



**Ilona Pešatová, Beata Szluz,
Paweł Walawender [eds.]**

INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH IN SOCIAL PROBLEM SOLVING

Jan Evangelista Purkyně University

in Ústí nad Labem

**INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH
IN SOCIAL PROBLEM SOLVING**

Ilona Pešatová, Beata Szluz, Paweł Walawender

Editors

Ústí nad Labem, 2015

Ilona Pešatová, Beata Szluz, Paweł Walawender
Editors

Pavel Pešat
Book Designer & Technical Editor

Funding Cooperation

Jan Evangelista Purkyne University in Ústí nad Labem, The Czech Republic;

University of Rzeszow, Poland;

J. Grodek Higher Vocational School in Sanok, Poland;

The Polish Society for Social Policy, Poland;

Foundation for Solving Social Problems "SOCIETATIS", Poland.

Scientific Editor

doc. PhDr. Jiří Škoda, Ph.D.

Reviewers

doc. PhDr. Věra Vojtová, Ph.D.

doc. PhDr. Vratislava Černíková, CSc.

© J. E. Purkyne University in Ústí nad Labem, 2015

ISBN 978-80-7414-986-3 (Print)

ISBN 978-80-7414-987-0 (Online)

DOI: 10.21062/ujep/1.2016/k/978-80-7414-987-0



prof. PhDr. ANNA TOKÁROVÁ, CSc.

GREAT PEOPLE CREATE GREAT THINGS,
GOOD PEOPLE CREATE PERMANENT THINGS
VELKÍ TVORIA VELKÉ VĚCI, DOBRÍ - TRVÁCNE
WIELCY TWORZĄ WIELKIE RZECZY, DOBRZY TRWAŁE
VELCÍ LIDÉ TVOŘÍ VELKÉ VĚCI, DOBRÍ LIDÉ TVOŘÍ VĚCI TRVALÉ

Marie von Ebner-Eschenbach

Ilona Pešatová, PhD,

Associate Professor, J. E. Purkyne University in Ústí nad Labem (The Czech Republic),
Faculty of Education, Department of Pedagogy;

Beata Szluz, PhD,

Associate Professor, University of Rzeszow (Poland), Vice-Dean for Sciences, Faculty of
Sociology and History, Institute of Sociology, Department of Sociology of Social Problems;

Paweł Walawender, PhD,

Pedagogical University of Cracow (Poland), Faculty of Humanities, Institute of Philosophy
and Sociology, Department of Social Research Methodology.

How to Cite this Book (ISO)

PEŠATOVÁ, I., SZLUZ, B., WALAWENDER, P., eds., 2015. *Interdisciplinary Approach in Social Problem Solving*. 1st ed. Ústí nad Labem: Univerzita J. E. Purkyne v Ústí nad Labem. ISBN 978-80-7414-986-3.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.21062/ujep/1.2016/k/978-80-7414-987-0>.

How to Cite a Chapter in this Book (ISO)

Koral, J., 2015. Cross-Sectoral Partnership – an Opportunity for Solving Chosen Social Problems by Catholic Parishes in Poland. In: PEŠATOVÁ, I., SZLUZ, B., WALAWENDER, P., eds., 2015. *Interdisciplinary Approach in Social Problem Solving*. 1st ed. Ústí nad Labem: Univerzita J. E. Purkyne v Ústí nad Labem. pp. 9–15. ISBN 978-80-7414-986-3.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.21062/ujep/2.2016/k/978-80-7414-987-0/0009>.

How to Cite this Book (APA)

Pešatová, I., Szluz, B. & P. Walawender (Eds.). (2015). *Interdisciplinary Approach in Social Problem Solving*. Ústí nad Labem: Univerzita J. E. Purkyne v Ústí nad Labem.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.21062/ujep/1.2016/k/978-80-7414-987-0>.

How to Cite a Chapter in this Book (APA)

Koral, J. (2015). Cross-Sectoral Partnership – an Opportunity for Solving Chosen Social Problems by Catholic Parishes in Poland. In Pešatová, I., Szluz, B. & P. Walawender (Eds.), *Interdisciplinary Approach in Social Problem Solving* (pp. 9–15). Ústí nad Labem: Univerzita J. E. Purkyne v Ústí nad Labem.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.21062/ujep/2.2016/k/978-80-7414-987-0/0009>.

INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH IN SOCIAL PROBLEM SOLVING

Interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approach in social problems solving is the unifying element of the monograph aimed at organizing the process of support, training and mobilization of individuals and groups in their environment and, finally, at improving the quality of common social life. This is discussed in the context of transformation of the society in three nearby countries – Poland, the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic. Contemporary scientific findings are presented with accent to the multidisciplinary approach and broad interdisciplinary cooperation that uniquely opens the way in forward direction. The monograph is intended for a wide community of experts in academic world as well as for governmental and nongovernmental organisations. Furthermore, students in humanities and social science fields as well as volunteers and nonprofessional public might find it useful.

Throughout the monograph, an emphasis is laid on linking social welfare, health care and education. There are accented both interdisciplinary cooperation and supporting systems that help to integrate and mobilize individuals and groups in risk of exclusion or marginalization. The contemporary situation is prefaced by the rich tradition of social movements, solidarity and local communities and NGOs development. Authors reflect the change in approach to volunteering that participates in solving various social problems Practical recommendations that are included in the conclusions of contributions point to the major role played by the partnership and cross-sectoral cooperation of partners involved in finding solutions of thorny social problems.

The socio-cultural level of each society might be, inter alia, measured and evaluated by the range of care given to its citizens with disabilities. This monograph is a tangible proof of the interest and effort given to the delivery of standard care to all individuals who need certain form of help or support.

This monograph is dedicated to the memory of prof. PhDr. Anna Tokárová, CSc., for her contribution to the development of social pedagogy and social work.

Ilona Pešatová, on behalf of authors

Contents

INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH IN SOCIAL PROBLEM SOLVING	3
List of Contents	7
<i>Jarosław Koral</i> Cross-Sectoral Partnership – an Opportunity for Solving Chosen Social Problems by Catholic Parishes in Poland	9
<i>Tadeusz Kamiński</i> Cooperation Between the State and Churches in the Provision of Social Assistance in Poland	16
<i>Magda Urbańska</i> Support for Foster and Adoptive Families in the Local Community Based on the Example of the City of Rzeszów	25
<i>Tomasz Przesławski</i> Post-Penitentiary Assistance in Poland.....	33
<i>Arkadiusz Żukiewicz</i> Man Within a Holistic Perspective – an Interdisciplinary Reference to the Problems of Everyday Life.....	40
<i>Elżbieta Mirewska, Katarzyna Ornacka, Katarzyna Żuraw</i> Local Partnership as a Network Organisation – an Analysis of Selected Theoretical and Application Problems	48
<i>Elżbieta Bojanowska</i> The Elderly Care and Assistance System	58
<i>Krzysztof Wojaczek</i> Creating an Environment of Family Support in the Area of Cooperation of the Church, Aid Institutions and Schools	66
<i>Martyna Kawińska</i> Family Policy and the New Demography of Europe – Contemporary Challenges and Experience Exchange Platform.....	75
<i>Marzena Kruk</i> Inter-Sectoral Dialog for Migrants, Based on the Example of Lubelskie Voivodeship	86
<i>Marta Komorska</i> Intersectoral Cooperation in the Area of the Fight Against Social Exclusion of Children and Youth.....	93
<i>Malwina Misiąg</i> The Interdisciplinary Team as an Example of Inter-Sectoral Cooperation – Family Violence Prevention Including Violence Against Women .	102
<i>Anna Andrzejewska-Cioch</i> Intersectoral Partnership in Work with a Grieving Family after a Death by Suicide.....	111
<i>Izabela Krasiejko, Lidia Zeller</i> Multi-professional Support of Families Through Cooperation of a Non-Governmental Organisation with the Public Sector: Advantages and Risks	120
<i>Bożena Tuziak</i> The Authority of a Regional Governing Body and Its Relationship with the Social Environment in a Local Development Sphere	131
<i>Ewelina Kleszcz-Ciupka, Piotr Frączek</i> Selected Aspects of a Non-Governmental Organization’s Activities through the Example of the St. Brother Albert Aid Society in Sanok.....	142
<i>Anna Kanios</i> Cross-Sectoral Partnership as a Factor in the Development of Local Communities	152
<i>Łukasz Cywiński, Krzysztof Czekaj</i> Cross-Sectoral Partnership for Solving Social Problems and Promoting Social Work: A Natural Need or a Necessity?	163
<i>Pavel Pešat</i> Digital Technology in Social Problem Solving.....	183

<i>Agnieszka Pawłowska</i> Local Government as an Actor in Collaborative Governance – Partner or Leader?	193
<i>Beata Witek</i> Participatory Research Collaboration Between the University and Its Surroundings for the Advancement of Local Development	201
<i>Iryna Myschyshyn</i> “CARITAS Ukraine” Activity as an Example of Productive Activities of the Third Sector in the Sphere of Social Work	212
<i>Beata Szluz</i> Cooperation for the Prevention of Homelessness Using Examples of Selected Countries of the European Union	223
<i>Paweł Walawender</i> Social Economy Cluster as an Exemplary Implementation of the Idea of Inter-Sectoral Cooperation	234
Summary in English	242
Souhrn v češtině	243
Podsumowanie w języku polskim	244
Note on the Authors	245
Index	247

Cross-Sectoral Partnership – an Opportunity for Solving Chosen Social Problems by Catholic Parishes in Poland

Jarosław Koral

Abstract

This reflection will attempt to present the new social challenges that we perceive in Polish reality, in order to highlight on this background the possibilities and forms of parish communities' involvement in solving concrete social problems. In other words, we will seek an answer to the question: whether the difficult and dynamic reality of political transformation (from communism to democracy) has generated some initiatives for priests and the Catholic laity in solving severe social problems.

Key words: cross-sectoral partnership, social problems, catholic parishes

Introduction

The complex and multi-faceted problems affecting individuals, whole families, or other groups benefiting from social assistance require an involvement and cooperation of professionals from different institutions and organisations of the public sector, of the market or the NGOs. None of these sectors should be prioritised, but all should be given 'equal chance' to shape social policy. Each one of them fulfils a specific function, therefore they can complement each other and which is possible only in an atmosphere of cooperation. Cross-sectoral cooperation is an important factor in stimulating the local and regional development. The systematic cooperation of specialists from different institutions is becoming a necessity today. More and more it attracts the attention of many European governments, including Poland. It stems from the observation that a lack of integration between the services provided by the different institutions does not serve the interests of the beneficiaries, their families, or caregivers. Many local self-governments and social benefit organisations are aware that an accomplishment of significant long-term enterprises for the solution of social problems requires cooperation on different subjects. One such institution is certainly a Catholic parish, that gather together the Catholic laity and becomes an essential and most efficient centre of pastoral activities. While analysing the role and the function of the parish towards contemporary problems, T. Kamiński states: *To show mercy, every single Christian has many opportunities in everyday life to do charitable acts. Yet nowadays there are more and more problems which require communal work, a well-organised action, while at the same time does not destroy individual initiative and zeal. A parish should be perceived as a place that is indispensable and always full of new opportunities to practice mercy. On this land lay activity can and should be developed, aiming at solving social problems. Since a parish is the Church among its people, its life and activity is inseparably linked with human society, and also with the temporal anxieties and concerns. Thus on the one hand, it is in the parish where an active Christian finds their place in the Church, and on the other hand every person in need can find the necessary help and support. It stems directly from the logic of the community of the Church* (Kamiński 1997: 100). Therefore, for each and every

Christian in a parish there is a wide field of activity to practice different forms of charity. If this statement is true, then another must also be true, that is: every Christian (a parishioner) must be encouraged to practice charity if only they are able to do so.

This reflection will attempt to present the new social challenges that we perceive in Polish reality, in order to highlight on this background the possibilities and forms of parish communities' involvement in solving concrete social problems. In other words, we will seek an answer to the question: whether the difficult and dynamic reality of political transformation (from communism to democracy) has generated some initiatives for priests and the Catholic laity in solving severe social problems.

Unemployment

Since 1989, the main problem resulting from the social, economic, and political transformation in Poland is the phenomenon of unemployment, which directly affects wide groups of society. Unemployment has become the most serious problem of the state and society, and is a challenge for the Polish economy. Rapidly growing unemployment in the first years of the transformation, together with its effects, cannot go unnoticed (cfr. Kmiecik-Baran 2009: 129-133). It is even perceived as a social disaster, affecting individuals, as well as families and whole social groups. Today unemployment has been permanently inscribed in the landscape of Polish society and economy, bringing about many threats and negative consequences (cfr. Koral 1998: 77). The unemployed require immediate, concrete and solid assistance from the whole of society; they need stability together with a clear and a logical perspective for economic development. The accumulation of problems stemming from unemployment is impossible to solve through financial aid only. What is necessary is to create and implement a complex program of assistance for the unemployed that would take into consideration their psychological, cultural, religious and emotional needs. It is here that we find the most appropriate place for the activity of the parish community (cfr. Zimoń 2002: 34). The unemployed, who suffer from poverty, most often benefit from extemporaneous material aid such as food, clothing, and footwear. Support in this type of assistance is relatively easy to organise and already has a long tradition in Poland. Parishioners are generally willing to bring food, clothing that is used but still in excellent condition, and household appliances to designated places. New forms of assistance to the unemployed should also be noted (cfr. Wolański 2004: 144-158). In some parishes, clubs for the unemployed have begun to operate in unused catechetical rooms or other spaces. Its goal is occupying the free time of people who have been deprived of work, the mutual exchange of experience, acquiring new skills and reasonable entertainment. In many cases, these clubs often become places for job placement and professional activation. A parish must constantly prove that it did not abandon the unemployed in difficult times, that it assists them and is willing to help. It seems that conditions in Poland, due to weakness of the state, the parish community must dynamically act more effectively in the field of retraining and vocational training. In the parish qualified professionals can always be found who are willing to share their experience and offer advice in the fields of law, psychology, or economy (cfr. Tranda: 2011). The

parish must now school their members in the theory and attitude of solidarity with the unemployed and their families through the development of volunteering.

The indigent and extremely poor

Poverty in the case of an actual person most often means the absence or significant limitation of resources, capable of satisfying the basic needs for existential living. Yet we need not forget, however, that this problem also applies to the inner life of an individual. Systematic research confirms that there is a growing number of people living in poverty, or on the edge of poverty in Poland; more pronounced is the gap between the rich and the poor (cfr. Koral 2009: 129). One can enumerate the following among the factors that generate poverty: unemployment, alcoholism in the family, large families, helplessness in the face of challenge, handicap, criminality, malnutrition, low education level, difficult housing situation, old age, and disorganised family life. The main effects of poverty are: a feeling of social injustice, a feeling of deprivation, the impossibility of satisfying one's needs, family disintegration, growing delinquency, health problems, rising conflict in families, and marginalisation in terms of social and cultural life (cfr. Kawczyńska-Butrym 2003: 17).

The assistance given to the poor by the parish first of all includes the distribution of food and clothing, so-called immediate aid (cfr. Kraszewski 1999: 19). An important and widely appreciated form of help, especially in cities, is soup kitchens, where the disadvantaged can receive a balanced meal for free or for a small fee. Where possible, parishes finance meals in schools and kindergartens for children who come from poor families, and they also organise summer camps for them (cfr. Tranda: 2011). Often, poor families are given food vouchers that can be used in select shops. Where possible, financial help is also given—usually only once, but it may sometimes become continual. Parish communities buy fuel for wintertime and prepare food parcels for Easter and Christmas (cfr. Węgrzynowicz 2002: 17–18). Nowadays, parishes help the poor by buying medicines, coursebooks and exercise books or by paying the bills. Many families face problems when it comes to paying for electricity, water or gas. Sometimes, as a result of an accumulation of debts, they are threatened with eviction from their flats. In order to help these people, the parish either pays some part of the debt or guarantees the payment of the debt to the housing association. In many cases parishes organise different kinds of services, e.g. medical, dental, hairdresser, etc.

Alcoholism

In the most general terms, it is a social illness caused by the excessive consumption of alcoholic drinks which leads to physical and mental degeneration. It is often cyclic drinking which is done in order to experience the psychological influence of alcohol, and sometimes just to avoid the unpleasant consequences of withdrawal (cfr. *To nie jest tylko twój problem*). In the core of this illness there is a psychological and physical dependence on the drug that is alcohol. An increase in the consumption of alcohol is usually noticed in the areas of increased social hazard and among the unemployed. Alcoholism is also closely related to delinquency, since

under its influence most of the following crimes are committed: murder, involuntary manslaughter, injuries, scrimmages and assaults, rape and theft.

The consumption of alcohol in Poland increased significantly in the 1980's, almost 7 litres of pure spirits per year per capita. Between 1989 and 1994, it was 10.5 litres, while nowadays it is 13.6 litres. As stated in the report "Economical aspects of drinking alcohol in Europe and in Poland", Poland is leading Europe in alcohol consumption. The average consumption of alcohol in the EU is 12.45 litres, while globally it is less, precisely 6.13 litres. The report mentions other appalling data: Poland annually spends 15.23 billion Euros to cover the social costs of alcohol abuse. Alcoholism often leads to death, serious injury, loss of work, and contributes to an increase in delinquency (cfr. *Polacy w alkoholowej czotówce Europy. Niechlubne statystyki 2013*). In Poland it is estimated that there are approximately 1.5–2.8 million individuals addicted to alcohol. While it is true that Poles drink less spirits, yet at the same time they consume more beer and wine. A very worrying phenomenon is that the age of persons who drink is getting lower. Research has proved that children in elementary school aged 6 to 9 have already tried alcohol. Alcoholism is a socially harmful phenomenon, causing serious economical, moral, and health damages (cfr. Koral 2000: 107–108). These affect individuals as well as entire families. Estimated data reports that approximately 5 million Poles regularly abuse alcohol, with 1.5 million of them already being addicted.

The most common form of assistance for those addicted to alcohol is the group Alcoholics Anonymous. Each AA group has so-called open meetings where everyone can attend. Such meetings are organised once a month and during a meeting can become more familiar with the illness, its mechanisms, and effects (cfr. Anonimowi Alkoholicy). In many parishes there are also occupational therapies directed to a wide spectrum of people. An important part of parish activity are preventive camps based on a religious program, sport camps based on sobriety mottos, pilgrimages to sanctuaries, and specialised meetings and retreats. A parish community should operate – where possible – a community centre with a therapy program for children whose parents are addicted to alcohol. In a parish it is recommended to promote family celebrations without alcohol – especially religious ones such as baptisms, weddings, jubilees or first Communions. Obviously parishes help all children who come from alcoholic families by distributing food, clothing and footwear, books and school supplies, scholarships, and financing holidays and school trips. Helping those addicted to alcohol is difficult and requires technical preparation. Without adequate information and experience it can do more harm than good. The same is valid for each member of the affected family. One should act with understanding, gentleness, and kindness towards such people. In general, anti-alcoholic activity in parishes faces many social and psychological problems as it is not easy to change deeply rooted habits. Nevertheless, this work is absolutely necessary in order to prevent effects and threats brought about by alcoholism.

Homelessness

It is a serious problem found in almost every country in the world, rich or poor. The phenomenon is enhanced not only by poor political, economic and social

relationships, but also by natural calamities that happen around the globe. Homelessness in Poland became a serious problem after 1989 as a result of political transformation and the collapse of the welfare state. According to common sense, a homeless person is one who lives on the street and has no shelter. On the other hand, A. Przymeński, an expert in this area, defines homelessness as *the situation of a person who at this very moment doesn't have, and cannot provide themselves with such shelter that could be considered one's own, and that would meet the minimum conditions which allow it to be called a residential space* (Przymeński 1997: 30). The causes of homelessness could be divided in two categories: objective and subjective. In the first category one would count: alcoholism, drug addiction, prostitution, divorce and rejection by the family, growing poverty, AIDS, and eviction from temporary residential houses. Subjective reasons for homelessness are usually: lack of independence, demoralisation, addiction, illness and multi-faceted life problems. Homeless people can be usually found in large cities, which are commonly considered as an attractive environment for the development of the contemporary man. In cities it is much easier to obtain the necessary means for living and to survive the difficult periods during autumn and winter. In the countryside the phenomenon is not so common, although there are cases of extremely poor existence in ruined houses, lofts, cellars, pigsties and cowsheds.

