient and effective in a condition that it will be properly designed and managed.

In Poland, favourable conditions for the idea of intersectoral partnership developed after 1989. There are various reasons for the creation and functioning of this form of cooperation resulting mainly from the development of a citizen society in the 1980s and 1990s and further social and political transformation. Increasing liabilities of the public finance sector resulting in searching for alternative financial resources and an implementation of patterns adopted in other European countries became further impulses for changes.

DEFINITION OF PARTNERSHIP

In recent years, partnership has become very important. So what is it? Sociologically is a modern model of relationships between partners including: coacting and cooperation, the same rights and obligations, respecting autonomy and difference, and tolerance. Formally, partnership means agreement between particular institutions, organisations, economic entities and sometimes physical persons.

According to the PWN Polish Language Dictionary partnership is defined as: *co-participation in something, being a partner [...]. Partnership cooperation* (Dubisz 2003: 373). Jerzy Bralczyk's '100 thousand Necessary Words Dictionary' defines partnership as *the equal treatment of each other* (Bralczyk 2008: 539). According to David Wilcox, partnership means financial support, coacting, co-deciding, consulting and informing. Whereas, according to the definition of the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy partnership, it is the cooperation of various partners who together, in a systematic and constant way, using innovative methods and means plan, design, implement and implement certain activities and initiatives which are aimed at the development of the local, social, and economic environment and the building of the local identity of members of a given community. So we can say that the concept of partnership is very close to the concept of partnership and is very close to the concept of cooperation (coacting).

It is worth quoting the definition of intersectoral partnership formed by the United Nations Organisation according to which: *Partnership means the optional and cooperative relation of various parties in which all the participants (partners) agree to work together to achieve a common goal or initiate a specific task and share risk, responsibility, resources, and competences* (Kwartera, Bukowska 2009: 7). In the context of the adopted definitions, partnership should be understood as a specific type of cooperation characterised by a common goal, voluntary participation, sharing risk, profits and responsibilities, and by common work.

SOCIAL EXCLUSION – DIMENSION

A few years ago social exclusion was a foreign concept (Belcer 2013: 9). Lately, the word *excluded* became fashionable and extremely popular (Wojnarowska 2013: 187). At the moment, it is one of the most popular and most frequently used words in everyday life, media, publications, in the area of activity of non-governmental organisations, in sociology and social policy (Belcer 2013: 9).

So, what is it? Who is an excluded person? It seems that everyone is able to answer such questions. Social exclusion is associated with poor people, the homeless, and the handicapped. But the concept of *exclusion* is much wider and can concern various groups of people. So which groups of people are endangered with social exclusion? Who can be defined as excluded? Relevant literature indicates that helpless people, the poorly educated, migrants, foreigners, the homeless, the unemployed, the handicapped, children from large families, children from single parent families, the elderly, inhabitants of ex-state agricultural farms, drug addicts, alcoholics, young people leaving care and educational facilities, and people leaving correctional institutions are particularly vulnerable to exclusion.

The popularity of the concept of exclusion is easy to explain as it describes the phenomena as old as the world itself using a word which is more appealing to modern society. People who were not able to fully participate in social life probably existed in each historical period. Beggars, moochers, slaves, the mentally ill, the intellectually handicapped, or the whole army of unemployed people characterised by the industrial period – various forms of poverty, and in modern times, exclusion. It is no coincidence that they were associated with having a very low social status (Belcer 2013: 10).

The concept of social exclusion was created not by René Lenoire¹, high ranking official of French bureaucracy but by the publisher of his book in 1974. It does not mean at all that in such a way a new social phenomena was noticed or known, but an earlier unknown category of social structure emerged – people *excluded* in some respect. Just the opposite, these phenomena were described by classics of European and American sociology. Social historians and ethnologists dealt with *social marginality*. This issue was also examined by Polish social sciences. The essay of Stefan Czarnowski *O ludziach zbędnych* and the work of his disciple Nina Assorodobraj – *O ludziach luźnych* (Frieske 2005: 55).