Knowledge of the problems faced is the basis for effective help by pastors. Why is there hardly any pastoral care for the homeless and for the volunteers working with them? What is the main obstacle, and where can it be found? Pastors have to take into consideration that the Christian life of the homeless is as equally differentiated as in the rest of the society. A homeless individual, humiliated in their humanity, with a sense of rejection, would rarely come to a temple to pray with others. They would rather stay outside, in the square in front of a church. Whereas strengthening faith in the fact that God loved man for themselves gives them the power to assume the battle for their dignity. In this case the Church has an important role. Of course material or medical assistance is necessary, yet without the reconstruction of self-confidence, a trust in others, and in God, it will never be possible to return homeless people to society and to the Church. A homeless person needs to see and feel that a priest is with them by choice and not because he is constrained by his function. Service to people so deeply wounded must be authentic in its foundation. There is therefore a need for an attitude of love for thy neighbour in the homeless environment. A homeless individual is not a second-class citizen, but the same as others – having the same human rights and therefore a right to residency.

The Catholic Church has been working for the homeless in many ways. The most common form of work is operating houses for homeless men and women. They work either as a dormitory or as all-day accommodation. An example of this is a dormitory for 87 men called *Przystań (The Haven)* operated by Caritas in the Archdiocese of Warsaw. Approximately 700 people benefit from this assistance annually. The institution provides shelter, meals for the sick, tea and bread for everyone; and sometimes some additional food when the benefactors offer it. When there is vacant room everyone is accepted, but one has to meet the requirements and set their time of stay. In the institution there is pastoral help (in the form of a priest who is also the director), social and educational help. Besides the priest in charge

and co-workers, there is a nun, a psychologist and a social worker. There are also a few volunteers (AA members), a lawyer, and parish choir members. In the institution all these people serve the homeless in regaining their autonomy. A stay in the house can last up to 3 months; in wintertime even longer. Those persons who have undertaken rehab, those who have applied for a pension or are awaiting a flat – can prolong their stay. It is also valid for retired persons, those raised in an orphanage, or prisoners who have just been released from penal facilities. In the institution it is forbidden to use alcohol and/or drugs, or to even bring them into the dormitory (cfr. *Parafia św. Andrzeja Boboli w Białymstoku*).

In many parishes the homeless can receive free medicine, clean clothes, and basic medical care. Often they can find rehab therapy, and legal or administrative counselling. Very often parishes arrange Christmas and Easter meals for the homeless, which has a very high turnout (cfr. *Wigilia u bezdomnych 2013*). In Poland, the most common form of assistance for the homeless is a wide network of soup kitchens, beaneries, and diners that serve meals on-site or as takeaway. It is not only very important to give the homeless extemporaneous help but also provide them with proper therapy. To this end, several parish branches of Caritas, in cooperation with the communities in some cities, have organised treatment centres for the homeless. When funds are scarce, the homeless are provided with only a bathroom and a shower; beaneries function thanks to generous parishioners and bakeries who supply them bread free of charge. Everyone can help such diners by leaving food in a special dropbox. In some places, Medical Clinics operated by a doctor and a nurse have sprung up next to beaneries. In such places first aid and medical counselling is given to not only those benefiting from the beanery, but also to anyone in need (cfr. Tranda: 2011). A common denominator of both the homelessness and unemployment is increasing poverty, and thus a lack of the basic necessities of life.

Conclusion

The above mentioned social problems: unemployment, poverty, alcoholism, delinquency and homelessness together create a group of problems that occur in most Polish parishes. The examples presented above, and suggestions for action, clearly show that parishes can really play an important role in solving complex social problems. The assistance given by the parish is mostly an extemporaneous action that is dominant in comparison with organised and stable forms. Parishes often have to face a lack of personnel and experience, since most of the people who provide help are volunteers, without any professional prerequisites. In spite of these drawbacks, the social action of the parish is based on the foundation of the Christian principle of love thy neighbour and the inner call to help the needy. It is clear that urban parishes, compared with rural parishes, provide a much greater commitment to addressing social problems and also provide wider access to diverse activities. Numerous scientific studies have proven the fact that the Polish parish is still an appropriate place to practice Christian charity to those in need.

Bibliography

- Anonimowi Alkoholicy, *Wspólnota Anonimowych Alkoholików*,
<http://www.parafiaminsk.pl/grupy-parafialne/anonimowi-alkoholicy>, date access:
04.12.2013.
- Kamiński T. (1997), *Parafia wobec problemów społecznych*, „Chrześcijanin w Świecie” 203, ISSN
01377965.
- Kawczyńska-Butrym Z. (2003), *Życie rodziny w enklawach ubóstwa, wybrane zagadnienia* [in.]
Kalinowski M. (ed.) *Srodowiska specjalnej troski*, Polihymnia, Lublin, ISBN 8372701946.
- Kmieciak-Baran K. (2009), *Bezrobocie czynnikiem marginalizacji i ubóstwa*, Wydawnictwo
Uniwersytetu Gdańskiego, Gdańsk, ISBN 9788373265776.
- Koral J. (1998), *Bezrobocie przyczyną pogłębiającego się ubóstwa w społeczeństwie polskim*,
„Roczniki Naukowe Caritas - Ubóstwo” 2, ISBN 8390965402.
- Koral J. (2000), *Podstawy działalności charytatywnej Kościoła na przykładzie organizacji Caritas*,
Poligrafia Salezjańska, Kraków, ISBN 838647386X.
- Koral J. (2009), *Kulturowe aspekty polskiego bezrobocia*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Kardynała
Stefana Wyszyńskiego, Warszawa, ISBN 9788370725495.
- Kraszewski K. (1999), *Pomagać czy służyć*, „Caritas. Kwartalnik poświęcony pracy
charytatywnej” 1, ISSN 12314277.
- Parafia św. Andrzeja Boboli w Białymstoku*,
http://www.abobola.aplus.pl/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=202&Itemid=37, date access: 07.12.2013.
- Polacy w alkoholowej czołówce Europy. Niechlubne statystyki* (2013)
<http://www.gazetakrakowska.pl/artykul/910026,polacy-w-alkoholowej-czolowce-europy-niechlubne-statystyki,id,t.html>, date access: 04.12.2013.
- Przymeński A. (1997), *Geografia i skala zjawiska bezdomności w Polsce*, „Rocznik Naukowy
Caritas - Bezdomność” 1, ISBN 8390965402.
- To nie jest tylko twój problem!* http://www.alkoholizm.info.pl/art_alkoholizm.html, date
access: 27.11.2013.
- Trada H. (2011), *Kościół wobec bezrobocia, bezdomności, patologii społecznej*,
<http://www.magazyn.ekumenizm.pl/content/article/20110929145740295.htm>, date access:
10.12.2013.
- Węgrzynowicz A. (2002), *Brakuje rąk do pracy*, „Caritas. Kwartalnik poświęcony pracy
charytatywnej” 1, ISSN 12314277.
- Wigilia u bezdomnych* 2013,
[http://www.zabno.diecezja.tarnow.pl/index.php/component/content/article/8-
nowoci/newsy/2516-jubileuszowa-wigilia-w-domu-dla-bezdomnych-mezczyzn-caritas-
diecezji-tarnowskiej](http://www.zabno.diecezja.tarnow.pl/index.php/component/content/article/8-nowoci/newsy/2516-jubileuszowa-wigilia-w-domu-dla-bezdomnych-mezczyzn-caritas-diecezji-tarnowskiej), date access: 08.12.2013.
- Wolański B. (2004), *Bezrobocie jako wyzwanie dla Kościoła w Polsce*, „Perespectiva. Legnickie
Studia Teologiczno-Historyczne”, rok III, nr 1, ISSN 17304172.
- Zimoń D. (2002), *List pasterski: Kościół katolicki na Śląsku wobec bezrobocia*, „Roczniki Naukowe
Caritas”, ISBN 8390965402.

Cooperation Between the State and Churches in the Provision of Social Assistance in Poland

Tadeusz Kamiński

Abstract

The purpose of the article is to present the key legal provisions relating to cooperation between the state and Churches in the social legislation of Poland. On the basis of analysed regulations, specific examples of cooperation will be provided, especially at the local level. As partners of public administration, not only will entities associated to the Catholic Church be presented but also the Orthodox Church and Protestant Churches.

Key words: cooperation, state, churches, social assistance

Introduction

The purpose of the article is to present the key legal provisions relating to cooperation between the state and Churches in the social legislation of Poland. On the basis of analysed regulations, specific examples of cooperation will be provided, especially at the local level. As partners of public administration, not only will entities associated to the Catholic Church be presented but also the Orthodox Church and Protestant Churches.

The Legal Framework of Cooperation

According to Polish legislation which is in force, Churches are allowed to establish organisations that are working against, among other things, social pathologies and their effects. They can carry out charitable and care activities, which are legally equal to the activity with similar purposes conducted by state institutions. In order to carry out their charitable and care activities, Churches have the right to establish and operate institutions such as nursing homes, hospitals, daycare centres for children, and to also propagate charity and encourage assistance for people in need (cf. Act of 17th May 1989)¹. Detailed provisions governing the rules of their operations and cooperation with the state are laid down in the acts of law on social assistance and related services. The fact that both the Polish law on religious denominations and social legislation include regulations on the charitable and care activities of Churches and other religious associations is not surprising given that this kind of activity is one of the main domains of non-religious services provided by religious associations in Poland (cf. Zarzycki 2005: 79). The present study purposefully presents its subject not in chronological order, but rather in a logical problem-related way.

¹ Cf. *The Act of 17th May 1989, on the Guarantees of Freedom of Conscience and Religion*, and regulations on the relationship between the State and the Churches, including the Catholic Church, Orthodox, Evangelical Reformed and Evangelical Church of the Augsburg Confession (Evangelical-Augsburg Church). Altogether, fifteen Churches in Poland have separate legal regulations governing their relations with the State.

According to the first of the social acts, already issued in its original form at the beginning of the transformation of the political system in Poland (in 1990), social assistance is provided for those in need by public centres run by local and central governments, in partnership with Churches (Act of 12 March 2004)². The state assigns tasks to Churches within the range of social assistance and allocates grants for their realisation. This is made on the basis of open competitive bidding. Churches are allowed to run residential care homes, care and specialised counselling centres, and crisis intervention centres. In accordance with the provisions of the *Act of 9 June 2011 on Family Support and Foster Care System* they can work with a family in the form of consultation, guidance, therapy, mediation and legal help. They can also organise daily or twenty-four hour care in educational care centres. A special part of their support activities for children is the responsibility for organising foster family care and adoption procedures. These services could also be provided by Church institutions.

Important spheres of help for those in need are solutions for persons socially excluded or at risk of social exclusion. We should mention here the *Act of 13 June 2003 on Social Employment* and the *Act of 27 April 2006 on Social Cooperatives*. Under the first act, Church institutions are entitled to initiate and operate centres and clubs for the purpose of social integration. The services of such centres are specially intended for homeless people, those who have been unemployed for a long period of time, those addicted to alcohol and/or other drugs, and also disabled persons; in short, typical recipients of help provided by Churches. A social cooperative is an association of persons united voluntarily to operate for the social and professional reintegration of their members. The subject of its operation is a common enterprise based on the personal work of its members. Under the Act on Social Cooperatives, one of the entities authorised to establish social cooperatives are Church juridical entities.

The *Act of 27 August 1997 on Vocational and Social Rehabilitation and Employment of Disabled Persons* makes it possible for Churches to organise and operate occupational therapy workshops and rehabilitation holidays. In addition, these entities are allowed to establish organisationally and financially separate units, and to achieve occupational activity centre status for them. Under the *Act of 20 April 2004 on Promotion of Employment and Institutions of the Labour Market*, Church entities are entitled to operate institutions such as placement and professional training services in the labour market. We should also mention the *Act of 30 August 1991 on Health Care Facilities* which makes it possible for Churches to operate nursing and healing centres, medicinal rehabilitation centres, and hospices. Some authors also include alcohol and drug detoxification centres, rehabilitation centres for drug addicts and medicinal-educational centres in the system of health care (cf. Golinowska 2002/2003: 51).

The most important for the analysed subject is the *Act of 23 April 2003 on Public Benefit and Volunteer Work* which defines the concept of a public benefit activity and volunteer work, specifies the areas of this activity and regulates the relationship

² Such a regulation is included in the Act on Social Assistance of 12 March 2004 in force.

between state and non-public sector entities, and thus, also Church organisations. The cooperation mainly includes:

- a) Contracting the implementation of public tasks to religious entities;
- b) Mutual sharing of information on planned areas of activity;
- c) Consulting of intended normative acts on a registered scope of activity;
- d) Consulting of projects of normative acts on public tasks with councils of public benefit activities established by appropriate units of territorial self-government.

An analysis of presented legal regulations supports the opinion that the Polish State increasingly tends to share its tasks of social assistance with non-government and Church organisations. It is, according to Zdzisław Zarzycki, the applicability of the rule of subsidiarity (cf. Zarzycki 2005: 76–77). It is worth noticing that the possibility, or even the necessity, of cooperation between the state and Churches in the area of assistance for those in need results not only from the legal regulations quoted above. Also, the Churches themselves acknowledge in their policy documents the validity of the cooperation. The following recommendation of the Second Polish Plenary Synod is a good example: ‘In the field of charity, cooperation should be increased with self-government and central administration bodies. The cooperation obliges Church institutions to conscientiously fulfil their tasks (*Posługa charytatywne Kościoła*: 2001). The recommendation resulted from the opinion expressed in the same document that, thus far, the cooperation had been insufficient (cf. *Posługa charytatywne Kościoła*: 2001). The reasons of this state of affairs lie on both sides as the legal situation created at the beginning of political transformation in Poland was new for both sides and there was no coherent and transparent model of cooperation worked out.

In the next part of the article I am going to present selected examples on how this cooperation was realised in practice.

Examples of Cooperation

The three largest Church organisations active in the field of social assistance in Poland are: the Catholic ‘Caritas’, the Orthodox ‘Eleos’, and the Evangelical ‘Diakonia’³. We should remember, however, that the scale and range of activity of individual Churches is a consequence of the denominational structure of the Polish population. Since the vast majority of Polish people are Catholic, it comes as no surprise that it is the Catholic Church that carries out a large portion of charitable and philanthropic works. Orthodox and Evangelical organisations operate on a much smaller scale, yet it is noteworthy that even very small religious communities can do charitable work, even if it is only within a small fraction of public assistance⁴. For our present purpose, however, it is enough to name these three largest organisations.

³ In my presentation I use the data published in: (Kamiński 2012).

⁴ A good example could be the activity of Churches that are members of the Evangelical Alliance in Poland, described in: (Karaś: 2013).

a) Caritas

Caritas is a charitable organisation of the Catholic Church; its Polish roots reach back to the 1920s. In 1950, by a decision of Communist authorities, Caritas was dissolved as a Church organisation. It was restored to life in 1989, at the threshold of political transformation. Nowadays, it includes: Caritas Polska, forty four diocesan branches of Caritas and numerous parish and community sections (for instance, Caritas School Clubs). Its separate legal personality was established by the *Act of 17 May 1989, on the State's Attitude to the Catholic Church in the Polish People's Republic*.

Caritas is a good example of an institution which soon accommodated itself to the new legal situation and even exhibits a great deal of innovations. Reports from some diocesan Caritas branches reveal that it is a reliable partner of local administration and in some cases (like aid to the homeless) also of central administration. Among the state entities cooperating with Caritas are: the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Administration, the State Fund for the Rehabilitation of Disabled Persons, and the Chancellery of the Senate or Agricultural Market Agency. Local self-government includes Town and District Halls, District Family Support Centres and Marshal's Offices. Other partnering institutions are: Education Offices and Representatives for Solving Alcohol-Related Problems. Tasks include operating establishments, but also the implementation of thematic programmes, conducting of training courses and other occasional actions.

For example, Caritas of the Diocese of Zielona Góra–Gorzów was given three tasks by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy: *Diocesan Network of Senior Citizen Clubs 'Alternative Autumn'* (the grant was 190 900 PLN); *Development of the Potential of Non-Governmental Organisations* (the grant was 62 016.22 PLN); *Let Them Speak Up – Counteracting against Exclusion of Children and Adolescents* (the grant was 40 280 PLN). The largest individual grant endowment (480 205.15 PLN) was made by the Marshal's Office of Lubusz Voivodeship from the financial means of the European Social Funds for the innovative project: *You Will Know Them by Their Fruits – Social Economy in Caritas*. In addition, this Caritas performed tasks set out by the Office of the Representative for Solving Alcohol-Related Problems in Zielona Góra, which included running daycare centres and clubs for children, and organising summer holidays for children (two assignments supported by a total subsidy of 121 100 PLN). Worthy of notice is also the cooperation between Caritas of Zielona Góra and Gorzów with the Lubusz Education Office that in 2010 assigned two-module tasks:

- 1) *The Youth Retrace Footsteps to Freedom*;
- 2) *I Know My Rights*, endowed with a grant of 9 300 PLN (cf. *Sprawozdanie roczne z działalności Caritas Diecezji Zielonogórsko-Gorzowskiej za 2010: 19–20*).

Caritas of the Diocese of Sosnowiec received significant support from local municipal offices, and also from the Voivodeship Office of Silesia and the Marshal's Office in Katowice, for houses and shelters for homeless persons in Będzin, Dąbrowa Górnicza and Sosnowiec. The total cost of these projects was 869 433.99 PLN, while the amount of public subsidies was 730 725.05 PLN (cf. *Sprawozdanie merytoryczne z działalności Caritas Diecezji Sosnowieckiej w 2009: 10*).

In 2009, Caritas of the Diocese of Siedlce operated an interesting training programme in cooperation with local public administration; the programme

included a training course of qualification improvement for volunteers – counsellors in recreational centres for children and adolescents (at the Siedlce Town Hall request), and also training courses for candidates for volunteers (at the request of the Marshal's Office of the Masovian Region) (cf. *Sprawozdanie merytoryczne Caritas Diecezji Siedleckiej z działalności pożytku publicznego za rok 2009*: 8).

Not only Diocesan Caritas organisations, but also parish branches are recognised and valued subjects of the local social support system, as is testified by their activity being included in local strategies for solving social problems (*Strategia rozwiązywania problemów społecznych 2011*: 13⁵; *Strategia rozwiązywania problemów społecznych 2006-2011*: 30). Elżbieta Firlit draws our attention to the fact that in the 1990s a majority of parishes established cooperation with *secular centres of care and social assistance in order to coordinate various relief operations at the local level* (Firlit 2003: 162). Thus, it has become a *sui generis* standard practice to financially support activities of parish daycare centres for children, soup kitchens for the poor or parish seniors' clubs. Similarly, parishes also organise summer and winter holidays for children from poor families and are supported by local authorities.

b) Eleos

Among the Orthodox charity organisations in Poland that are worth special notice is the Eleos—Orthodox Centre of Mercy of the Diocese of Białystok-Gdańsk. It was founded on 15 June 1996, and under the regulation of the *Act of 4 July 1991 on the Relationship between the State and the Polish Autocephalous Orthodox Church* it is a juridical entity of that Church. According to Doroteusz Sawicki, the establishment of this Centre was a turning point in charity activities of the Orthodox Church in Poland since it marked *the beginning of professional relief activities based on relevant qualifications and skills of the Centre's staff, their scientific approach to the problem and a broad network of contacts outside the Church*. (Sawicki 2007: 148) Eleos' statutory purposes include, among other things, the creation of socio-therapeutic and community centres for children and adolescents, nursing homes for elderly and disabled people, as well as the organisation of assistance and mutual aid for the elderly, sick, disabled, and victims of various incidents and mishaps.

In this field, Eleos cooperates with public administration, as exemplified by its involvement in establishing and operating care and upbringing centres of daily support (ELEOS)⁶. These establishments mainly include five socio-therapeutic community centres: four in Białystok and one in Supraśl. Apart from doing their homework and eating a meal, their pupils can benefit from a broad range of activities to develop their interests, and learn appropriate behaviour patterns in social situations. The centres also offer many other activities, such as art lessons, dance and computer courses, physical games, cooking and intercultural classes,

⁵ See, for instance: (*Strategia rozwiązywania problemów społecznych w gminie Ząbkowice Śląskie na lata 2011–2014*: 13; *Strategia rozwiązywania problemów społecznych w gminie Bielawa na lata 2006–2011*: 30). These strategies place Parish Caritas Branches within the group of non-governmental organisations operating in the district.

⁶ Information on these centres is taken from: (ELEOS, *Prawosławny Ośrodek Miłosierdzia Diecezji Białostocko-Gdańskiej*).

foreign language lessons, aggressive behaviour management programmes etc. Winter and summer holidays are also organised for the pupils. An important element of these centres' strategy has been cooperation with the pupils' families. In addition to material assistance, families are given support in solving different kinds of family problems. A significant role has been played by volunteers who assist children with their homework, organise occasional events, and help raise funds to meet their daily running costs. More recent initiatives of Eleos include running specialised care and upbringing centres of daily support, meant mainly for children from social apartment houses in Białystok. The first of those centres began its activity in November 2007, the second one—on 8 December, 2010. It is a highly valuable initiative, because the centres are targeted at especially difficult communities with an accumulation of social problems (Charkiewicz 2005: 77–78)⁷. In 2011 a special programme was run to help people exit homelessness, in partnership with, among others: the Police Department of Białystok, the Marshal's Office of Podlaskie Voivodeship, the Regional Centre for Social Policy in Białystok, the Municipal Social Welfare Centre in Białystok, the Municipal Guard, and the short-stay prison in Białystok. The report of Eleos of the Diocese of Białystok–Gdańsk reveals that in 2011 the organisation's income from public funds was 750 870.82 PLN (see: Report on Eleos activity for 2011).

Currently, Eleos has its structures in all Orthodox dioceses in Poland, including a military one; in 2002 the central Orthodox Metropolitan Centre of Mercy ELEOS was also established to coordinate the operations of the Diocesan centres (cf. Sawicki 2007: 149).

c) Diakonia

One of the most important social welfare organisations of Protestant Churches in Poland is Diakonia, a charity organisation of Protestants and, in a sense, the twin sister of Catholic Caritas. It is noteworthy that there are both Diakonia of the Evangelical Church of the Augsburg Confession and Diakonia of the Evangelical Reformed Church.

Diakonia of the Evangelical Church of the Augsburg Confession (ECAC Diakonia) was founded on 7 September, 1998, by a resolution of the Synodal Council of the Evangelical Church of the Augsburg Confession in Poland. The organisation acquired a juridical personality on 10 February 1999, and it operates on the territory of the whole country. An important element of its activities has been the running of stationary social welfare facilities—mainly nursing homes, Diakonal and social points, community self-help centres, and youth community centres and clubs. This well-developed social infrastructure of Diakonia also includes rental centres for rehabilitation equipment (see: Falk, Józwiak, Byrtek 2001–2002). A good example of cooperation between ECAC Diakonia with local administration has been the Centre for Local Activity at Ustroń. It began operating on 14 November, 2009, and also provides occupational therapy courses, computer training lessons, psychological and job counselling, carpentry, culinary and pottery courses, physiotherapy, music

⁷ Eleos at Białystok runs in its institutions training courses for future social workers and educators.

therapy, lectures, meetings and excursions. The Centre for Local Activity is open for all interested, and it is funded from the municipal budget and the State Fund for Rehabilitation of Disabled Persons.

Another interesting initiative of Diakonia is the Martin Luther Evangelical Centre for Diakonia and Education, established by the Wrocław Evangelical Diocese of the Augsburg Confession in Poland on 4 May 1999 under the name of Centre for Education and Rehabilitation of Disabled People, with its purpose to *educate and rehabilitate people with disabilities, in particular to prepare them as extensively and as fully as possible for achieving and maintaining self-sufficient and active lives* (see: Falk, Józwiak, Byrtek 2001–2002). At present, the centre runs public inclusive and special schools: middle school, general secondary school, vocational college for business studies, basic vocational school (tailor, bookbinder), two-year complementary secondary school and job training school for students with moderate and severe intellectual disabilities, and students with multiple disabilities. The centre also includes: Non-Public Special Purpose Boarding School and Education Centre, twenty-four hour care and the upbringing socialising centres 'Tęcza' and 'Opoka' as well as a Polish-German primary school. There is also the 'Samarytanin' Nursing Home. In addition, pupils are provided with psychological, speech and language therapies, rehabilitation activities and after-school learning support (Diakonia 2010).

Diakonia of the Evangelical Reformed Church was established on 27 April 2003, by a resolution of the Synod of the Church, and acquired a juridical personality on 17 July 2003. Its purpose, set out in the statute, is to initiate, support, and coordinate charity aid and to provide spiritual care for those in need in the Church; especially within the scope of such public tasks as charitable activity, social assistance, including assistance for families and persons in difficult personal circumstances, and creating equal opportunities for those families and people (*Statut Diakonii Kościoła Reformowanego w RP*: § 7, ust. 1). Since the Statute refers to public tasks, the organisation also enters the cooperation with local authorities.

A good example of modern and efficient charity assistance provided by Diakonia of the Evangelical Reformed Church is the Prevention and Personality Development Centre (CPPD) at Bełchatów. First, a CPPD Association was created that included Protestants, Catholics and non-believers, and then a centre was established in 1999 which focused on working with children and adolescents, especially from dysfunctional and neglected backgrounds. In the spring of 2000, CPPD activities were supported by the creation of a Children and Family Centre operating within Local Social Services Centre at Bełchatów. The Centre mainly cares for children and young people between the ages of 7 and 19 and their families. Usually, they are children who exhibit difficulties in peer competence or behavioural issues, and are often from dysfunctional backgrounds. There are therapies to assist children in learning to manage their behaviour and control their emotions, to make decisions and accept responsibility for their actions. The programme of the Youth Academy of Skills provides group, individual and family meetings, lessons in drama and fine arts, music, vocal and instrumental classes. The programme of MegaCal – Youth Centre for Local Activity – is designed to activate schoolchildren, create groups of youth leaders propagating life in a sober and creative way and supporting

initiatives proposed by young people themselves (*Statut Diakonii Kościoła Reformowanego w RP*).

Conclusion

Under the regulations in force in Poland, it is possible for denominational entities to actively participate in social assistance tasks. Thus, the centuries-old tradition of Churches to help the most vulnerable in society has become an important element of multi-sectoral social policy of the state. Denominational entities are gaining access to public funds, while at the same time they are regulated by the rules on applying for grants and by general public law controls relating to the proper spending of public money, and financial and organisational transparency.

Bibliography

Act of 12 March 2004 on Social Assistance

Act of 13 June 2003 on Social Employment.

Act of 17 May 1989, on the State's Attitude to the Catholic Church in the Polish People's Republic.

Act of 17th May 1989, on the Guarantees of Freedom of Conscience and Religion

Act of 20 April 2004 on Promotion of Employment and Institutions of the Labour Market.

Act of 23 April 2003 on Public Benefit and Volunteer Work.

Act of 27 April 2006 on Social Cooperatives.

Act of 27 August 1997 on Vocational and Social Rehabilitation and Employment of Disabled Persons.

Act of 4 July 1991 on the Relationship between the State and the Polish Autocephalous Orthodox Church.

Act of 9 June 2011 on Family Support and Foster Care System.

Charkiewicz J. (2005), *Prawosławny Ośrodek Miłosierdzia Diecezji Białostocko-Gdańskiej „Eleos” 1996–2006*, Prawosławna Diecezja Białostocko-Gdańska & Prawosławny Ośrodek Miłosierdzia Diecezji Białostocko-Gdańskiej „Eleos”, Białystok, ISBN 8392279050.

Diakonia (2010), <http://www.cekiron.pl>, date access: 04.05.2015.

ELEOS, *Prawosławny Ośrodek Miłosierdzia Diecezji Białostocko-Gdańskiej*, <http://www.eleos.pl>, date access: 16.03.2011.

Falk W., Józwiak E., Byrtek E. (2001–2002), *Diakonia Kościoła Ewangelicko-Augsburskiego w RP*, <http://www.luteranie.pl/www/biblioteka/dkoscioł/diakonia/diakonia-info.htm>, date access: 15.03.2011.

Firlit E. (2003), *Przemiany społecznej roli parafii*, [in:] P. Mazurkiewicz (ed.), *Kościół katolicki w przededniu wejścia do Unii Europejskiej*, Instytut Spraw Publicznych, Warsaw, ISBN 8388594680.

Golinowska S. (2002/2003), *System pomocy społecznej. Główne problemy zmian i reform*, [in:] E.

Leś (ed.), *Pomoc społeczna. Od klientyzmu do partycypacji*, Oficyna Wydawnicza ASPRA-JR, Warszawa, ISBN 8388766627.

Kamiński T. (2012), *Caritas i polityka. Podmioty wyznaniowe w systemie pomocy społecznej*, Wydawnictwo UKSW, Warszawa, ISBN 9788370727390.

Karaś P. (2013), *Działalność socjalna Kościołów ewangelikalnych w Polsce*, Wyższa Szkoła Teologiczno-Społeczna w Warszawie, Warszawa, ISBN 9788390570495.

Posługa charytatywna Kościoła (2001), [in:] *II Polski Synod Plenarny (1991–1999)*, Pallotinum, Poznań–Warszawa, ISBN 8370144055.

Report on Eleos activity for 2011,

<http://sprawozdaniaopp.mpips.gov.pl/Search/Print/2663?reporttypeld=1>, date access: 20.03.2014.

Sawicki D. (2007), *Działalność charytatywno-młodzieżowa Polskiego Autokefalicznego Kościoła Prawosławnego w latach 1945–2007*, „Elpis” 15/16, ISSN 15087719.

Sprawozdanie merytoryczne Caritas Diecezji Siedleckiej z działalności pożytku publicznego za rok 2009, <https://bopp.pozytek.gov.pl/352259.pdf>, date access: 27.04.2011.

Sprawozdanie merytoryczne z działalności Caritas Diecezji Sosnowieckiej w 2009 roku, <https://bopp.pozytek.gov.pl/392148.pdf>, date access: 27.04.2011.

Sprawozdanie roczne z działalności Caritas Diecezji Zielonogórsko-Gorzowskiej za 2010 r., <https://bopp.pozytek.gov.pl/599181.pdf>, date access: 27.04.2011.

Statut Diakonii Kościoła Reformowanego w RP, <http://www.diakonia.net.pl>, date access: 5.05.2014.

Strategia rozwiązywania problemów społecznych w gminie Bielawa na lata 2006–2011, <http://www.opsbielawa.pl/documents/SRPS-2006-2011.pdf>, date access: 5.05.2011.

Strategia rozwiązywania problemów społecznych w gminie Ząbkowice Śląskie na lata 2011–2014, http://www.opszabkowiceslaskie.pl/files/programy/strategia_rozwiazywania_problemw.pdf, date access: 5.05.2011.

Zarzycki Z. (2005), *Rola Kościołów i związków wyznaniowych w realizacji wybranych zadań z ustawy o pomocy społecznej z dnia 12 marca 2004 r.*, „*Studia z Prawa Wyznaniowego*” 8, ISBN 8373633472.

Support for Foster and Adoptive Families in the Local Community Based on the Example of the City of Rzeszów

Magda Urbańska

Abstract

Assistance to foster and adoptive families strengthens their parental competence and assists in carrying out their care and educational functions. It is a special kind of support aimed at people who have made a conscious decision to adopt a child in to their family, and have surrendered to the long-term process in acquiring qualifications and theoretical knowledge and practical skills through specialised training. However, in the case of a child becoming a member of a family there may be problems and difficulties that cause disturbances in the functioning of the entire family system. On the one hand, this results from the specific situation of a child placed in a foster environment, and on the other hand it is associated with the expectations of foster parents. Thus, there arises the need for systematic support and assistance, which will be implemented at various stages of development of the family, taking account of foster and adoptive families as well as local environmental resources. In an environment these tasks are performed by the Rzeszów Social Welfare Centre and the Adoption Center, which in response to the needs of foster families, support them in overcoming difficult situations involving the upbringing of children.

Key words: *Adoption Center, Rzeszów Social Welfare Centre, foster families, adoptive families*

Introduction

A family is the basic environment of education and childcare. However, when parents are not able to fulfil care and educational functions, the tasks of a natural family are performed by foster care, carried out by foster families and adoptive families, recognising as theirs the child for whom they are not biological parents. Statistics from the data stored by the Ministry of Justice show that there are children under the care of foster families whose parents have been deprived of parental authority, such authority has been restricted or suspended; and also natural orphans: in 2010, there were 210,515 children under the care of foster families, in 2011 – 211,653; in 2012 – 208,319; in 2013 – 210,474, and in the first half of 2014 this number included 206,795 underage children (Ministerstwo Sprawiedliwości: 2014b). On a national scale, the number of cases of child adoption in family courts is gradually increasing (Ministerstwo Sprawiedliwości: 2014a).

The adoption of a child by a family, both in the case of foster and adoptive families, is preceded by a process of qualifications and specialised training, organised for foster families by the organiser of family foster care for adoptive families – through adoption centres. Yet, even the best theoretical training cannot protect against a variety of behavioural problems and care which foster parents encounter; hence it becomes necessary to support and assist families who take the trouble to care for abandoned and orphaned children.

Foster and adoptive families – definitional approach

A foster family and adoptive family are among the most beneficial forms of care over a child that cannot be with their parents. The decision to place a child in foster care or adoption requires a court order focused in such cases on the guiding principle of the child's welfare.

Foster care is an educational environment created by the non-natural parents of a child (Jamrożek, Matyjas 2006: 386). In foster care as a form of total interim care there are orphaned children or those otherwise deprived of proper parental care (Jamrożek, Matyjas 2006: 388). According to E. Różańska and A. Tynelski, foster families are “families, which for a transitional period shall take care and bring up a child deprived of a parent or a child in living conditions that threaten their health and moral and social development” (Łuczyński 2007: 73). Foster parents are obliged to provide current care over a child, which is connected with offering security, medical care, rational nutrition, appropriate clothing, access to culture and cohabitation with other children, which enables the creation of conditions similar to a natural family (Marcinek 2004: 163). Placement of a child in foster care is performed on the basis of a court judgment until the time children reach adulthood. According to the Ministry of Justice, in the first half of 2014, the placement of 44,011 underage children into foster care was ordered (in 2013 – 44,379, in 2012 – 45,946) (Ministerstwo Sprawiedliwości: 2014b). The most important goal of a foster family is to create a stable educational environment for children who have been deprived of such an environment (*Kodeks Etyczny Rodzin Zastępczych* 1998: 5).

In accordance with Art. 41 of the Act of 9 June 2011 (Act of 9 June 2011) on the supporting family and foster care system, foster parents are allowed in the form of:

- related foster families that include spouses or unmarried persons, who are ascendants or siblings of the child,
- non-professional and professional foster families, created by spouses or unmarried persons who are not ascendants or siblings of the child (Act of 9 June 2011).

The tasks of the foster family include childcare and education (art. 40). Specific tasks include:

- treatment of a child in a manner that promotes a sense of dignity and personal values,
- ensuring access to health services, education, compensation of deficiencies and school development and the development of talents and interests,
- meeting the emotional, domestic, developmental, social, and religious needs of a child,
- ensuring protection against arbitrary or unlawful interference with the private life of the child (Act of 9 June 2011).

In both the professional and non-professional foster family no more than 3 children can be placed nor people who have reached the age of maturity but have been staying in foster care. In the case of siblings it is possible to increase this limit.

Professional foster families can be family emergency and specialised families. In foster care in a family emergency, children are admitted on the basis of a judgment of the court and are brought by the Police or the Border Guard, as well as upon the

request of the parents, the child, or another person on the basis of Art. 12a of the Act of 29 July 2005 (Act of 29 July 2005) on the prevention of domestic violence (Art. 58 pt. 1 Act of 9 June 2011). In this type of family the child stays until their situation has been normalised, no more than 4 months. In justified cases, this period may be extended up to 8 months or until the end of legal proceedings: the return of a child to a family, adoption, or placement in foster family care (Art. 58 pts. 4 Act of 9 June 2011). Placed in a specialized family are children who possess a certificate of disability, at both a severe and moderate level, and children referred to in the Act of 26 October 1982 on juvenile justice and minor mothers with children (Art. 59 pt. 1 Act of 9 June 2011)

The tasks of foster family do not differ in their actions from those of a biological family. However, its tasks are both complementary and supplementary to the natural family, which stems from the fact that the child has the ultimate right to live in the family area (Maciaszek 2010: 173). But, it is to be noted that due to a diversity of the child's natural family dysfunction, foster families also often take the action of compensated therapy, which is related to the child's adaptation difficulties, and their social maladjustment and personality disorders which is caused by trauma (Łuczyński 2007: 74).

The most preferred form of care for a child in a situation when they cannot be with their parents is adrogation, also known as adoption. As a result, a partial or complete change of membership in the family of a child who enters the adoptive family takes place. A legal relationship is created between the adopter and the adoptee and corresponds to the parental authority status, based upon the biological relationship of the child with the parents (Bulenda 2003: 35). Adoptive parents are responsible for the child's development and education, as in the case of biological parenthood. The overriding principle in the adoption procedure is the welfare of the child. Adoption is ordered by the court at the request of the candidates for adoptive parents and a child who has completed 13 years, and each party must agree on it. One can adopt a child who is a complete orphan, a child whose parents have expressed prior court consent to adoption, a child whose parents have been deprived of parental authority, and a child whose parents were completely incapacitated (Passini 2003: 30).

There are the following types of adoption:

- full adoption – establishment of a legal relationship between the adopter and the adoptee and their relatives, with the termination of the legal relationship with their adoptive relatives;
- incomplete adoption – establishment of a legal relationship between the adoptee and their descendants and the adopter, with the adoptee maintaining an existing legal relationship with their relatives;
- anonymous adoption, known as complete, full, irrevocable – parents express consent before a guardianship court for their child's adoption without any indication of potential adopters, this is called promissory note agreement;
- foreign adoption – adoption of a minor Polish citizen, as a result of which the child gives up their residence in Poland for residence in another country (Bulenda 2003: 35–36).

Adoptive parent can be anyone who has full legal capacity and personal qualifications such as moral values, abilities and educational care; moreover, there is a belief that they will duly fulfil their duties as adoptive parents. Joint adoption of a child is only permitted to married couples (Bulenda 2003: 35).

Actions aimed at supporting foster families

In the case of placing a child in the care of foster families, associated process occurs which run in parallel to each other. From a child's perspective they are related to the separation of the child from their own family, moving the child to a foster home and turning it into a new family system. This increases strong emotions in the child: sadness, loneliness and abandonment, guilt, blaming themselves for the loss of family responsibility, hostility, anxiety, and shame (Marcinek 2004: 167). Also occurring is a lack of trust, fear of closeness, inability to create emotional ties, emotional coldness, resentment and hostility and aggression toward parents, peers and siblings as well as susceptibility to negative influences outside of the family environment (Miejski Ośrodek Pomocy Społecznej w Rzeszowie 2014: 12). On the other hand, from the perspective of foster families the difficulties include the child's inability to bestow affection, fear of attachment and establishing close emotional ties, difficulties in contact with their own children who are under their care and the expectations and lack of gratitude on the part of the child. Difficulties are accompanied by anxiety about the future of the children and their safety, helplessness, anger and impatience (Miejski Ośrodek Pomocy Społecznej w Rzeszowie 2014: 12).