The concept of social exclusion was for the first time used in a document of the European Commission of 1988. One year later this term was used in the preamble of the European Social Card which claimed that opposing social exclusion is very important because it maintains social solidarity. The concept of social exclusion was accepted in Europe and replaced the concept of poverty. In the 1990s the concept of exclusion became even more important on both the national and international level (Golinowska, Broda-Wysocki 2005: 33).

¹ Author of *Les Exclus*.

SOCIAL EXCLUSION – DEFINITION OF THE PROBLEM

Reference books present a wide range of exclusion concepts and definitions. According to the definition presented by Pasi Moisió: *social exclusion means that an individual, family, or even a whole group are excluded from a way of living, resources and the usual conditions of life accepted for a given community* (Golinowska, Broda-Wysocki 2005: 40). According to Jordie Estivill: *social exclusion can be understood as the cumulative and complex process of gradually leaving the central areas of the economy, politics and society resulting from processes taking place in such areas connected with the gradual isolation of people, groups, communities and territories, placing them in an inferior position with respect to development/possibilities, resources and dominating values* (Golinowska, Broda-Wysocki 2005: 40). The definition accepted by the National Strategy for Social Integration presents exclusion as *the lack or limitation of the possibility of participation, influencing and using basic public markets and institutions which should be available for everybody, and especially for poor people* (Narodowa Strategia Integracji Społecznej dla Polski 2004: 22).

Groups vulnerable to exclusion are as follows: children, young people from neglected communities, children raised outside families, single women raising children, women outside the labour market, victims of family life pathology, poorly educated people, the unemployed, the handicapped, the chronically ill, the mentally ill, the elderly who are alone, people leaving correctional institutions, immigrants, and those belonging to the Roma ethnic minority. Individuals from a marginalised social group are considered to be inconvenient and threatening. That is why they are kept at a distance, isolated, encircled, oppressed and excluded. Children face the difficult challenges of modern social reality (Żeromska-Charlińska, Śniadkowski 2010: 144-145). Social exclusion not only means present effects but effects in the future. Social exclusion *today* means diminished possibilities in changing the situation by subsequent generations, as it very often happens that children of excluded people become excluded themselves. Society creates division lines between those who are excluded and those who are not (Golinowska, Broda-Wysocki 2005: 41). Observation of social life presents more and more children and young people that are socially excluded and are not able to fully participate in cultural, political and economic life. It has been estimated that every fifth child in Poland is threatened with exclusion. In 2004, the National Strategy for Social Integration in Poland considered *children and young people from neglected and poor communities* and the impoverished as the category of the people primarily threatened with social exclusion (Narodowa

Strategia Integracji Społecznej dla Polski 2004: 63-67). The 2003 State Strategy for Young People for the years 2003 – 2012 deals with counteracting the marginalisation of the younger generation, enabling the same start into adult life, equal educational opportunities for youth from various communities, from rural areas, unemployed youth, handicapped youth, youth from neglected and poor communities which exist outside the education and labour system.

According to A. Belcer, *socializing processes are more difficult for children raised in poverty. Such processes considerably influence their school achievements and later on their life career as their adult life will depend on their education. Children and young people from families threatened with marginalisation very often are prematurely removed from the education system and finally rarely become university graduates. In such a willy-nilly way they inherit the status of their parents* (Belcer 2013: 17).

PARTNERSHIP FOR CHILDREN – EXAMPLES OF INTERSECTORAL CO-OPERATION

Society based on knowledge can become much more exclusive than the industrial society for those who will have no chance to meet its requirements. It concerns as well and maybe most of all children and young people living in poverty and hardship.

Wielisława Warzywoda-Kruszyńska

The idea of partnership cooperation is commonly accepted and valued (Hurrell, Hussain-Khaliq, Tennyson 2010: 3). More and more often we can observe the cooperation of non-governmental organisations within various sectors: local governments, entrepreneurs or other organisations. During previous years many examples of good intersectoral practices have emerged.