In the city of Rzeszow, the most common reasons for placing children in foster care are: bereavement, abandonment, disability or the long-term illness of parents, parental trip abroad, caregivers who are imprisoned, and biological family dysfunctionality associated to alcoholism and drug addiction (Miejski Ośrodek Pomocy Społecznej w Rzeszowie 2012: 7).

In recent years, in Rzeszow the total number of foster families was: in 2009 – 116; in 2010 – 124; in 2011 – 123; in 2012 – 106 (including: 66 related foster families, 39 non-professional foster families, 1 professional foster family); in 2013 – 114 (including 75 related foster families, 34 non-professional foster families, 5 professional foster families); in which there were placed: in 2009 – 140 children, in 2010 – 144 children, in 2011 – 140 children, in 2012 – 129 children, in 2013 – 147 children (Miejski Ośrodek Pomocy Społecznej w Rzeszowie 2012: 8-9; 2013: 9; 2014:10).

Support for foster families in the city is performed based on the aims and objectives set out in the "District Program of Foster Care Development for 2012–2014". These actions are implemented by the Social Welfare Centre in Rzeszów by the Team for Foster Care Organisation, designated by a decree of 27 December 2011 of the Mayor of the City of Rzeszów, the organiser of foster care in the District of Rzeszów City. Support for foster families operating in Rzeszów is primarily associated with

assistance to overcome problems of care and education. In particular, this form of aid is as follows:

- providing support for children placed in foster care and assistance for persons acting as a foster family in the event of care and educational problems through counselling, educational and legal help;
- providing assistance and support to foster families in the form of support groups, schools for parents and family assistance;
- organising the help of volunteers;
- providing training to foster families to raise their care and educational competencies;
- support in obtaining financial aid;
- cooperation with social welfare centres, county family assistance centres, family court, the Catholic Church and other churches and non-governmental organisations working on behalf of children and families;
- providing information on institutions providing aid to the child and family (Miejski Ośrodek Pomocy Społecznej w Rzeszowie 2012: 25).

According to the Act of 9 June 2011, support for foster families is also connected with the help of a third party. At their request, the foster family may be supported by helping families, which is particularly needed in the case of a temporary lack of care, especially in relation to the relaxation, participation in training, or a stay in hospital and unexpected difficulties or random events (art. 73) (Act of 9 June 2011) . Family assistance for a foster family can be both a non-professional and professional foster family, and the person who is in the family home of the child, in addition to spouses and unmarried couples, who have undergone appropriate training (art. 74 pt. 1) (Act of 9 June 2011). Furthermore, in accordance with the Act, since 1 January 2015, if a professional foster family or a non-professional foster family includes more than 3 children, at the request of the family, a person is employed to specifically assist with caring for the children, and with farm labour (art. 57 pt. 1a) (Act of 9 June 2011).

Since 1 January 2015, foster families, at their request, shall be placed under the care of a family foster care coordinator and the rest of the family – the organiser of family foster care. The main tasks of the coordinator in terms of support and assistance to foster families include: assistance in tasks arising from foster care, preparation of a plan to help the child in cooperation with the assistance of the family and foster family, and the foster families to provide access to specialist support for children, including psychological, re-education and rehabilitation (art. 77 pt. 3) (Act of 9 June 2011). The organiser of foster care tasks in supporting foster family aims, inter alia, to: provide training to families which increase their qualifications, providing assistance through support groups and conducting counselling and therapy for foster parents, their children, and children under their care, providing legal assistance, especially in the field of family law, training and psycho-pedagogical support for parents substitutes and providing professional foster parents and foster parents a lay counselling, which aims to preserve and strengthen their competence and counteract the phenomenon of burnout.

In the years 2012–2013 the Team for Foster Care Organisation of the Social Welfare Centre in Rzeszów within the assistance and support to persons who foster family care undertook among other things, the following actions:

- conducting training for foster families: in 2012 – informational training in connection with the Act on family support and specialized training: “Problems with contact and interpersonal communication skills in foster care”, “Safety of children and adolescents in the network”, “Sexuality of children and young people – a taboo”, “Addiction among youth (tobacco, alcohol, drugs, medicines and other chemicals, gambling)” in 2013 – “How to deal with a difficult child – shaping the correct attitude to action” and “Eating Disorders”;
- the organization of support groups, carried out by the Social Welfare Centre in Rzeszów – in 2012 and 2013 was attended by 12 people;
- support for volunteers involved in supporting foster families – in 2012 volunteers helped 19 families; in 2013 – 20 families for 26 children;
- providing counselling and therapy for foster parents and their children and children placed in foster care who need support, guidance and specialised psychological and educational assistance; in 2013 15 people benefited from it;
- organising and conducting socio-therapeutic groups for the children of foster families – in 2012 and in 2013 10 children participated in classes;
- directing children with a regulated legal situation to adoption centres in order to locate adoptive families for them: in 2012 – 28 children, in 2013 – 14 children;
- access to specialist support for children and foster parents, including psychological support, re-education and rehabilitation: in 2012 – support included 65 children and 161 foster parents; in 2013 – 47 children and 24 parents (Miejski Ośrodek Pomocy Społecznej w Rzeszowie 2013: 7–8; 2014: 7–8).

Foster families can also count on the help of the “Second Home” Association for Foster Parents, founded by members of a support group operating at the Municipal Social Welfare Centre in Rzeszów. Additional support for foster families is the civic program “Multi child family 3+; Foster Family”, which enables foster families in Rzeszów to use discounts offered by the city and private partners in the program.

Actions supporting adoptive families

In accordance with the Resolution of the Podkarpackie Provincial Parliament of 28 November 2011, tasks in the field of adoption have been entrusted to the Regional Social Policy Centre, under which the Adoption Centre is run. Pursuant to a Resolution of the Provincial Parliament and in accordance with the Act of June 11, 2011 on supporting family and foster care system, the Adoption Centre in Rzeszów took over the existing obligations in terms of adoption of the Adoption and Caring Centres in Rzeszów, Krosno, Przemyśl and Tarnobrzeg. In the period from January 2012 to June 2014, 900 children from all over Podkarpackie Province have been directed to the Centre (*Wojewódzki Program...* 2014: 27). In the course of a year, approximately 100 children have been adopted in Rzeszów.

Help and support for people who have adopted a child is conducted on two levels: before the decision to adopt (pre-adoption support) and after adoption (post-adoption support). Candidates for adoptive parents can rely on cooperation with the Adoption Centre for adoptive child care and education in the fields of educational and psychological diagnoses of children and families, family behavioural problems as well as problems associated with the development of the child (art. 160 pt. 1 Act of 9 June 2011). Post-adoption support (Szczepan 2006: 123–131) in the exercise of care and educational functions is granted at the request of the family and concerns the following areas: helping to solve educational problems and care, counselling and therapy, including family therapy, educational and psychological assistance and legal aid in family law (art. 160 pts. 2 Act of 9 June 2011). In the Rzeszów Adoption Centre, support for adoptive families at both the pre-adoption and post-adoption stage is accomplished through the following actions:

- training and supportive group for people who are considering the adoption of a child and those awaiting adoption. It is a self-help group, aimed at people experiencing similar difficulties. Meetings are conducted by a psychologist and an educator based on a program tailored to the needs and expectations of the participants (*Grupa treningowo-wspierająca...*);
- support group for parents who have adopted a child – their goal is to search for new solutions in the event of difficulties and problems based on their own experience and other people who have adopted a child. The support group provides increased knowledge on the education of children, practical approaches and educational difficulties. Meetings provide informational and emotional support in a group of parents experiencing similar problems and share their experiences and problems with childcare (*Grupa treningowo-wspierająca...*);
- School for Adoptive Parents – classes are based on the assumptions of the School for Parents and Educators allowing for the specificity of family development after the adoption of a child. The course aims at, among other things, supporting parents in dealing with daily contact with children, a better agreement to build a strong emotional bond, a reflection on the attitude of education and the exchange of experience, and the creation of a support group of parents of adopted children (*Pomoc postadopcyjna...*);
- VHT therapy (Video Home Training) – interfamilial communication training using video cameras. This is an alternative approach to conventional therapy outside the family home; it is aimed at improving the competence of a parent's education which improves the functioning of the whole family. Training continues for 1–6 months, depending on the problems found in the family (*Pomoc postadopcyjna...*).

Bibliography

Act of 9 June 2011, o wspieraniu rodziny i systemie pieczy zastępczej, DzU 2011, nr 149, poz. 887.

Act of 29 July 2005, o przeciwdziałaniu przemocy w rodzinie, DzU 2005, nr 180, poz. 1493.

Bulenda T., (2003), *Adopcja w świetle prawa*, [in:] T. Pilch (ed.) *Encyklopedia pedagogiczna XXI wieku*, vol. 1, Wydawnictwo Akademickie "Żak", Warsaw, ISBN 838814992X.

Jamrożek M., Matyjas B. (2006). *Rodzina zastępcza*, [in:] T. Pilch (ed.), *Encyklopedia pedagogiczna XXI wieku*, vol. 5, Wydawnictwo Akademickie „Żak”, Warsaw, ISBN 8389501635.

Kodeks Etyczny Rodzin Zastępczych (1998), [Foster Family Code of Ethics], translation and the development of Polish version Z.W. Stelmaszuk, West-East Dialogue In Social, „Problemy Opiekuńczo-Wychowawcze” nr 8, www.projektroz.pl/wp.../Kodeks-Etyczny-Rodziców-Zastępczych.doc, date access: 17.12.2014.

Łuczyński A. (2007), *Rodziny zastępcze – ich rola i zadania w systemie opieki całkowitej*, [in:] J. Kuźma (ed.), *Opieka i wychowanie dzieci sierocych w Polsce*, Krakowskie Towarzystwo Edukacyjne Sp. z o.o. Oficyna Wydawnicza AFM, Kraków, ISBN 9788389823441.

Maciaszek J. (2010). *Model rodzicielskiej opieki zastępczej – założenia a ich praktyczna realizacja*, [in:] S. Pelc (ed.), *Przemiany współczesnej rodziny polskiej*, Wyższa Szkoła Inżyniersko-Ekonomiczna w Rzeszowie, Rzeszów, ISBN 9788360507049.

Marcinek E. (2004). *Rodziny zastępcze jako forma opieki nad dzieckiem opuszczonym*, [in:] R. Wielgos-Struck (ed.), *Pomoc społeczna w skali lokalnej. Doświadczenia i efekty działania wybranych placówek*, Uniwersytet Rzeszowski, Rzeszów, ISBN 8387232750.

Miejski Ośrodek Pomocy Społecznej w Rzeszowie (2012), *Powiatowy Program Rozwoju Pieczy Zastępczej na lata 2012-2014*, Rzeszów.

Miejski Ośrodek Pomocy Społecznej w Rzeszowie (2013), *Sprawozdanie z realizacji zadań z zakresu wspierania rodziny i systemu pieczy zastępczej za 2012 rok*, Rzeszów.

Miejski Ośrodek Pomocy Społecznej w Rzeszowie (2014), *Sprawozdanie z realizacji zadań z zakresu wspierania rodziny i systemu pieczy zastępczej za 2013 rok*, Rzeszów.

Passini B. (2003), *Adopcja*, [in:] T. Pilch (ed.) *Encyklopedia pedagogiczna XXI wieku*, vol. 1, Wydawnictwo Akademickie „Żak”, Warsaw, ISBN 838814992X.

Grupa treningowo - wspierająca dla kandydatów i Grupa wsparcia dla rodzin adopcyjnych, <http://www.rops.rzeszow.pl/index.php/adopcja-2/grupy-wsparcia-dla-oczekujacych-na-odapcj>, date access: 17.12.2014.

Ministerstwo Sprawiedliwości (2014a), [The Ministry of Justice] *Adopcje w latach 2000-I półrocze 2014*, [Adoptions in 2000-the first half of 2014], <http://isws.ms.gov.pl/pl/baza-statystyczna/opracowania-wieloletnie/>, date access: 17.12.2014.

Ministerstwo Sprawiedliwości (2014b), [The Ministry of Justice] *Małoletni pod opieką – rodziny zastępcze (karty Opm) w latach 1989 – I półrocze 2014 r.*, [Minors under the care-fosterfamilies (cards Opm) in 1989 - the first half of 2014], <http://isws.ms.gov.pl/pl/baza-statystyczna/opracowania-wieloletnie/>, date access: 17.12.2014.

Pomoc postadopcyjna, <http://www.rops.rzeszow.pl/index.php/adopcja-2/pomoc-postadopcyjna>, date access: 17.12.2014.

Szluz B. (2006), *Wokół pojęcia pomocy i wsparcia społecznego*, [in:] Z. Frączek, B. Szluz (eds.), *Koncepcje pomocy człowiekowi w teorii i praktyce*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Rzeszowskiego, Rzeszów, ISBN 9788373382589.

Wojewódzki Program Wspierania Rodziny i Systemu Pieczy Zastępczej na lata 2014–2020 (2014), Rzeszów.

Post-Penitentiary Assistance in Poland

Tomasz Przesławski

Abstract

On the one hand, contemporary criminal legislation concerning the institution of conditional early release provides for the possibility of convicts being released from prison and their return to society even if they are sentenced to a long-term punishment, but on the other hand, in the reality of the penitentiary system a large group of people previously imprisoned return to a criminal path. Due to a series of various factors, such as the degree of adaptation to life in isolation, the way of existence in non-detention settings, dependent on housing situation, family position, as well as personality traits, there is quite a high level of return to violating the law, including committing a crime. Hence, the major role of organising post-penitentiary assistance, which may crucially contribute to limiting the degree of return to a criminal path, thus constituting complete penitentiary actions carried out in isolated settings through achieving the results of punishment sensu largo in the form of the social and professional reintegration of former convicts.

Key words: *penal institutions, penitentiary system, post-penitentiary assistance, social assistance*

On the one hand, contemporary criminal legislation concerning the institution of conditional early release provides for the possibility of convicts being released from prison and their return to society¹ even if they are sentenced to a long-term punishment², but on the other hand, in the reality of the penitentiary system a large group of people previously imprisoned return to a criminal path.

Convicts kept in penal institutions, especially for a longer period of time, are threatened with social exclusion not only because of the strong assimilation of prison culture (cf. Szymanowska, Korwin-Szymanowski 2009: 71)³, the lack of suitable professional qualifications, or the ability to deal with difficult life situations, which contribute to a long-lasting inability to find employment, difficulties in private life, but also due to the stigmatisation resulting from the fact that being convicted of a crime influences the adaptation with family environment, neighbours

¹ Unusually, post-penal measures of an isolative and preventive character provided obligatory and for an indefinite period include placement in the State Centre for the Prevention of Antisocial Behaviour (art. 14, section 4 of the law as of 22nd November 2013) (Act of 22 November 2013) as well as in a closed psychiatric institution after serving a sentence of imprisonment for raping an underage person under 15 years of age or a relative, committed due to disorders of sexual preferences (art. 95 a § 1 a, penal code) (The Act of 6 June 1997).

² The notion of long-term punishment is not present in legislation, but in substance it refers to a sentence of 25 years' imprisonment, as well as to the sentence of life incarceration, mentioned in art. 32, points 4–5 of the law as of 6th June 1997, Penal code, hereafter referred to as „p.c.” (Register of Public Laws [Dziennik Ustaw] No. 88, item 553 as amended) (The Act of 6 June 1997).

³ Severe changes in the psyche of persons kept in prisons (remand centres) causes the process of prisonization, i.e. prison socialization connected with norms of an informal set of rules of behaviour in a closed environment (cf. Szymanowska, Korwin-Szymanowski 2009: 71).

and professional life (Kokorzecka-Piber 2010: chapter III, point 8.3; Musidłowski 2007: 191).

Stigmatisation (branding) due to detention in a penal institution (remand centre) and being labelled a criminal makes it difficult or impossible for the so far convicted to integrate with society (Porowski 1993: 7–8; Miłkowska 2009: 31–40). It is visible especially when they need to testify and provide information within the scope of previous criminality, even in the period before the expungement of a criminal record, i.e. when there is an actual entry in the National Criminal Record (Act of 24 May 2000 on the National Criminal Record: art. 7)⁴.

Due to a series of various factors, such as the degree of adaptation to life in isolation, the way of existence in non-detention settings, dependent on housing situation, family position, as well as personality traits, there is quite a high level of return to violating the law, including committing a crime (cf. Sobczyszyn 2009: 125–140).

In 2013 in Poland the total number of convicts and fined persons was 72.405, including 37.779 penitentiary recidivists⁵, which constitutes more than 52% of people imprisoned due to final and binding sentences (*Annual statistical information for 2013*). Hence, the major role of organising post-penitentiary assistance, which may crucially contribute to limiting the degree of return to a criminal path, thus constituting complete penitentiary actions carried out in isolated settings through achieving the results of punishment *sensu largo* in the form of the social and professional reintegration of former convicts.

Effective post penitentiary assistance not only relieves the social effects of being convicted, but also influences state finances. A return to prison due to the recommitting of a crime (offence) is an additional burden for the state budget. The total annual cost incurred due to the provisions for prisoners as well as the functioning of penal institutions (remand centres) was 2 624 100 485.92 zlotys in 2013, with the average number of prisoners being 83,898. The expenses for the provision of one prisoner in 2013 amounted to 85.69 zlotys daily; monthly: 2 606.44 zlotys; while annually: 31 277.27 zlotys (statystyki – luty 2014: 1–13).

Assistance for former prisoners constitutes an element of the social policy of a country, based on activities aimed at including them in social and professional life. The same activities constitute an interest in the policy concerning crimes (criminal policy). Marginalisation and social exclusion favour returning to crime, hence the initiation of activities supporting the inclusion of this category of people to function in society with respect for the law constitutes an important factor of preventing crime (Szymanowski 1989: 17).

⁴ The right to gain information from the database of the National Criminal Record is given to an interested party, whose personal data is in the Register (Act of 24 May 2000 on the National Criminal Record: art. 7).

⁵ Penitentiary recidivism is a broader term than recidivism as defined in article 64 § 1–2 p.c., since it is connected not only with imprisonment due to committed crimes, but also arrest due to misdemeanours as well as the substitutive penalty of imprisonment and arrest (article 86 § Executive Penal Code).

The idea of assistance historically and traditionally in Western culture was formed under the influence of the evangelic call of Jesus Christ to visit prisoners, and in a broader aspect, the Great Commandment.

At present, independent from religious motivation, the assistance afforded former convicts is justified by the inherent rights given to every person or social interest, which pursues limiting the phenomenon of crime (Szymanowski 1989: 17, 32–33; Szymanowski, Rzepliński 1987: 277; Porowski 1993: 13–175; Porowski 1995: 52; Szczygiel 2002: 192–194). The postulate of providing assistance to people released from prisons was formed in the UN Minimum Rules from 1955 (First United Nation Congress on Crime Prevention and the Treatment of Offenders and approved by the UN Economic and Social Council 1995)⁶ (rules 79–81), in which it is highlighted that the future of a prisoner after being released is taken into account from the beginning of the fulfilment of a punishment. The rule of coming to the prisoners' aid is repeated in European Prison Rules, hereafter referred to as "EPR" (Rada Europy 2006: 33–74; Szymanowski 2006: 75–84) (rule 107). From the point of view of the discussed issues, it is crucial to assign responsibility to prison authorities in cooperation with the services and institutions helping released prisoners, enabling them to again find their place in society, especially with reference to family and a job (rule 107, section 4, EPR) as well as guaranteeing the obedience of law to representatives of the appointed entities when it comes to access to prison and prisoners with the aim of providing assistance while preparing them to being released and developing post-penitentiary assistance programmes (rule 107, section 5, EPR).

Post-penitentiary assistance is fulfilled not only with the assistance of civil services appointed accordingly, but also social organisations or individual citizens, who provide selfless support to former prisoners or their families (Szymanowski 2003: 145; Porowski 2003: 304; Stańdo-Kawecka 2000: 201; Laurman-Jarząbek, Mazur 2012: 78–81). This group of entities represents the rule of the participation of society in achieving a favourable result connected with serving a sentence of imprisonment, expressed in art. 41 § 2 in connection with art. 38 § 1 of the Executive Penal Code (Act of 6 June 1997 Penal Code).

While during the stage of serving a sentence of imprisonment there is to be a change in the attitude of convicts, so that in the future they would not commit crimes, the real test to the intended aims of the punishment is achieving the desired state of affairs in non-detention settings. According to the referenced legislation, in order to facilitate social re-adaptation, in particular to prevent a return to crime, convicts and their families should be given the necessary assistance, especially financial, medical, with finding employment and accommodation, as well as legal advice. The assistance is provided by specific government administration authorities and local government, as well as probation officers, however, optionally this assistance is provided by societies, foundations, organisations and institutions, which aim to

⁶ Enforced in Geneva in 1955 by the First United Nation Congress on Crime Prevention and the Treatment of Offenders and approved by the UN Economic and Social Council in resolution 663C (XXIV) as of 31st July 1957 as well as 2076 (LXII) as of 13th May 1977; (www.bip.ms.gov.pl/Data/Files/_public/...onz/prawa_czlow_26_1.doc, date access: 19.04.2014).

perform tasks connected with the social re-adaptation of convicts, as well as churches, other religious associations, and trustworthy persons.

The right to assistance benefits is guaranteed by the Constitution of the Republic of Poland in art. 71, section 1, for families in difficult financial and social situations, and also the families of the currently and formerly convicted. The expansion of constitutional obligations of public authorities towards people in need, including former prisoners, is in the social legislation regulating the system of social assistance as well as preventing social exclusion. The aims of state policy within the scope of social provisions, such as social security benefits, are realised first and foremost in the act of 12th March 2004 on social security (Act of 12 March 2004) (consolidated text: Register of Public Laws 2013, item 182 as amended), hereafter referred to as “the law of social security”, i.e. supporting people and families in their efforts to fulfil their basic needs and enabling them to live in conditions representing human dignity (art. 3, section 1, the law of social security).

It needs to be highlighted that, until a person is kept in a secure institution, where he or she is serving a sentence of imprisonment, they are not entitled to any benefits accounted for in the law of social security due to the fact that a stay in isolation settings is covered by the state budget. Furthermore, according to articles 109–111 of the Executive Penal Code, the convicts, as well as temporarily arrested, have a guarantee of the fulfilment of basic living needs so there is no need to provide them with further benefits on the basis of the referenced act.

People released from prisons, who have difficulties with adapting to life in an open environment may try to use the services of social integration centres fulfilling professional and social reintegration in accordance with the act of 13th June 2003 on social employment (consolidated text: Register of Public Laws 2011, No. 43, item 225 as amended). Social integration centres may be founded, among other things, by local government units and non-governmental organisations, while their aim is social mobilisation and enabling a return to the labour market, which constitutes an alternative towards drawing benefits from the social security system.

On the other hand, the legislation of 20th April 2004 on the promotion of employment and institutions on the labour market (consolidated text: Register of Public Laws 2013, item 674 as amended) introduced an obligation for district job agencies to prepare individual plans of action for the unemployed, who after serving a sentence of imprisonment did not commence work, on the condition of being incessantly registered as an unemployed person searching for a job for a period of at least 180 days from the date of registration (art. 34 a, section 3, point 5 of the aforementioned law).

Until making benefits available on the basis of the law of social security to assist persons released from prisons and remand centres, as well as their families, for the period necessary to provide support, however, not longer than for 3 months from the date of release, with the possibility of prolonging this period to 6 months in special cases (illness or temporary incapacity to work), assistance is given from the Fund for the Disadvantaged as well as Post-penitentiary Assistance (in the post-penitentiary part), referred to in art. 43 of the Executive Penal Code hereafter called

The Post-penitentiary Assistance Fund as well as in the Minister of Justice Regulations as of 6th February 2014 on the Fund for the Disadvantaged as well as Post-penitentiary Assistance (Register of Public Laws, item 189) (Dąbkiewicz 2013).

The financial means from the Post-penitentiary Assistance Fund are divided between state organisational entities: courts and the Central Authority of the Prison Service. The courts of appeal transfer financial means to the probation and court services office through district courts.

In accordance with art. 37, sections 1-2, point 12 of the act of 27th July 2001 on probation officers (Register of Public Laws No. 98, item 1071), supervision over providing post-penitentiary assistance belongs to the district probation officer, who is answerable to the district court president for the functioning of the probation office service in the district. However, the means from the Post-penitentiary Assistance Fund, which go to the Central Authority of the Prison Service are further distributed to the District Inspectorate of the Prison Service, and from there they are transferred to individual prisons and remand centres.

Apart from government services organisations, the means from the Post-penitentiary Assistance Fund can be granted to the aforementioned societies, foundations, organisations and institutions, the aim of which is to socially readapt convicts, as well as churches, other religious associations, and trustworthy persons (Szymanski, Świda 1998: 100-101; Postulski 2012: 262-264; Lelental 2010: 215-222).

Post-penitentiary assistance is defined within the activity of public benefit as stated in art. 3, section 1 of the law of 24th April 2013 on public benefit activity and voluntary service (consolidated text: Register of Public Laws 2010, No. 234, item 1536 as amended) and the majority of means from the Post-penitentiary Assistance Fund in the part designated to non-publically funded subjects in practice is given in the form of a subsidy to non-governmental organisations within the meaning of the aforementioned law (art. 3, sections 1-2 of the established act).

The amount allotted by the Minister of Justice to non-governmental organisations, which results from a percentage division of the means from the Post-penitentiary Fund is not enough when it comes to the needs of such subjects.

In 2002, 58 non-publically funded units applied for a grant to the total amount of 5,531,708.41 zlotys, from which 27 subjects were taken into account, allocating a total sum of 1,800,000 zlotys (Pomoc postpenitencjarna). Among the organisations dealing with fulfilling prisoners' needs, there is the oldest society with such a profile, established in 1909 *Patronage over Prisoners*, currently the Penitentiary Society Patronat with its registered office in Warsaw (Porowski 2010: 41-70; Kotliński 2007: 199-205). Patronat has 9 branches all over the country. The aim of the Society is, among other things, the social re-adaptation of people released from prisons and the humanisation of the penitentiary system.

From the effectiveness of the provided post-penitentiary assistance it depends, to a high degree, whether the penitentiary activities carried out within the imprisonment can be ex post assessed as having a rehabilitative effect. Forms of such help have a various character: from financial means (e.g. benefits,

accommodation subsidies, covering medical expenses), through providing material benefits (e.g. the possibility of accommodation, providing meals) to providing services (e.g. legal, medical and professional assistance). The subjects providing such assistance outside public institutions are mainly non-governmental organisations with a public benefit activity. The role of the third sector of post-penitentiary assistance is therefore important and useful both from the point of view of the speed of conduct and the ability to meet the needs of this social group, as well as the kinds of offers of possible support in solving the life problems of former prisoners and their families.

Bibliography

Act of 12 March 2004 on social assistance.

Act of 20th April 2004 on the promotion of employment and institutions on the labour market.

Act of 22 November 2013 on proceedings against people with mental disorders posing a threat to life, health or sexual freedom of other persons.

Act of 24 May 2000 on the National Criminal Record.

Act of 24th April 2013 on public benefit activity and voluntary service.

Act of 6 June 1997 Penal Code.

Annual statistical information for 2013, the Central Authority of the Prison Service,
<http://sw.gov.pl/Data/Files/001c169lidz/rok-2013.pdf>, date access: 10.04.2014.

Dąbkiewicz K. (2013), *Kodeks karny wykonawczy. Komentarz (Executive Penal Code. Commentary)*, Warszawa, electronic version LexisNexis, commentary to art. 43 Executive Penal Code, thesis 10, ISBN 9788378069737.

First United Nation Congress on Crime Prevention and the Treatment of Offenders and approved by the UN Economic and Social Council in resolution 663C (XXIV) as of 31st July 1957 as well as 2076 (LXII) as of 13th May 1977.

www.bip.ms.gov.pl/Data/Files/_public/...onz/prawa_czlow_26_1.doc, date access: 19.04.2014.

Kokorzecka-Piber M. (2010), *Sens i cel pracy kuratora nad przygotowaniem osób skazanych do wolności*, chapter III, point 8.3, [in:] T. Szymanowski, N. Górski, T. Jedynak, M. Kokorzecka-Piber, W. Liszke, A. Martusiewicz, A. Rzepniewski, K. Stasiak, Ł. Kwadrans, Z. Ostrihanska, H. Haak (eds.), *Zarys metodyki pracy kuratora sądowego*, electronic version, Wydawnictwo LexisNexis, Warsaw, ISBN 9788376204352.

Kotliński T. J. (2007), *O działalności więziennych Patronatów w okresie międzywojennym*, „Przegląd Więziennictwa Polskiego” 56-57, Warsaw, ISSN 12304433.

Laurman-Jarząbek E., Mazur E. (2012), *W kręgu teorii i praktyki pomocy postpenitencjarnej*, Wydawca Wszechnica Świętokrzyska, Kielce, ISBN 9788362718245.

Lelental S. (2010), *Kodeks karny wykonawczy. Komentarz*, Wydawnictwo C.H. Beck. Warsaw, ISBN 9788325512439.

Miłkowska G. (2009), *Dostrzec w skazanym człowieka* [in:] T. Szymanowski (ed.), *O pomocy w powrocie do społeczeństwa. W 100-lecie powstania Patronatu*, Stowarzyszenie Penitencjarne „Patronat”, Białystok.

Minister of Justice Regulations as of 6th February 2014 on the Fund for the Disadvantaged as well as Post-penitentiary Assistance.

Musidłowski R. (2007), *Znaczenie aktywności własnej skazanych w przygotowaniu do życia po zwolnieniu z zakładu karnego*, [in:] B. Skafiriak (ed.), *Pomoc postpenitencjarna w kontekście strategii działań resocjalizacyjnych*, Oficyna Wydawnicza ‘Impuls’, Kraków, ISBN 9788373087927.

Pomoc postpenitencjarna, <http://bip.ms.gov.pl/pl/dzialalnosc/fundusz-pomocy-pokrzywdzonym-oraz-pomocy-postpenitencjarnej/pomoc-postpenitencjarna>, date access: 03.05.2014.

Porowski M. (1992), *Spoleczne inicjatywy na rzecz więźniów*, „Archiwum Kryminologii”, vol. XVIII, ISSN 00666890.

Porowski M. (1993), *Kamień i chleb*, IPSiR UW, Warsaw, ISBN 8390104008.

Porowski M. (2003), *Psychospoleczne aspekty pomocy dla więźniów*, [in:] T. Bulenda, R. Musidłowski (ed.), *System penitencjarny i postpenitencjarny w Polsce*, Wydawnictwa Przemysłowe Wema sp. z o.o., Warsaw, ISBN 8388594486.

Porowski M. (2010), *O idei pomocy więźniom i działalności Patronatu (do czasu rozwiązania po II wojnie światowej)* [in:] Szymanowski T. (red.), *O pomocy w powrocie do społeczeństwa. W 100-lecie powstania Patronatu*, Stowarzyszenie Penitencjarne „Patronat”, Białystok.

Postulski K. (2012), *Kodeks karny wykonawczy. Komentarz*, Wydawnictwo Lex a Wolters Kluwer business, Warsaw, ISBN 9788326438387.

Rada Europy Komitet Ministrów Rekomendacja Rec (2006) 2 Komitetu Ministrów dla państw członkowskich Rady Europy Europejskie Reguły Więzienne 2011, (enforced by the Committee of Ministers on 11th January 2006 on the 952 Meeting), [in:] T. Szymanowski (ed.)

Międzynarodowe standardy wykonywania kar, „Przegląd Więziennictwa Polskiego” 72–73, ISSN 12304433.

Sobczyszyn U. (2009), *Czynniki utrudniające społeczną readaptację skazanych po odbyciu kary pozbawienia wolności – ogólna charakterystyka*, [in:] F. Kozaczuk (ed.) *Zagadnienia readaptacji społecznej skazanych*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Rzeszowskiego, Rzeszów, ISBN 9788373384972.

Stańdo-Kawecka B. (2000), *Prawne podstawy resocjalizacji*, Kantor Wydawniczy Zakamycze, Kraków, ISBN 8388114840.

Statystyki – luty 2014,

http://sw.gov.pl/Data/Files/001c169lidz/2014_luty_statystyka_biezaca.pdf, date access: 10.04.2014.

Szczygieł G.B. (2002), *Spoleczna readaptacja skazanych w polskim systemie penitencjarnym*, Wydawnictwo Temida 2, Białystok, ISBN 8386137916.

Szymanowska A., Korwin-Szymanowski G. (2009), *Stosunek instytucji świadczących pomoc do byłych skazanych*, [in:] F. Kozaczuk (ed.), *Zagadnienia readaptacji społecznej skazanych*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Rzeszowskiego, Rzeszów, ISBN 9788373384972.

Szymanowski T. (1987), *Zakres pomocy postpenitencjarnej świadczonej byłym więźniom w ostatnich latach*, [in:] T. Szymanowski, A. Rzepliński (ed.) *Doświadczenia i perspektywy systemu penitencjarnego w Polsce*, Wydawnictwo IPSiR UW, Warsaw.

Szymanowski T. (1989), *Powrót skazanych do społeczeństwa*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8301089962.

Szymanowski T. (2003), *Nowe unormowania w praktyce penitencjarnej*, [in:] T. Bulenda, R. Musidłowski R. (eds.), *System penitencjarny i postpenitencjarny w Polsce*, Wydawnictwa Przemysłowe Wema sp. z o.o., Warsaw, ISBN 8388594486.

Szymanowski T. (2011), *Komentarz do Rekomendacji Rec (2006) 2 Komitetu Ministrów dla państw członkowskich Rady Europy Europejskie „Reguły Więzienne”*, [in:] T. Szymanowski (ed.), *Międzynarodowe standardy wykonywania kar*, „Przegląd Więziennictwa Polskiego” 72–73, ISSN 12304433.

Szymanowski T., Świda Z. (1998), *Kodeks karny wykonawczy. Komentarz*, Wydawnictwo „Librata” sp. z o.o., Warsaw, ISBN 8387271101.

Man Within a Holistic Perspective – an Interdisciplinary Reference to the Problems of Everyday Life

Arkadiusz Żukiewicz

Abstract

Based on the holistic vision of man, we can build a multi-dimensional picture of the daily life of the human race. The matrix approach to the problems experienced by man in everyday life implies the necessity for, and at the same time, the pleasure of extending the field of view. Taking the holistic perspective as a starting point for the intended considerations, a detailed guideline chosen by me will here be the idea of the integration of social action. In terms of the discipline, the course of the considerations will be founded on an interdisciplinary approach combining the achievements derived from the theory-creating and research activities of multiple disciplines and scientific domains. With regard to the institutional dimension, the subject of the considerations is going to be concentrated around the idea of cross-sector partnerships forged to solve social problems experienced by people in a variety of life situations. It is worth mentioning the scope of these problems, the list of which will remain open and not exclusive. It comprises in the first place poverty understood here as a multi-level and multi-dimensional anomaly occurring in human life. The literature sources, to which I refer in the footnotes below, do not close the list of excellent scientific papers and presentations of good practices in solving specific social problems. This list is much broader, and commonly available library databases can be of great help in the further exploration of the subject. The problem directory outlined above and the reference to the extensive literature on the subject I treat as sufficient justification for refraining from providing a detailed operationalization of the enumerated categories. The analysis of the terminology of these concepts would be a mere replication of the already numerous thematic papers.

Key words: *everyday life, men, human nature*

Introduction

Based on the holistic vision of man, we can build a multi-dimensional picture of the daily life of the human race. The matrix approach to the problems experienced by man in everyday life implies the necessity for, and at the same time, the pleasure of extending the field of view. The perspectives shown here relate to matters connected with the current and incessant process of solving the social problems (Frysztacki, Korzeniowski 2005; Frysztacki 2009; Sztumski 2005: 906–908; Frieske, Poławski). experienced by people in the individual, family or group dimension of their existence. At the level of theory-creating activity, as well as the practical activity, especially social action (Żukiewicz 2013: 53–63; Marynowicz-Hetka 2006:55–63, Boudon 2009), the overall look is highly justified. Recognition of specific issues surrounding the situations experienced by people in crises, deficits and all kinds of dysfunctions leading man to the margins of social life cannot remain in isolation from the processes and phenomena occurring in the areas of politics, economy, culture, education, health, safety, labour market, etc. These spaces of social functioning

define both the individual position of a human within a certain private and public life, and their social relations with the outside world. Moreover, they also condition the internal dimension of their existence and make an important catalogue of factors that determine the subjective relation of man to the outside world and the attitudes adopted towards him.

Taking the holistic perspective as a starting point for the intended considerations, a detailed guideline chosen by me will here be the idea of the integration of social action. In terms of the discipline, the course of the considerations will be founded on an interdisciplinary approach combining the achievements derived from the theory-creating and research activities of multiple disciplines and scientific domains. With regard to the institutional dimension, the subject of the considerations is going to be concentrated around the idea of cross-sector partnerships forged to solve social problems experienced by people in a variety of life situations. It is worth mentioning the scope of these problems, the list of which will remain open and not exclusive. It comprises in the first place poverty understood here as a multi-level and multi-dimensional anomaly occurring in human life. It is caused by a lack of access to goods and services that may satisfy the certain needs of man on a level commensurate with the existing standards and accepted in a given living space (cf. Dziewiącka-Bokun, Mielecki 1997: 110; Auleytner, Głabicka 2000: 238; and other). Another group of phenomena that are seen in terms of social problems includes, in particular, homelessness (see Stankiewicz 2005; Mazur 2006; and other), unemployment (Charkowska-Smolak, Chudzicka 2004; Borkowski, Marcinkowski 2009; and other), disability (See: Barnes, Mercer 2008; Kowalik 1999; Piekut-Brodzka, Kuczyńska-Kwapisz 2004; and other), aggression and violence (See: Badura-Madej, Dobrzyńska-Mesterhazy 2000; Binczycka-Anholcer M. 2001; Dutton 2001; and other), addictions (See: Erickson 2010; Guerreschi 2006; Teesson, Degenhardt, Hall 2005; Woronowicz 2009; and other), dysfunctional families (Balcerzak-Paradowska 2004; Kawczyńska-Butrym 2013: 10; and other) and others. The literature sources, to which I refer in the footnotes below, do not close the list of excellent scientific papers and presentations of good practices in solving specific social problems. This list is much broader, and commonly available library databases can be of great help in the further exploration of the subject. The problem directory outlined above and the reference to the extensive literature on the subject I treat as sufficient justification for refraining from providing a detailed operationalization of the enumerated categories. The analysis of the terminology of these concepts would be a mere replication of the already numerous thematic papers.