Activities of the *Wspólna Droga* United Way Poland Foundation² are an interesting and worthy of mention example of intersectoral cooperation. It is a public benefit organisation, an independent member of an accepted international charity organisation joining business people, people of science, and culture and art with the idea of supporting people in difficult situations. The goal of the Foundation is for every person living in poverty in Poland to get

² Foundation United Way is one of the oldest international charity organizations in the world, which has been operating in the United States for 126 years and in Poland called *Wspólna Droga* United Way Poland for last 17 years.

professional and effective help. The mission of the Foundation in Poland is to initiate and co-create a movement of partnership cooperation of people of all social circles to increase the living standard of people in difficult conditions. One part of the foundation's activity is the long-lasting personal social program 'Partnership for Children' which was founded in 2006 and is the answer to huge social problems such as the poverty and hardship of Polish children. The goal of the programme is to equal the developmental and educational opportunities of children threatened with social maladjustment and marginalisation, children from poor families with many problems, or those educationally inefficient to enable them fully participating in social life (Mularczyk 2008: 19). Street pedagogues and streetworkers managed to find children needing support and led them *from the street to the club-room*, they gave the children the opportunity to catch up at school, start their educational aspirations and believe in their own potential, discover their individual talents and skills, and first of all, help them to get out of a difficult situation.

Children and youth, on their own and without any adult supervision, cease going to school, and are unable to make up for their absences resulting in them leaving school early. Without a hope for better future, they mainly spend their free time with their friends in the streets, in backyards, and in shopping malls where they are very vulnerable to various types of influence and threats. Low self esteem, low aspirations, and as a consequence, dropping out of the educational system are results of a lack of patterns and school arrears. Help for such children becomes a good and lasting *investment* in their lives and the lives of their families and the lives of the whole society. Projects based on intersectoral cooperation join the possibilities and effectiveness of various circles: nongovernmental organisations, local government, business, national administration, and scientific centers and the media.

Within the framework of the Partnership for Children Programme the foundation cooperates with thirty non-governmental organisations from all over the world³ such as: Humanitary Action *Życie* (Life), Caritas of Radom Diocese, Caritas of Toruń Diocese with their seat in Toruń (Działdowskie Caritas Centre), Caritas Warszawa Praga Południe, Caritas Warszawa Targówek, the Centre of Mission and Evangelisation of Evangelical – Lutheran Church in the Polish Republic, the Centre of Prophylaxis and Social Education PARASOL (UMBRELLA), the Dr Clown Foundation, the Generation Foundation, Foundation *Miasto Aniołów* (City of Angels), Foundation of Social Changes *Kreatywni* (Creative), KARAN, the Catholic Foundation for

³ Foundation co-operates with 147 organizations and it has 30 non-governmental organizations as partners within the framework of Partnership for Children Programme.

Children in the Parish of St. Peter and Paul Apostles, the *17tka* (Being 17) Association, the *Miłość w Działaniu* (Love in Action) Association, *Serduszko dla Dzieci* (Heart for Children) Association, *Wspólne Podwórko* (Common Backyard) Association, the Association of Social Animators and Pedagogues, the Association Group of Pedagogy and Social Animation Praga Północ, the Association of Social Initiatives *Wiatrak* (Windmill), the Mierz Wysoko (Fly High) Association, the Association for Children and Young People Program Stacja (Station Programme), the Association for Children, Young People and Family Development *Pomocna Dłoń* (Helping Hand), the Association of Alternative Pedagogy, the Association of Pedagogues and Animators KLANZA, the Friends of Sociotherapeutic Centre *Wspólny Dom* (Common Home) Association, the Kazimierz Lisiecki *Grandfather* Association of Friends of Children, the Association of Friends of Children Warszawa Praga Południe, the Association of Friends of Children Warszawa Praga Północ and the Association of Friends of Children Warszawa-Targówek.