The Theoretical Foundation of the Presented Concepts

The theoretical dimension of the analysis making the basis of the perspective adopted in these considerations is the central axis of the drafted concept. It applies to a holistic approach towards man in the context of the problems experienced in everyday life. One of the essential characteristics of social problems is its structural and functional connotation (Merton 1982; Parsons 1969; Levi-Strauss 2009). The reflection on the issues related to their area of research and theoretical interest leads to such disciplines as sociology (Giddens 2010; Sztompka 2002; Sztompka 2005; and other) and social policy (Lavalette, Pratt 2010; and other). Especially the latter is

strongly identified with the macro view on the issues relating to the institutional, systemic, legal, political, economic, etc. structures and functions. Social problems and issues make for an area of specific interest in social policy. This area is simultaneously strongly correlated with the above-mentioned structures and functions. Therefore, it becomes important at this point to emphasise the humanistic perspective indicating the direction in the reflection on the subject of analysis signalled in the title of the paper. On the one hand, there is a direct reference to the humanistic coefficient introduced into social sciences by Florian Znaniecki (1984: 523–524). On the other hand, this perspective primarily relates to the concept of interaction and processing of the reality of everyday life in the name of the ideal of a better tomorrow. This concept was proposed and developed in the theory of social action and the theory of social work by Helena Radlińska (1935: 19). This disciplinary duet of sociology and social pedagogy regarding the subject issues results in a situation in which the delineated theoretical frame comprises the concept of a holistic vision of man that is active and cooperative in the spaces of everyday life. A look at the inter-human relationships built in the field of cooperation is complemented with the premises derived from the theory of social action. They refer to a variety of disciplines and scientific domains as well as practice areas (Żukiewicz 2009: 96–107).

The presented theoretical foundations are the basis for the process of the further building and development of concepts and methodological models, triggering the activity of different types of institutions and organisations orienting themselves at social action. Here, the humanistic approach to the subject spectrum of predicaments in human life is considered from the point of view of the needs and opportunities for constructive solutions. The intention is to look for, on the basis of theoretical achievements, appropriate directions of practical activities. What is important at this point is that the common axis, which blurs the boundaries of theoretical and methodological divisions in various disciplines, should be - on the one hand - the ethical (Andersen 2003; Ślipko 2004; MacIntyre 2009; and other) space of analysis focused around the human well-being as a value and a virtue determining social action. On the other hand, it should be the hermeneutic (Sawicki 1996; Gadamer 2004) logic of cognition of social problems leading to their understanding through the prism of human experience. In other words, a man and his well-being is an essential point defining the scope of the issues proposed in these considerations. The integrative approach to social problems centred on the holistic concept of the perception of human life is therefore the effect of an attempt to adopt an interdisciplinary approach towards the outlined issues. The perspective chosen here to scrutinise the subject issues is the sociological, socio-psychological, social-political, and – ultimately reached – socio-pedagogical synthesis oriented on the search for model solutions. This is consistent with the leading message that was also inscribed in the program foundations of social pedagogy by Helena Radlińska. This author devoted the theoretical achievements to the service of practice and saw in it the goal of a theory-creating engagement (Radlińska 1961: 361). She drew from practice the inspiration for further research and theoretical development, through which she formed a bridge between theory and practice (Radlińska 1964: 445).

The above-outlined intention would not be feasible without the participation of the representatives of the disciplines or sub-disciplines of science indicated above in the discourse. It would become even less realistic without the participation of the representatives of the world of social action practice who are involved in the everyday professional activity of relevant institutions and social organisations. Hence, the primary objective adopted in this paper is an attempt to initiate interdisciplinary and intersectoral reflection on issues related to social problems affecting real people, families, social groups, communities, and – finally – whole societies. An effect of involvement constructed in this way of different professional forces can be generated strategies, programmes and individual projects orientating the theorists and practitioners of social action in the space of activities serving the processing and reconstruction of living conditions and human development. The concept of integrating the forces inherent in the environments is accomplished by searching for what is common and respecting of what differentiates. This hints at the idea of collectivity, joining together forces in the service of the present and future developed in the Polish tradition by creators of theoretical concepts and – at the same time – social activists like Edward Abramowski (Dobrzycka 1991), Konstanty Krzeczkowski (Balicka-Kozłowska 1966), Ludwik Krzywicki (Kowalik 1965), Czesław Babicki (Pyrzyk 2003) and Helena Radlińska (Theiss 1997). These traditions date back to the nineteenth century and were developed at the threshold of the past century around the idea of social work (Radlińska 1961: 305, 355). Its effect was the integration of human communities around common issues, identification and humanisation of interpersonal relations, combating poverty, marginalisation and social exclusion. In the center of this activity was the realisation of the idea of involving human strengths through cooperation in the processes aimed at advancing culture and improving the conditions of everyday life. The reconstruction of reality in the present for the future was established as the predominant task.

The Holistic Picture of Man in the Context of the Problems Experienced in Everyday Life - Suggestions for the Future

Józef Kozielecki, while drawing psychological portraits reflecting the concepts of man (Kozielecki 1976), saw that it is possible to find a number of features that differentiate and collectivise the "human types" proposed in the paper. It is clear that the division presented by the author is an academic attempt to seek answers to fundamental questions about human life, individual biographies, motives, behaviours, attitudes, etc. The images outlined by him in a simplified way help to explain the interesting points. They inspire further research or even denials on the basis of methodological falsificationism, or rather by underlining one's own point of view and seeking new ways to approach human nature in a dynamically changing reality.

In sociological terms, man is considered in a classic or even normative approach, as a member co-creating a larger social structure – society. Such optics embracing the concept of man seems to be broken with interactive reference built around the sociological currents rising from the research conducted by George Herbert Mead (1975) and Herbert Blumer (2008). The wide range of approaches to human nature

developed in sociology from the classical Comte's (Skarga 1977; Comte 1961) positivist concept imposing considering social phenomena and facts from the perspective of natural sciences, through Durkheim's (Szacki 1964) approach to social facts, structuralism, functionalism (Giddens 2010: 40), symbolic interactionism (Giddens 2010: 42), to the sociology of everyday life (Giddens 2010: 100; Sztompka, Bogunia-Borowska 2008) presently developed in most academic centres, makes the synthesis of this discipline extremely difficult. Thus, with a substantial simplification, which for a seasoned sociologist can be downright unacceptable, I allow myself to assume that the perspective of this discipline orientates the researcher and theorist at man in a direct relationship with social structures.

Another view on the human being - grounded in the traditions of Polish post-war social pedagogy – is the optics of perceiving man as a bio-socio-cultural being (Kamiński 1980: 34). Aleksander Kamiński attempted to integrate the theoretical reflection around a common denominator, which is the existence of a being subject to educational interactions. He then highlighted the fact that he meant, above all, the unity of human existence. It was only at the level of the exploration of what is typical for social pedagogy – the determinants of educational processes – that he emphasised the three-dimensionality of such educational situations “influences” (Kamiński 1980: 34). The concept of man drafted in this way, however, is subjected to certain limitations associated with the possible range of phenomena and processes that man experiences in the life cycle. One can and should ask about the psycho-spiritual dimension of human existence, about existential-emotional associations frequently conditioning the motives and actions taken in the course of various activities, relationships, etc. However, this is not the place for a critical analysis of the proposed concept of man, since the main goal here is to indicate the directions of development of the concept of man in the discipline referred to. Integrity is the starting point that constituted the directions of research, the theory-creating reflection and the practical actions aimed at specific environments of human life.

The integral/holistic perspective on human nature is a component of the program assumptions of social pedagogy reported by the protagonist and the mother of the discipline in Poland – Helena Radlińska. She emphasised that man in a relationship with the milieu is the subject of interest in many scientific fields and disciplines, including social pedagogy developing at the crossroads of many sciences (Radlińska 1935: 15; Radlińska 1961: 361). Presenting the point of view of the discipline created at the threshold of the twentieth century, the author pointed out that in social pedagogy, there is carried out a synthesis concerning human relationship with the milieu. The direction of this theory-creating reflection was searching for the possibilities and instruments of exerting social impact both individually and collectively. The main goal was processing the reality of human life with the help of the forces that man is the carrier of. The same man was simultaneously treated as a co-activist filling the space of social activities. With the right motivation and commitment he could become a co-founder and co-executor of activity aimed at the implementation of the idea of the common good, which was referred to by Helena Radlińska as “a better tomorrow” (Radlińska 1935: 19).

Irrespective of the disciplinary provenance, man considered from a holistic perspective is treated as a multidimensional entity with the creative potential qualified for action and social impact. Creating the conditions for a common space of reflection on the nature of human life is a challenge for the modern, intensively integrating world. Representatives of all disciplines and areas of practice can participate in it. Here, the criterion of participation can be a focus on cognition, understanding, explanation and designing models for practice, and overcoming limitations, which make barriers in life and human development. The multiplicity of theoretical achievements and practical experiences can serve to build comprehensive models—theoretical ones (formation of a theoretical basis for practical activities), methodological ones (building research projects aimed at obtaining knowledge, understanding and explaining specific areas of the reality of human life) and method-related ones (developing models of practical action for reshaping the reality of everyday life in order to improve living conditions and human development).

Integration processes taking place in twenty-first century reality mainly embrace the sphere of economic and political relations. Cultural and social integration remains on the margins of both theory-creating activity and the practice of integration. These processes are dominated by subordination to the quantitative indicators pervading all spheres of programming strategic and operative activity. The mercantilisation of social relations, atomisation, and the atrophy of human relationships that accompany them make some of the many reasons implying a search for practical solutions that integrate the image of man remaining in a close relationship with the environment and the space of public life. In the context of social problems, it is not difficult to see that the holistic approach to the human being is an unquestionable priority in the reflection on finding effective solutions relieving the constraints which destitute man and pushing him to the margins of life, or even beyond them. The holistic picture of man will make it easier to see the potential of the powers inherent in every human being. Dissemination and domination of the concepts atomising social life has resulted in there now being numerous narrow specialisations. They cover both the optics of perceiving the reality of human life through a prism of "microscopes" and the fragmentation of images excerpted from the holistic context without a sound reference to the whole. That fragmentation contributes to a division of the world into particles, which significantly obscure the overall picture. This mechanism has also been applicable to man who, in practice, is perceived otherwise by a doctor, a social worker, a policeman, a judge, a plumber, a banker, etc. Even in the case of representatives of science, the development of specialised disciplines with specified perspectives has restricted the holistic overview. Hence, what seems to be convincing, is the concept advocating a return to the classics, to the predecessors who "had time" to study human nature, to explore the world in its richness and complexity. Perhaps, it would be worthwhile to set off from a philosophical reflection on the specificity of human life in order to build - through a combination of the knowledge derived from specialised research units and institutions - integrated models that will facilitate the realisation of the idea of serving mankind in the form of programmes designed to support their development and raise the conditions and the quality of everyday life?

Bibliography

- Andersen S. (2003), *Wprowadzenie do etyki*, W.A. „Dialog”, Warsaw, ISBN 8388938649.
- Aronson E. (2005), *Człowiek istota społeczna*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8301115637.
- Auleytner J., Głąbicka K. (2000), *Polityka społeczna pomiędzy opiekuńczością a pomocniczością*, WSP TWP, Warsaw, ISBN 8388278002.
- Badura-Madej W., Dobrzyńska-Mesterhazy A. (2000), *Przemoc w rodzinie. Interwencja kryzysowa i psychoterapia*, UJ, Kraków, ISBN 8323313849.
- Balcerzak-Paradowska B. (2004), *Rodzina i polityka rodzinna na przelomie wieków, przemiany zagrożenia potrzeba działań*, IPISS, Warsaw, ISBN 8387890510.
- Balicka-Kozłowska H. (1966), *Konstanty Krzeczkowski, badacz życia społecznego*, KiW, Warsaw.
- Barnes C., Mercer G. (2008), *Niepełnosprawność*, SIC, Warsaw, ISBN 9788360457498.
- Binczycka-Anholcer M. (red.) (2001), *Agresja i przemoc a zdrowie psychiczne*, PTHP, Warsaw-Poznań, ISBN 8391361616.
- Blumer H. (2008), *Interakcjonizm symboliczny. Perspektywa i metoda*, Nomos, Kraków, ISBN 9788360490464.
- Borkowski T., Marcinkowski A. (1999), *Socjologia bezrobocia*, Śląsk, Katowice, ISBN 8370604048.
- Boudon R. (2009), *Logika działania społecznego*, ZW NOMOS, Kraków, ISBN 9788376880075.
- Comte A. (1961), *Metoda pozytywna w szesnastu wykładach*, PWN, Warsaw.
- Charkowska-Smolak T., Chudzicka A. (red.) (2004), *Człowiek w społecznej przestrzeni bezrobocia*, UAM, Poznań, ISBN 8323213372.
- Dobrzycka U. (1991), *Abramowski*, WP, Warsaw, ISBN 8321407358.
- Dutton D.G. (2001), *Przemoc w rodzinie*, Grupa Wydawnicza Bertelsmann Media, Warsaw, ISBN 8372274770.
- Dziewięcka-Bokun L., Mielecki J. (1997), *Wybrane problemy polityki społecznej*, UW, Wrocław, ISBN 8322916183.
- Erickson C.K. (2010), *Nauka o uzależnieniach: od neurobiologii do skutecznych metod leczenia*, UW, Warsaw, ISBN 9788323506621.
- Frieske K.W., Poławski P. (1999), *Opieka i kontola. Instytucje wobec problemów społecznych*, Śląsk, Katowice, ISBN 8371641516.
- Frysztański K., Korzeniowski M (red.) (2005), *Wokół sposobów życia, kwestii społecznych i wzorów ich rozwiązywania*, UO, Opole, ISBN 8373951350.
- Frysztański K. (2009), *Socjologia problemów społecznych*, W.N. Scholar, Warsaw, ISBN 9788373833906.
- Gadamer H.G. (2004), *Prawda i metoda. Zarys hermeneutyki filozoficznej*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8385109110.
- Giddens A. (2010), *Socjologia*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8301142251.
- Grodecka J. (2012), *Funkcjonowanie partnerstw międzysektorowych w obszarze integracji społeczno-zawodowej*, [in:] A. Handzlik, J. Głowacki (eds.), *Partnerstwo - współpraca międzysektorowa w realizacji celów społecznych*, UE, MSAP, Kraków, ISBN 9788389410177.
- Guerreschi C. (2006), *Nowe uzależnienia*, Salwator, Kraków, ISBN 8360082456.
- Kamiński A. (1980), *Funkcje pedagogiki społecznej. Praca socjalna i kulturalna*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8301017058.
- Kawczyńska-Butrym Z. (2003), *Życie rodzin w enklawach ubóstwa*, [in:] M. Kalinowski (ed.), *Środowiska specjalnej troski*, Polihymnia, Lublin, ISBN 8372701946.
- Kowalik S. (1999), *Psychologiczne podstawy rehabilitacji osób niepełnosprawnych*, Śląsk, Katowice, ISBN 8371641532.
- Kowalik T. (1965), *Krzywicki*, WP, Warsaw.
- Kozielecki J. (1976), *Psychologiczne koncepcje człowieka*, PIW, Warsaw.

- Lavalette M., Pratt A. (2010), *Polityka społeczna. Teorie, pojęcia, problemy*, Difin, Warsaw, ISBN 9788376411255.
- Levi-Strauss C. (2009), *Antropologia strukturalna*, Aletheia Wydawnictwo, Warsaw, ISBN 9788361182313.
- MacIntyre A. (2009), *Etyka i polityka*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 9788301157852.
- Marynowicz-Hetka E. (2006), *Pedagogika społeczna. Podręcznik akademicki, T. 1*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8301146753.
- Mazur J. (ed.) (2006), *Bezdomność. Szkice z socjologii, polityki społecznej i katolickiej nauki społecznej*, KUL, Lublin, ISBN 8373634282.
- Mead G.H. (1975), *Umysł, osobowość i społeczeństwo*, PWN, Warsaw.
- Merton R.K. (1982), *Teoria socjologiczna i struktura społeczna*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8301032979.
- Parsons T. (1969), *Struktura społeczna a osobowość*, PWE, Warsaw.
- Piekut-Brodzka D., Kuczyńska-Kwapisz J. (2004), *Pedagogika specjalna dla pracowników socjalnych*, APS, Warsaw, ISBN 8389600005.
- Pyrzyk I. (2003), *Prekursorzy pedagogiki opiekuńczej*, Adam Marszałek, Toruń, ISBN 8371741197.
- Radlińska H. (1935), *Stosunek wychowawcy do środowiska społecznego. Szkice z pedagogiki społecznej*, Nasza Księgarnia SP. AKC ZNP, Warsaw.
- Radlińska H. (1961), *Pedagogika społeczna*, Ossolineum, Wrocław.
- Radlińska H. (1964), *Z dziejów pracy społecznej i oświatowej*, Ossolineum, Wrocław.
- Sawicki M. (1996), *Hermeneutyka pedagogiczna*, WN Semper, Warsaw, ISBN 8386951117.
- Skarga B. (1977), *Comte*, WP, Warsaw.
- Stankiewicz L. (2005), *Zrozumieć bezdomność. Aspekty polityki społecznej*, UWM, Olsztyn, ISBN 8372991634.
- Szacki J. (1964), *Durkheim*, WP, Warsaw.
- Sztompka P. (2002), *Socjologia. Analiza społeczeństwa*, ZNAK, Kraków, ISBN 8324002189.
- Sztompka P. (2005), *Socjologia zmian społecznych*, ZNAK, Kraków, ISBN 8324005986.
- Sztompka P., Bogunia-Borowska M. (eds.) (2008), *Socjologia codzienności*, ZNAK, Kraków, ISBN 9788324009596.
- Sztumski J. (2005), *Problem społeczny*, [in:] T. Pilch (ed.), *Encyklopedia XXI wieku*, vol. 4, W.A. Żak, Warsaw, ISBN 838814992X.
- Ślipko T. (2004), *Zarys etyki ogólnej*, WAM, Kraków, ISBN 8373183337.
- Teesson M., Degenhardt L., Hall W. (2005), *Uzależnienia*, GWP, Gdańsk, ISBN 8389574551.
- Theiss W. (1997), *Radlińska*, W.A. Żak, Warsaw, ISBN 8386770538.
- Woronowicz B. (2009), *Uzależnienia: geneza, terapia, powrót do zdrowia*, Media Rodzina - Harbour Point, WE Parpamedia, Poznań, Warsaw, ISBN 9788372783691.
- Znanięcki F. (1984), *Spoleczne role uczonych*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8301048514.
- Żukiewicz A. (2013), *Działanie społeczne w ujęciu socjologicznym i społeczno-pedagogicznym*, „Praca Socjalna” 3, ISSN 08603480.
- Żukiewicz A. (2009), *Wprowadzenie do ontologii pracy społecznej. Odniesienia do społeczno-pedagogicznej refleksji Heleny Radlińskiej*, UP, Kraków, ISBN 9788372715654.

Local Partnership as a Network Organisation – an Analysis of Selected Theoretical and Application Problems

Elżbieta Mirewska, Katarzyna Ornacka, Katarzyna Żuraw

Abstract

One of the relevant activities of social life is undertaking efforts to reduce and prevent the phenomenon of social exclusion, which mostly affects vulnerable groups functioning in local communities. Thus, local governments are looking for different models influencing an increase of life quality and the functioning of their citizens, with the simultaneous orientation of their activity on the inclusion of disadvantaged groups in the local environment. One of the models building relations and professional connections for cooperation within their community is the model of local partnership. This model is looking for solutions to reduce the peripherality of social and professional life of marginalised groups. It builds an area for the integration of various social, economic and public entities, interested in a common and active search for effective ways to solve local problems. This article refers to the initiative to create partnerships in the field of social welfare and integration. It presents actions that form coalitions promoting this goal.

Key words: *Local partnership, cross-sectoral cooperation, inter-organisational networks, social economy entities, material and immaterial resources*

Introduction

A lot of local communities have already had extensive experience in the development of social dialogue and cross-sectoral cooperation. Nevertheless, not all these experiences have developed patterns ensuring the effectiveness of the cooperation of local entities and the community population. Currently, the social environment is seeking a certain framework for an effective, functional and efficient operation which utilises its own environmental potential. This research is focused around the concept of local partnership, which the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy defines as: “the cooperation between the various partners, who together in a systematic, permanent manner, and with the use of innovative methods and means, plan, design, implement and execute specific actions and initiatives, aimed at the development of the local socio-economic environment and the creation of a local identity among members of the community (Sobolewski 2007: 10). In literature on this subject, the term local partnership is interpreted variously. However, in many definitions one can succeed in finding similar features, focused around aspects of: „the voluntary participation of partners from different sectors, common active operation, common social goals, joint investment of resources, risk sharing, common benefiting, long-term cooperation, searching for innovative solutions” (Woźniczka 2013: 19). The concurrence of these features enables an understanding of the essence of partnership responding to the needs of those who practice this concept.

Legal aspects of the local partnership concept

The concept of local partnership has its reference in the basic legal documents of the European Union as well as in the documents binding in Poland. The Constitution of the Republic of Poland of 2 April 1997 firmly emphasises the social dialogue principle as a communication form of public authority and self-organised local communities. Beside this principle, a reference is made to the principle of subsidiarity. It is the foundation of a democratic state. It is based on the assumption that the individual is capable of executing their own tasks and solving their own problems, in which the state should not interfere. In case of difficulties occurring during the implementation of tasks, every individual has the right and obligation to expect support from a superior authority. Both of these principles are significantly related to the principle of partnership and social participation. They indicate the relationship between citizens and the state. They strengthen the rights of citizens with respect to state structures.

The second important document referring to the principle of partnership is the Act on social assistance of 12 Mar 2004, with its subsequent amendments. It indicates the principle of partnership in the context of cooperation between central and local government with social organisations, NGOs, the Catholic Church, other churches, religious organisations, and natural and juridical persons. The reference to the principle of local partnerships can be also found in the Act on employment promotion and labour market institutions of 20 Apr 2004, as amended. In view of this document, the labour market policy implemented by the public administration should be based on dialogue and cooperation with social partners using employment and local partnership councils. Similarly, the Act on Public Benefit and Volunteer Work of 24 April 2003, with its subsequent amendments, imposes an obligation on public administration to cooperate with non-governmental organisations in the implementation of public tasks using the various forms of collaboration. These forms may be initiatives including the outsourcing of public tasks to social entities, compliance with the obligations of mutual information in the range of planned courses of action, consultation with the social entities, and the formation of collective teams of an advisory or initiative nature. In addition to existing legislation, the document 'Strategy for Supporting Civil Society Development for 2009–2015', which especially stresses the importance of applying the principle of social partnership, was approved by the Polish Government on 4 November 2008. This strategy in its assumptions refers to the values underpinning the development of a civil and democratic society. These values are: freedom and responsibility, sovereignty and partnership, subsidiarity and participation, and solidarity and social justice. On the basis of these values, the partner relationship between the various entities forming the social and economic life of a particular territorial community becomes meaningful.

Local partnership as a network organisation in the context of resources and limitations

Local partnership in its fundamental concept is based on the mutual well-structured relationship between the particular partners. Subjects acting individually without developing managerial competencies in the field of interpersonal communication

have little chance to stay in the market of economic and social services (Mirewska, Ornacka 2014). Today's perspective forces work of a community nature on many institutions and organisations. This entails key changes in the creation of developmental strategies for many social and economic institutions. The mission and vision of these entities must assume a multisectoral cooperation, i.e. external connections and social responsibility. The organisational structure of these institutions becomes significantly remodelled. There is a moving away from the structures of hierarchical subordination to inter-organisational networking. "This model fosters an understanding of complexity in the global economy. It also refers to Alter and Hague's research in which they claim that an increasing number of partnerships, alliances, joint ventures, consortia, liabilities networks, and system configurations demonstrate astonishing evolutionary change in the institutional forms of management. They predict that networks of inter-organisational connections are an institution of the future" (Netting 2010: 80–89). This means involvement in a network of multiple entities operating across geographical, sectoral, industry, financial, political, social, etc. divisions. The very concept of the network applies to a variety of terms: organisational network, inter-organisational network, network organisation, network structure, and network (Niemczyk, Stańczyk-Hugiet, Jasiński 2012: 9).

This concept is variously defined depending on the perspective adopted by the authors. According to Niemczyk and Jasiński, "inter-organisational networks might mean the creation of a new form of activity and it then seems legitimate to speak of network organisation (structure) or only a conclusion of agreements or arrangements and then we are dealing with network cooperation" (Niemczyk, Stańczyk-Hugiet, Jasiński 2012: 9–11). The basic characteristics of being in the network as in the concept of local partnerships are:

- "striving for cooperation (...) with (...) the full decision-making autonomy of entities (...);
- use of mechanisms of market coordination for actions (...);
- increase of the innovation potential in organisational and management areas;
- unity of goals;
- lack of dominant roles of capital connections (...);
- low level of vertical integration and hierarchy among the participants (...);
- natural market flexibility throughout the entire network and its nodes" (Niemczyk, Stańczyk-Hugiet, Jasiński 2012: 12).

The network of multiple connections and the relationship between entities is dependent on the network, has in its assumption, and leads to a competitive advantage with the simultaneous improvement in the level of the quality of a service or a product offered. In a greater perspective, an impact of the network/partner group is to utilise added value that has been developed in this structure for a particular local community. This happens when the network structure, within the local partnership, is able to use the community resources of a material (type of premises, finance, transport, etc.) or immaterial nature. Elements such as: know-how, information, licenses, patents, brand, reputation, competence of

the organization, organisational culture, technology, trademark, brand, image, partners' capital, client capital, secrets of an organisation, intellectual property rights, copyrights, organisation name, tradition, location—it may constitute immaterial resources (Sobolewski 2007: 66). To this specified catalogue can be attached: skills and professional experience of the workers, their relationships and contacts inside and outside the company, reputation of the institution itself, and political culture. The value of these resources allows for a consolidation of potential within community capabilities and transferring them to the projects currently implemented at a single entity level or a partnership structure. This saves time, money, energy, and a person's workload. The risk of entanglement in a network may be the tendencies of entities associated within a particular organisation to a dependence on a "Big Brother" structure, a loss of acquired knowledge, an outflow of workers to other affiliated entities, an uneven flow of resources, a peripheral distribution of individual entities in the network, a dominance of network leaders, etc.

Each of the network/partnership structure partners has a certain potential differentiating their partners. Adopting the classic approach of local partnership as a network of inter-organisational relationships between public administration, social partners and local business, the advantages and disadvantages of each of the parties can be recognised. However, an awareness of the existence of certain limitations on the side of each entity makes common interest prevail over the partners' defects.

Thereby, the public administration side is usually well organised. Its decision-making and administrative structure is properly organised and transparent. It has the instruments and mechanisms of legal and institutional regulation facilitating the implementation of tasks and projects. According to Anthony Sobolewski, a significant disadvantage of public administration is, however, excessive bureaucracy, transferring "official instructions" and patterns to partnership work, and the introduction of a formula of orders into the management of a partnership. In contrast to the public side, the social side is characterised by a good overview of the problems and needs of the closest environment. It is spontaneous, vibrant and energetic. It often expresses the will and interest of the local community. What inhibits cooperation in the area of partnership is the lack of regularity, arrangement and structure. What dominates is the reluctance to administer actions and a lack of competences in effective management while also neglecting to secure the interests of the partners. The third partner, i.e., the business sector is well organised. It is task and process-oriented. It effectively and efficiently designs tasks. In its nature it is guided by the philosophy of "cost-effectiveness and willingness to gain profit" Social matters and sensitivity for this entity are subordinate to economic interest (Sobolewski 2007: 17).

Inter-organisational networks occurring in the partnership and their application dimension

In the world of business, network connections adopt different solutions, both formal and informal. Some institutions will translate their network connections as the construction of formal organisational structure, while others will be satisfied with signed mutual agreements. The scope of their territorial impact is various as well.

Networks can operate in the local, regional, national and cross-border perspective. Typical frequent forms of an organisational network are: cooperative networks, outsourcing networks, franchise networks, cluster networks, networks of strategic alliances, holding networks, and public-private partnership networks.

The business networks highlighted above, to a greater or lesser extent, pervade the public and social sector, creating different combinations, not always of a formalised character, for example in legal agreements. Sometimes these are the agreements of intent or multilateral arrangements indicating the participation of entities within certain alliances or coalitions. Referring to the theory of management, it is worth mentioning brief definitions of particular types of networks, in the context of their use within the framework of the idea of social partnership in the sphere of social welfare and integration.

As defined by J. Kortan, cooperative connection is considered as: “such a form of cooperation, wherein only certain parts of the overall object of operating entities participating in it, or also single actions exceeding the possibilities of their implementation by one entity, are subject to integration” (Niemczyk, Stańczyk-Hugiet, Jasiński 2012: 110). At the level of the multisectoral relationship, cooperative networks are proving correct, inter alia, between social welfare centres, labour offices and social organisations statutorily engaged in social support or activities for the local community. “The organisation of socially useful or public works requires the inter-institutional partnership cooperation of employment and social welfare services, since socially useful work is performed by the unemployed without benefit rights, using welfare in the place of a domicile or residence of the people performing it and have to be socially useful for the local community. The municipality (Social Welfare Centre) requests, and the governor (District Employment/Labour Office) directs, the unemployed to perform such work. The advantage of this instrument is that the work for the local community causes social welfare to cease being associated with only the granting of benefits, and besides, local employers are able to change the stereotypical perception of welfare recipients as unattractive resources in the labour market. It is similar in the case of public works. The municipality, including social welfare institutions, is one of those entities that can organise public works for the unemployed” (Krzyszkowski 2011: 20).

“The creation of outsourcing networks consists of the commissioning of particular works to various subcontractors in the domestic and foreign market” (Banach 2012: Weissbrot-Koziarska, Dąbrowska-Jabłońska 2012: 28-30). In this approach, many companies delegate their peripheral and auxiliary tasks outside the structure of the parent company/institution in such types as: cleaning, property protection, laundry, accounting, and legal service, etc. In this case, the company/public institution retains for itself and develops only those tasks that are crucial for it and has the strategic importance related to their position and reputation in the market. Today, in practical operation, public administration creates outsourcing networks with various entities, often preferring the social economy entities employing disadvantaged people in the open labour market or non-governmental organisations. Examples of outsourcing services organised by local governments can be care services and catering services focused on meals for children in schools or the

organisation of nutrition for social welfare center clients. An illustration of such an activity as an entity of social economy is the social cooperative 'Opoka (Bedrock)' in Lesser Poland. It was founded by juridical persons, i.e. the two associations: the Association for Sustainable Socio-Economic Development 'Klucz (Key)' and the Christian Association of Charity. This cooperative is an excellent example of building a network of local partnership between local municipal governments (Social Welfare Centre), NGO's, the District Employment/Labour Office and the economic sector. Thanks to the support of founding bodies (NGO's), the 'Opoka (Bedrock)' cooperative at the start of its activities, obtained advisory, marketing and legal support plus office space and volunteer support. The local government has made facilities available that are designated for a kitchen in a nearby primary school, and a local entrepreneur has made renovations with a long-term deferral of the required repayment for the completed jobs. The municipality has lent a caregiver to the cooperative, for the purpose of meal deliveries to recipients of the catering service. Today, the case of the 'Opoka Bedrock' cooperative in Klucze constitutes a key example of the functioning of the local partnership model, enhancing local social development through a properly constructed system of social support for indigenous groups of the socially excluded (Sutuła 2013: 6-8).

Franchise refers to "the sales system of goods, services or technology, which is based on a close and continuous cooperation between legally and financially separate enterprises – franchisor and its individual franchisees, covering in a holistic way, the ideas of the functioning of franchisees in the market in accordance with what is provided by the franchisor for a fee, the concept set to the smallest aspects and providing on-going support, consulting, training" (Niemczyk, Stańczyk-Hugiet, Jasiński 2012: 150-160). The primary benefit of cooperation within the franchise network is the know-how and experience providing ready tested solutions in exchange for a fixed fee. Social franchising is inspired by this model. Its purpose, however, is social not financial profit. Many experts on the social economy believe that identical, proven models, business patterns, functioning inside and outside Europe, can be successfully implemented as a social franchise under Polish conditions. Social enterprise has formed the leading Italian hotel chain Le Mat, whose staff are people with disabilities, and can serve as an example here. Ready-made reputable patterns developed by them may be reproduced and distributed.

An indigenous social franchise model is the example of the 'Barka (Barge)' Foundation which deals with marginalised people. For 20 years in Poland, 'Barka' worked with the socially excluded and with those experiencing different kinds of difficulties for 20 years. Among one of its numerous programmes 'Barka' developed a vocational training school for the unemployed (Centres of Social Integration), many social enterprises, affordable housing programs, as well as self-sustaining communities in poor Polish villages. Similar needs exist in many other places in Europe. Since 2007, when 'Barka' started operating in London, several large European metropolises (local governments and organisations) have signed up with 'Barka' for assistance. Today, 'Barka' is beginning the process for creating centres in Stockholm, The Hague, Utrecht, Berlin, and Bremen. The franchise model first appeared with Barka's activities in the years 1989-2008 when 20 associations and 20 social cooperatives were founded in Poland and united with the 'Barka' network.

On a franchise level, 'Barka' today operates in 40 Polish municipalities, building a partnership in government projects through local governments, entrepreneurs and civil society organisations. In each municipality 'Barka' aims to develop Centres for Social Integration and social cooperatives. The franchise model began to spread to countries outside of Poland in 1995, when new 'Barka' associations began to appear in France, Holland, England and Ireland, acting in a particular "area of business: helping excluded people struggling with difficulties to return to a life of dignity, and in many cases, to a socially acceptable life" (<http://barka.org.pl/> 20.05.2014).

Another good Polish example of social franchising is a project of the Café-Bookshop 'Cooperative' in Lublin. It was formed as a result of the agreement of partners working for social economy, that is, representatives of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Family Welfare Centre, and the multisectoral 'Four Seasons (Cztery Pory Roku)' social cooperative. The strategic goal of this entity is the activation of the socially and economically excluded. The café promotes fair trade products. The model of this café within a framework of social franchise has been replicated by the city of Białystok (Banach, Mirewska 2013: 21–32).

The original forms of a partnership network are clusters, consisting of independent companies recruited from the same branch, and of other organisational units of a certain area, interrelated by a shared objective. A. Sobolewski defines cluster as: "a group of institutions and organisations (...), which are interlinked and operate within a defined area (...), are most often associated with a specific industry, are complementary to each other (...), and through collaboration achieve a higher level of efficiency than when acting alone" (Sobolewski 2007: 15).

A few clusters, which promoted local communities and implemented activities, were established there in the area of social economy. For example, The Lubusz Cluster of III Sector was formed recently. It brings together 15 NGOs. It invites subsequent social economy entities to cooperate as long as they share the mission and objectives of the Cluster. The cluster's mission is formulated in the form of its definition: "The Cluster - a foundation of three-sector cooperation established in order to increase the potential of member organisations, and thus the effectiveness of their socially useful actions" (<http://www.ekonomiaspoleczna.pl/> 2.05.2014). At this point, other initiatives of social organisations united in one platform are worth mentioning: a cluster of social economy established in the sub-region of Łomża, a cluster functioning in the Pomeranian or Łódź region, etc.

Strategic alliances are considered to be: "agreements between multiple independent enterprises, which prefer to jointly implement a project or conduct specific business, coordinating competencies, methods, and necessary resources of actions rather than pursue this project or conduct this activity alone incurring risk (...)" (Niemczyk, Stańczyk-Hugiet, Jasiński: 2012: 349). The functioning of the organisation in the network of alliances is a constant negotiation between autonomous entities in the interest of the achievement of the common goal. Alliances, such as agreements, can be created by the competing institutions as well as partners with complementary resources, interested in implementing a joint project or activity. At the multisectoral contact level social alliances prove correct. In contrast to strategic alliances, social alliances do not have an economic nature, whereas they have to include

entrepreneur's/public administration unit's cooperation with social organisation. In this arrangement, significant value belonging to social organisation in relation to the business or the public sector is volunteering. It provides for a business, among other aspects, an element of a positive image. A lot of public administration units, in the sphere of welfare and social integration, establish at their core business, associations or foundations, extending in a natural way its activities and initiatives. For example, homes for the elderly, set up their own social organisations, whose purpose is merit and financial strengthening of the entities for which they act.

According to H. Jagoda and B. Haus, a holding is defined as: "a group of companies, one of which shall exercise unified leadership over the others, for example, taking advantage of possibilities of imposing its will upon them" (Niemczyk, Stańczyk-Hugiet, Jasiński 2012: 171). The independence of one entity from the other may result from legal bank records and securities. Companies existing within a holding form a unified structure and are dependent on the dominant entity. Civil and local government initiatives, while stimulating social entrepreneurship, can lead to the establishment of a holding network. There are known examples of such networks in the urban tissue. As a result of the transformation of municipal companies, educational institutions, and culture centres, a part of the shares were indirectly sold to residents. The citizens purchased shares through a formula of associations, cooperatives, and partnerships, which has maintained the public nature of the entities acquired.

An interesting holding bringing together several entities is a Warsaw organisation dedicated to the collection and sorting of waste. In this particular case, this is a "holding" of a number of organisations: commercial law companies employing people with disabilities as well as associations and foundations, which provide therapeutic support for the persons who are employed and engaged in educational activities. The association is the owner of the commercial law company and therefore it has full impact on its business and the method of recruiting workers. The entire generated profit is transferred to the statutory objectives (Frączek, Hausner, Mazur 2012: 202).

The public-private network consists of "the relationship between public entities (...) or public and private entities (...), which are formalised in order to realise the public interest" (Frączek, Hausner, Mazur 2012: 352). This solution promotes the decentralisation of power at the local and supralocal level. In this perspective, the local government as an independent entity becomes a participant in the inter-organisational networks. Nowadays in Poland, there are many examples of the transfer of public tasks related to the operation of schools or support centers to local communities represented by non-governmental, church, religious or private organisations. In Czajowice, a municipality of Wielka Wieś in Lesser Poland, the 'Environment and Us (Środowisko i My)' association implements public tasks by operating the primary school and the preschool. The municipality renovated the building, installed a monitoring system, passes on educational subsidies on an ongoing basis, local businessmen help equip the school, and the voluntary fire brigade provides transportation services. In Lesser Poland, many youth community centres are operated by the Siemacha Association within the public-private partnership. The

NGO is an organiser and manages the centres, while the funding is divided by units of local government, for example, the voivodeship and municipal government (Rogaczewska 2013: 13).

Applications

The aforementioned brief characteristics of particular inter-organisational networks demonstrate activities and innovative solutions which can be implemented in the context of the idea of social partnership. Multisectoral entities are able to focus on the local needs and existing local social problems, and create convenient conditions for the mobilisation of local initiatives promoting pro-development activities.

Well-functioning local partnerships require from their leaders many competencies, including a substantial commitment to building and maintaining a platform of mutual cooperation, the ability of conversation in the spirit of social dialogue, and a willingness to take actions aimed at achieving a team goal. The partnership of multisectoral entities not only fosters synergistic effects which bring profits to each parties of the system, but also creates the conditions for a competitive advantage for this entity in the economic market. The position of local partnership in the social environment depends on its strength. The power lies in the complementarity of sites within existing competencies, in the sharing of knowledge, experience and common "wealth". The accumulation of community resources is conducive not only to them, but it is also of significant value to the local community. It is in this community that creative and innovative solutions from different areas of social and economic life, and which are the driving and developmental forces of that environment, are implemented. The individual actions of particular sectors, especially public or social, would not be as effective as holistic, synchronised and collective actions.