The Partnership for Children Programme is supported by many companies, namely: Amgen, Atos, Bricoman, FedEx, Johnson&Johnson, Mattel, TNT Express, and Société Générale S.A. Branches in Poland⁴. The institutional partners are as follows: the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, the Masovian Provincial Office, the Main Statistical Office, local governments, and the Maria Grzegorzewska Academy of Special Pedagogy in Warsaw.

The programme includes strategy aimed at the equalisation of developmental and educational opportunities for children in three areas such as: direct help for children, enhancing the welfare system and the activation of local communities to help children.

DIRECT HELP FOR CHILDREN

A child, because of its physical and mental immaturity, requires special care and concern including proper legal care, both before and after birth.

Declaration of Children Rights

Foundations cooperating with non-governmental organisations from all over Poland aim at the equalisation of educational and developmental chances of children from families of a low material status. The Academy of Common Way realises the first area of direct child support – the formation of

⁴ Only companies co-operating with the Foundation within the framework of Partnership for Children Programme were mentioned, but the Foundation cooperates with many more companies within the scope of other programmes.

social skills and taking care of basic needs through three groups of activities: education, development and social engagement. Direct help means paying for out-of-school activities, a school catching up programme, and children's participation in street pedagogy projects or in activities of the *Światoteka* open club⁵, which thanks to intersectoral co-operation has become a model example worth dissemination.

Each man needs safety, unconditional love, and acceptance to fully experience the joy of life which motivates personal development including education and work. Such basic values helping to create a happy life are normally satisfied by a family. It creates a positive motivation for a child or young person. A child brings their image, sense of themselves, and self-acceptance to every area of life shaping their concept of life and world views (Szuścik 2006: 375). Unfortunately, there are families that are unable to supply proper care; just the contrary quarrels, alcohol, physical and mental violence, and a lack of care and safety are reasons for children escaping to the streets. Then the street supplies the value system and becomes a home for them, becoming their tutor, their school of life, a place to earn money, a place to spend free time during the school year or even during holidays. These children have no other *place on earth* which could support them and where they would feel safe and loved (Belcer, Wojnarowska 2012: 99). The word *street* is a key word in fact, as here street means the whole surroundings of a child, space or all places where children stay or can stay, places they can treat constructively or destructively. So it can be a street literally or it can be a backyard, staircase, basement, attic, residential district with huge blocks of flats, gate, deserted building, railway station, trackway, bunker, old factory or heating duct (Szczepański 2005: 107). And there in the streets street pedagogues find them, to show them other forms of spending free time and teach them how to build relations and function in society in a better way.

Gradually, children in small groups start dealing with the realisation of common artistic or sport projects, preparing an exhibition of self made

⁵ *Światoteka* is a small club for children of worse chances where they can develop their interests and talents and learn thanks to a close-based, full confidence relationship with a pedagogue. The name *Światoteka* is a neologism referring to the goal of its activity – presenting the world in a modern, attractive, approachable and engaging form. Very often *Światoteka* is the first place where young people meet non-governmental organisation offers. It carries such activities as: meeting interesting people, art classes, computer lessons, photography, cooking, creative thinking classes, common film watching followed by discussions, educational games and plays, skill games, logics games, doing homework, and learning support. At the moment three *Światotekas* are operating: two in Warsaw and *Biblioteka-Światoteka* (Library *Światoteka*) in Wrocław. Each year a new group of on average 15 children age 9–17 is formed.

photographs, paint graffiti, learn dancing, or make a film about the footballers of their favourite club. They organise trips to interesting places together.

The result of such activities are as follows: the increase of self-esteem, improved team cooperation skills, improvement of relations with family and peers, gradual acceptance of bidding social standards, and giving up destructive behavior. Every year the Foundation co-operates with the implementation of a few different projects and transfers the financial means for their realisation. It as well encourages organisations from various towns to operate according to a street pedagogy method to start common projects⁶.

Parents of children from poor families are usually unable to pay for extra out-of-school activities and very often do not recognise the need for such activities. Few free of charge activities stimulating child development are available and such a situation is one of the factors causing differences in the development of children from wealthy and poor families.

That is why the Foundation aims at the equalisation of opportunities by financing additional classes within the framework of so-called microsolarships,⁷ which help to catch up at school, develop interests and talents, and widen knowledge. Dancing, sports, acrobatic, art, foreign language and school catch up classes are most popular among the participants of the programme. Regular participation in the classes teaches perseverance and improves a child's self-esteem, educational ambition and development of talents.

ENHANCING THE CHILD SUPPORT SYSTEM

An improvement of the situation of children threatened by marginalisation is only possible thanks to the cooperation of many units acting in favour of children at the national and local level. Non-governmental institutions connected with street pedagogy and local institutions create local coalitions for the support of children, organise training for street pedagogues and carry out analyses and research using personal research tools.

The scale of the marginalisation of children from low material and low cultural status families and the importance of the problem are so high and

⁶ Projects are realized in many cities in Poland among others in Częstochowa, Gdynia, Katowice, Krakow, Radom, Rybnik, Warszawa, Wrocław, Wyszów; during first five years of the programme 71 projects with 951 beneficiaries were realized in 16 Polish towns.

⁷ Annually, the Foundation supports about 30 children from non-governmental organisations in such a way. Thanks to the means transferred by its Partners in the years 2007–2011 the foundation could finance 226 microsolarships for 155 children. At the moment, 100 children participate in a scholarship programme. In 2014 the foundation has already granted 40 microsolarships.

the existing social care system is so inefficient that efficient solutions to this problem should be more local than global. Locally, a given child and their family are more clearly visible, and relatively low funds can cause significant and lasting change in their lives.

Common Way encourages the creation of local coalitions to help children threatened with social marginalisation including local authority units, social care units, non-governmental organisations, judicial institutions, companies, the media and academic circles. The goal of such a coalition is to prepare a model of consistent, integrated activity aiming at the limitation or total elimination of threats which can result in the marginalisation or social exclusion of children from poor families, educationally inefficient families, and families threatened with pathology. The Foundation encourages local communities to cooperate and coordinate the activities of particular units, to exchange information, and to look for solutions that are optimal for a given child, and to create scholarship funds for children based on local company funds and individual funds.

The Foundation supports the child care system as well by training street pedagogues from non-governmental institutions in the whole country. It is a specific kind of work requiring vast knowledge, qualifications and mental toughness and that is why interpersonal training, sociotherapeutic training and a system of supervision while working with children are important elements of such an education.

ACTIVATING LOCAL SOCIETY TO HELP CHILDREN

The third area of activity is the stimulation of the local community within the framework of which employee volunteer work is organised. The Foundation encourages private people, including employees of companies, to take care of the development of children living in poverty and in families where the only form of participation in culture is watching TV and reading free of charge newspapers. Common Way appeals as well to the idea of social solidarity with human sensitivity and empathy, and encourages support of the development of such people through material aid or by offering the time and skills as volunteer work.

The Foundation is trying to direct the attention of society to the situation of children and to the possibilities of help in organising campaigns in the media, the exposition of posters and banners and distributing leaflets. Until now, thanks to the disinterested help of the advertising agencies McCann Erickson and Saatchi&Saatchi, four campaigns have been organised in the

media: *So boring*,⁸ *Children are not rubbish – let us collect them from the streets*,⁹ *The street will not teach the children*,¹⁰ and *Drag children away from the streets*¹¹. The foundation also reaches society by way of the internet page www.dziecipragi.org.pl, which presents projects realised through the method of street pedagogy, and updated information about the realisation of the programme.

Common Way prepares conferences, training and publication concerning dissemination of model solutions and research results for specialists and employees of social care institutions, non-governmental institutions and employees of municipal offices.

Cooperation with companies transferring the financial means necessary to support selected programmes is flourishing. Also: Société Générale helps with scholarships, educational and artistic projects and with *Światoteki*; TNT Express with scholarships, media projects and campaigns; FedEx with projects; and the companies Amgen, Atos, Bricoman, Johnson&Johnson and Mattel provide goods such as cosmetics, school supplies, books and Christmas boxes. PTC S.A. and Carrefour Polska joined the group of partners who ask their clients to offer places that can be used for preparing and serving food to children, and supply educational means and microsolarships within the framework of their own loyalty programmes.

Supporting individual employee volunteer work by creating possibilities to organise leg-up programmes, photography workshops, dancing workshops and team voluntary projects (redcoration of facilities, and the organisation of common trips and events) constitute other forms of activities of Common Way. Every year, business companies give school supplies and Christmas presents to children from the Common Way partnership organisations through *Pierwszy dzwonek* (First School Bell) and *List do Mikołaja* (Letter to Santa) projects.

⁸ This is the first media campaign with a provocative title: *So Boring*, which was carried by the means of large posters, advertising leaflets, and radio and TV spots.

⁹ The goal of this campaign was to support a child care system for children from devalourized communities and to equalise the opportunities for children threatened with marginalisation and social exclusion. A strong and emotional title attracted attention to the problem of children left without any care, appealing for help; the campaign was based on standard means such as posters, advertising leaflets and radio spots.

¹⁰ The campaign realised in 2009 emphasised the possibility and need to use the potential of young people. The campaign was visible all over Warsaw thanks to citilights, leaflets and advertisements in trams.

¹¹ The campaign was realised in conjunction with 11 non-governmental organisations which prepared local campaigns in their areas based on materials transferred by the *Common Way* Foundation United Way Poland.

Nowadays, more and more examples of effective partnerships come out. The cooperation of the Foundation with local government, the business sector, and other non-governmental organisations proves that initiating partnership cooperation can bring lasting effects and end up with strong and effectively functioning cooperation. According to Ros Tennyson *for a partnership to operate effectively and effectively solve problems, it has to be supported by the strong engagement of partners in the development of cooperation and by a strong belief that only partnership cooperation can lead to an appointed goal* (Tennyson 2003: 13).

What are the results of participation in partnership? For children it means catching up at school, increasing self-confidence and an increase of educational aspirations, positive change in family relations, improvement of social functioning and the development of interests and talents. For local community participation in partnership means the possibility of using research tools and model solutions of child support including street pedagogy. For companies it means the possibility of building a coherent and long lasting strategy of social engagement of a company and its employees, building a positive image of the company in the local community and the integration of employees thanks to their volunteer work.

CONCLUSION

The efficient functioning of intersectoral partnership depends on many factors. The most important ones are the proper level of organising and coordinating partnership cooperation, common values and rules, common goals, efficient and transparent management procedures, favourable external conditions.

Ros Tennyson writes in the Partnership Guide: *Partnerships are born as visions in our minds finally becoming history topics presented in various places all over the world. The journey from the idea to realisation starts in our imagination. It is not enough to create a vision – even a very brave one, it is necessary to present it to the others in a way exciting interest and enthusiasm. [...] A story about partnership is a story about adventure, about striving to achieve a goal which is both unique and universal [...] Intersectoral partnerships are not everyday phenomena. True partnership deserves to become the subject of inspiring stories. [...] Talking about partnership we do not have to use flowery language and pompous phrases, still achievements should not be reduced to bare facts. Let your listeners admire your achievements. Show them that partnership is really an ideal you try to achieve* (Tennyson 2003: 34).

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Summary

The idea of intersectoral partnership within the framework of which authorities representing units of local government, economic entities and third sector organisations cooperate to solve complex local and regional problems is winning many supporters. Partnerships are initiated by companies, non-governmental organisations or public institutions and act at a local, regional, national or global level. Intersectoral cooperation rarely becomes an easy and quick solution to problems. Partnership undertakings require determination, perseverance and courage. Each party brings different experiences and skills thanks to which intersectoral cooperation can become sustainable, efficient and effective in a condition that it will be properly designed and managed.

Key words: non-governmental organizations, intersectoral partnership, social problem

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