Bibliography

- Banach M. (2012), *Benchmarking. CRS. Outsourcing*, [in:] A. Weissbrot-Koziarska, P. Sikora (eds.), vol. 1; A. Weissbrot-Koziarska, I. Dąbrowska-Jabłońska (eds.), vol. 2, *Słownik: Metody, techniki i formy w pracy socjalnej, opiekuńczej i terapeutycznej*, UO, Opole, ISBN 9788373955103 (vol. 1); ISBN 9788373955455 (vol. 2).
- Banach M., Mirewska E. (2013), *Spółdzielnia socjalna jako forma reintegracji społecznej i zawodowej osób niepełnosprawnych*, [in:] M. Rusnáková (ed.), *Aktuálne dianie, perspektívy a vývojové trendy v sociálnej, edukačnej a zdravotníckej práci s marginalizovanými skupinami*, VERBUM, Ružomberok, ISBN 9788080849955.
- Frączek M., Hausner J., Mazur S. (eds.) (2012), *Wokół ekonomii społecznej*, Małopolska Szkoła Administracji Publicznej Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego w Krakowie, Kraków, ISBN 9788389410221.
- Fundacja Barka, <http://barka.org.pl/content/fundacja-barka-przyklad-franczyzy-spolecznej-%E2%80%93-studium-przypadku>, date access: 2.05.2014.
- Koalicja Sprawiedliwego Handlu, http://www.fairtrade.org.pl/s1_co_to_jest_sprawiedliwy_handel_fair_trade.html, date access: 2.05.2014.
- Ekonomia Społeczna.pl, <http://www.ekonomiaspoleczna.pl/wiadomosc/910168.html>, date access: 2.05.2014.

- Krzyszkowski J. (2011), *Organizacja pomocy społecznej a nowe koncepcje zarządzania*, [in:] M. Grewiński, J. Krzyszkowski (2011), *Współczesne tendencje w pomocy społecznej i pracy socjalnej*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Instytutu Technologii Eksploatacji – Państwowego Instytutu Badawczego, Warsaw, ISBN 9788363332020.
- Mirewska E., Ornacka K. (2014), *Wykorzystanie idei partnerstwa lokalnego w systemie pomocy społecznej*, [in:] M. Szpunar (ed.), *Badania w pracy socjalnej – stan i perspektywy*, ANWI, Gdańsk (forthcoming).
- Netting E.F. (2010), *Przyszłość makropracy socjalnej*, [in:] J. Daley (ed.), *Postępy w pracy socjalnej*, WSP TWP, Warsaw, ISBN 9788361121251
- Niemczyk J., Stańczyk-Hugiet E., Jasiński B. (eds.) (2012), *Sieci międzyorganizacyjne. Współczesne wyzwanie dla teorii i praktyki zarządzania*, C.H. Beck, Warsaw, ISBN 9788325534486.
- Rogaczewska M. (2013), *Partycypacyjne tworzenie lokalnej Polityki Rodzinnej. Poradnik dla samorządów*, Kancelaria Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej, Warsaw, ISBN 9788393731848.
- Sobolewski A. (2007), *Przez współpracę do sukcesu. Partnerstwo lokalne na rynku pracy*, Departament Rynku Pracy Ministerstwa Pracy i Polityki Społecznej, Warsaw, ISBN 8360302324.
- Sutuła J. (2013), *Spółdzielnia socjalna „Opoka”. Zawsze pierwsza w es.O.es*, ROPS, Kraków, www.rops.krakow.pl/pobierz-plik/83.html, date access: 2.05.2014.
- Woźniczka J. (2013), *Partnerstwo w obszarze pomocy społecznej. Poradnik dla pracowników służb społecznych*, ROPS, Kraków, ISBN 9788360242810.

The Elderly Care and Assistance System

Elżbieta Bojanowska

Abstract

Currently, there are no systemic solutions in Poland with respect to care, nursing, and assistance services for the elderly. As far as institutional care for the elderly is concerned, two systems have merged: social assistance and health care. With the above in mind, the existing solutions are dispersed, inconsistent and do not meet the criteria of availability and the full satisfaction of seniors' needs. The tasks between particular systems are not defined clearly enough. Therefore, no plain criteria stipulating when each sector should intervene are provided. Furthermore, the applicable solutions are not adapted to the changing needs of the ageing society. The challenges as a result of the lack of consistent institutional care system addressed to the elderly make it impossible to provide an optimum form of support. It seems that it is essential to create a comprehensive social policy programme with respect to old age and the elderly, which would focus on institutional care.

Key words: *the elderly, social assistance, care system*

One of the most prominent features of contemporary societies is the ageing of the population and change in the population structure. In the 1960s, on the eve of population trends, E. Rosset raised the issue of "the elderly" by pointing to the consequences of such a phenomenon. He wrote that „the ageing process of the population leads to fundamental change of the face of society and binding legal, moral and probably all other norms” (Rosset 1959: 7). He also stated that the ageing process revolutionises all outdated social and demographic structures, since “the process that is at stake is the one to which the scientists ascribe no lesser significance than to phenomena changing the course of history” (Rosset 1967: 7). The ageing process of society is a consequence of the population trends:

- increase of average life expectancy,
- low fertility rate – below simple demographic renewal,
- external migration of young people.

Additionally, social and economic transformations, faster technical and IT progress, an increase in the standard of living, and medical development and achievements all contribute to an increase in life expectancy. Everybody knows that ageing is inevitable, as we all age. The ageing process (regardless of an individual or society) manifests itself differently and presents different faces. Old age should not be identified as a disease, as it is a stage of individual development after the maturity period. M. Susłowska believes that there is no such thing as a uniform type of old person. Long life distinguishes people more than short life, whereas the ageing process differs greatly between individuals (Susłowska 1998: 7). Furthermore, as J. Rembowski claims, “... old age does not come overnight...”, it is the result of a longer process taking place in the human organism (Rembowski 1984: 128). Therefore, the population of the elderly is truly varied, and the course of the ageing process is profoundly influenced by a large and unique body of experience resulting from social and economic status, lifestyle, health condition, work, social functions as

well as a network of social relationships. These experiences gained over the years determine not only life expectancy, but also the prevalence, level of disability, lifestyle, activity, self-reliance and an overall level of dependence on others. According to B. Synak, "dependence is a state of interaction between an individual and another person, groups or institutions, having provisions necessary for satisfying the basic needs of such an individual (biological, material, cultural, psychological and social, etc.), who is unable to do to the same on their own, thus, it becomes indispensable to receive support from others" (Synak 1992: 108).

In view of the economy and principles of social life, the ageing process is considered one of the most important issues of the 21st century. For it is the source of new social, economic and business challenges. The most important thereof is related to the satisfaction of various population needs, in particular those connected with social security¹. Therefore, on one hand, the supply and demand for care, nursing, support and medical services changes, yet on the other, the ageing of the population affects, inter alia, family, local community, different social communities as well as various institutions. The ageing process forces such groups to face problems and needs that are typical of the elderly. Undoubtedly, the institutions will require fundamental modifications, among other things, within the scope of the support and care for the elderly.

The support and care of the elderly is deemed to mean the entirety of services aimed at facilitating better organization as well as satisfying age-related needs. Therefore, social security is so important, i.e. the system of benefits and rights guaranteeing social security to an individual. The system includes social insurance, health care, social assistance and support for the family in exercising its fundamental functions. With respect to the elderly, the social security system should guarantee: steady and regular income in an amount sufficient to satisfy life needs, access to services necessary according to individual needs as well as a relevant network of social contracts.²

¹ The author understands the concept of social security as freedom from any social and livelihood threats.

² The European Social Charter stipulates the right of the elderly to institutional care as well as the obligations of the institutions providing such care. The above refers to, inter alia, the best guarantee of support for the elderly, with full respect for their privacy and allowing them to make decisions on their living conditions in such institutions. Furthermore, the right of each person to social security was stipulated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of the United Nations, and subsequently confirmed in 1966 in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) includes the right of each person to social security in their old age (i.a. Convention no. 102 on minimal norms of social security). The recommendations of the EU Council of 27 July 1992 on the scope of social protection, including, inter alia, the prevention of social isolation of the elderly and activities aimed at satisfying specific needs thereof, are a step towards standardisation of policy objectives. 6.12.1993 representatives of the EU member states adopted a resolution on the occasion of the European Year of the Elderly. Article 2 sec. 3 of the Treaty on the European Union stipulates that the role of the European Union is, among other things, to combat social exclusion and discrimination as well as to support social justice, protect social equality between men and women and solidarity between generations. In compliance with Article 25 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, the EU recognises and respects the right of the elderly to a decent and independent life as well as to participation in social and cultural life. The Polish Constitution of 1997 includes a provision on the right of each citizen to social security once the retirement age has been attained. The European Social Charter was adopted by the Council of Europe on 8 October 1961 in Turin.

Already in the mid-1970s, H.L. Wilensky pointed to the existence of a relationship between the average age of the population and the scope of state social expenses (Golinowska 2000: 4). It is related to the fact that with the progressive demographic ageing of the population, the number of incapacitated persons in society is increasing. As a consequence, the demand for long-term care is rising.

WHO defined long-term care as an integral part of health care related to the activities for the benefit of persons in need, offered by informal caregivers (family, friends, and neighbours), formal caregivers (including medical professionals and social workers) as well as traditional caregivers and volunteers (Ministry of Health 2012: 4). On the other hand, according to the OECD, long-term care includes the entire scope of services for incapacitated persons, persons needing long-term support in basic, daily activities. The above may include rehabilitation, basic medical help, home nursing care, provision of housing conditions and services, such as transport, preparation of meals, professional support and help with daily activities. The care is usually provided to mentally or physically disabled, weak, elderly persons and those who need special assistance with daily activities (OECD 2005). According to the OECD, the need for long-term health care is most pronounced among the persons from the oldest age group, who are most exposed to persistent illnesses causing physical or mental disability (European Commission 2008: 3). Approximately 80% of the community care beneficiary and 90% of the residents of long-term care facilities are persons over 65, thus, long-term care is usually considered senior care (OECD 2005).

In Poland, long-term care is governed by different sectors of institutional organisations, coordination, control and financing: health care and social assistance. The competency in long-term care was divided between two departments: the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy. As a result, two separate pillars of long-term care - medical and social - were established, often inadequate to needs. Different organisational and financial methods (centralised health service and strongly centralised social assistance) are implemented therein. The health services are paid from the National Health Fund, whereas other care services are financed by the subgovernment.

The issue of long-term care in Poland is regulated by Article 15 sec. 2 point 6 of the Act of 27 August 2004 on health care benefits financed from public funds (Journal of Laws of 2008, No. 164, item 1027, as amended), which stipulates that the beneficiary must be provided with and have financed, inter alia, nursing and care services within the framework of long-term care. This issue is specifically regulated in the Ordinance of the Ministry of Health of 22 November 2013 on guaranteed nursing and care services within the framework of long-term care (Journal of Laws of 140, item 1480, as amended). The details concerning the contracting and implementation of benefits in 2014 are outlined in the Resolution of the President of the National Health Fund No. 87/2013/DSOZ of 18 December 2013 on defining the terms and

conditions of concluding and performing the agreements for: nursing and care services within the framework of the long-term care.

As for the end of 2012, in Poland 23,818 places in long-term facilities were available, out of which 1389 in hospices, 16069 in care and curative³, and 6360 in treatment and care facilities (Centre of Health Information Systems 2013: 98). At the end of 2012, 34 geriatric departments were available, with 728 beds—which gave 1.8 beds for 100 thousand inhabitants. In Belgium 75 beds fall to 100 thousand inhabitants, in Austria—25, in Sweden—24.4, in Slovakia—14, and in Czech Republic—6.15. Currently, there are 318 geriatricians, out of whom 307 practice their profession (*List of doctors and dentists according to their field and degree of specialization, including division into doctors who practice and do not practice their profession—status as of 31.01.2014*). This state of affairs is unsatisfactory, i.e. it does not meet the needs of the sick and elderly. The long queues at such facilities are proof thereof.

Fig. 1: Number of beds as well as care and curative facilities and treatment and care facilities

Year	Type of facilities			
	Care and curative facilities		Treatment and care facilities	
	Number of beds	Number of facilities	Number of beds	Number of facilities
1999	8,521	95	861	20
2000	9,633	126	1,800	49
2001	10,195	149	3,146	85
2002	11,623	174	3,642	100
2003	13,387	190	3,863	104
2004	13,439	227	4,595	119
2005	14,726	251	5,165	128
2006	16,099	300	4,847	119
2007	16,625	285	4,918	122
2008	13,271	268	4,463	121
2009	14,122	284	4,656	121
2010	14,707	286	5,368	132
2011	16,436	320	5,368	132
2012	16,069	310	6360	151

Source: data on the basis of GUS statistical yearbooks (<http://stat.gov.pl/obszary-tematyczne/roczniki-statystyczne/>, date access: 4.04.2014).

In 2012, in long-term care facilities (including hospices), the majority of patients were persons aged above 65 (over 60%), i.e. 12% less than the previous year, where half of them were persons aged 80 and over. The treated persons aged 41–64 constituted nearly one quarter of all patients, whereas those up to 40 years of age—less than 7% of patients. More women (63%) than men stayed at the long-term care facilities. The

³ The care and curative institution is an inpatient facility providing full-time health services, including treatment, care and rehabilitation of persons not requiring hospitalisation, and providing rooms and food according to health condition. The entities running the medical business operate pursuant to the Act of 15 April 2011 on health care activity (Journal of Laws of 2013, item 217).

female age structure shows that the percentage of women aged 65 and more was around 71% and was higher by nearly 29% than the percentage of men in the same age group. The men constituted 37% of all patients in such facilities; more in younger age groups 19–64 (by 1.2 thousand more) (Central Statistical Office 2013: 11).

Long-term care in welfare institutions is provided pursuant to the provisions of the Act of 12 March 2004 on social assistance (Journal of Laws of 2013, item 182, as amended) and some secondary legislation thereto, including: care services and specialist care services at the home location, full-time services provided in statutory hostels for families, daily services rendered in support centres, full-time services rendered in nursing homes, full-time services rendered in facilities providing 24h care for the disabled, chronically ill or elderly within the framework of business or statutory activities.

In accordance with Article 54 of the Act on Social Assistance: *a person requiring full-time care due to age, illness or disability, who is unable to function independently in daily life and with respect to whom it is impossible to provide essential support in the form of care services, shall be entitled to a nursing home bed. The nursing homes provide the following services: livelihood, care and support.*

In 2004, the principles of payment for institutional care services rendered within the social assistance framework. Members of the family and local government finance the stay of an incapacitated person at a relevant facility⁴. The stay at a nursing home is payable up to the amount of the average life cost, established by a borough leader or a mayor, in case of a municipal home, and by a staroste, in case of a county home. The average monthly life cost at a nursing home means, above all, the amount of annual operating expenses thereof as resulting from the life costs of patients (food, services, personnel, building maintenance, etc.) divided by the number of beds established as the sum of the actual number of patients in particular months of the last year. The cost is from 3000 PLN to 3500 PLN (The Polish Sejm). The reduction of public expenses on institutional social assistance and the fact of requiring the family to provide maintenance for their oldest members changed the demand for services in all long-term care facilities (social welfare institutions and health care institutions). Since 2004, a surplus of places at nursing homes has been observed. As for 31 December 2011, 78,275 beds were available at nursing homes, whereas the number of patients was 77,081, which means that there were 1194 free places. In 2012, a surplus of places was also observed: according to preliminary, unverified data, as of 31 December 2012, 77,534 beds were available at nursing homes, whereas the number of patients was 76,256 (The Polish Sejm). Along with a decrease in demand for the nursing homes, the demand for services provided by care and curative facilities increases. On the basis of an inspection carried out by the Supreme Audit Office, it is evident that changing the principle of financing institutional social care resulted in the activation of a search for: *cheaper forms of exercising care for the elderly. It was determined that the family or legal guardians should exercise care for the elderly or that additional care services should be provided at the home location. On the other hand, the persons requiring complete care should be referred to care and curative facilities*

⁴ If an incapacitated person and his/her family are unable to incur all the costs related to their stay at the facility, then the deficit is paid by the municipality, from which the person was referred to the facility.

(...). *Due to financial reasons, in the current legal environment, it is more beneficial for the municipalities to refer such persons to the above-mentioned facilities than to nursing homes (Supreme Audit Office 2006: 8).*

Therefore, it is evident that there is a higher share of public funds in the financing of the institutional care and a higher demand for such services, and hence, higher overall expenses. On the other hand, if the financing is dominated by private expenses, the demand for the services provided by long-term care facilities is relatively low, hence, the overall expenses incurred with respect thereto are also low.

Therefore, two main issues related to the care for the elderly emerge: care financing costs and types, forms and entities exercising the care. In the debate currently taking place in Poland, two proposals of systemic solution of the care financial problem have been advanced: the first one postulates the introduction of social nursing insurance policies (insurance model), whereas the second one aims at separating funds for the financing of care and nursing services from general taxes (provision model).

It must also be, or above all, noted that in the Polish reality the main "care institution" offering help to the elderly is the family. On the basis of Polsenior research as well as other research, it is evident that in Poland the main burden of care lies on the family. 95.8% of the respondents stated that the need for permanent or repeated daily care is exercised by the family (Błędowski 2012: 459). Nonetheless, the family does not always find sufficient institutional support in providing care and nursing services for the elderly or disabled. Specifically, it depends on the family's care efficiency and workflow of the guardian whether an elderly person, despite his/her disability, remains in the environment. The European Commission pays attention to one more aspect of the above-mentioned issue, namely that the families would not be able to solve the problem of care for the elderly themselves, regardless of whether the elderly are dependants or not (Communication from the Commission of the European Communities 2005: 10). The ratio between the number of youngest and the oldest persons has deteriorated and the size of households has been reduced. Changes in the family structure, for example, the increasing number of divorces and a decreasing fertility rate causes an increase in individual elderly persons. The professional activity of women causes a further limitation of the care services rendered for the benefit of the elderly by the family. Therefore, it must be assumed that the family will be more and more often unable to fulfil the expectations placed upon them. Furthermore, two demographic processes will be observed in Poland, i.e. with an expected increase in the number of the elderly, a general decrease of the population will occur. It is assumed that in the years 2007–2035 the decrease will be 2.123 million persons (Central Statistical Office 2008). While in the age group 0–17, the population will decrease by 1.856 million and in the age group 18–44 – by as much as 4.433 million; in the age groups 45–59, this number will increase by 237,000; by 703,000 among persons aged 60–64, and by as much as 3.227 million among persons aged 65 and over. The percentage of persons aged 65 and over in Poland, which was 13.46% in 2007, will have increased to 23.22% by 2035. The number of persons aged 65 and over will have increased by

2035 by 62.9% (men – 76.6% and women 54.6%) in comparison with 2007, and the number of persons aged 80 and over will have increased by 125.8% (Central Statistical Office 2009).

To sum up, it must be stated that the ageing of the population as well as health and nursing challenges related therein require systemic and consistent activities, which allow care and support for the elderly. However, it requires a holistic approach to establishing cooperation between many specialists and institutions – doctors, nurses, physiotherapists, social workers, psychologists or assistants for the elderly. Currently, there are no systemic solutions in Poland with respect to care, nursing, and assistance services for the elderly. As far as institutional care for the elderly is concerned, two systems have merged: social assistance and health care. With the above in mind, the existing solutions are dispersed, inconsistent and do not meet the criteria of availability and the full satisfaction of seniors' needs. The tasks between particular systems are not defined clearly enough. Therefore, no plain criteria stipulating when each sector should intervene are provided. Furthermore, the applicable solutions are not adapted to the changing needs of the ageing society. The challenges as a result of the lack of consistent institutional care system addressed to the elderly make it impossible to provide an optimum form of support. It seems that it is essential to create a comprehensive social policy programme with respect to old age and the elderly, which would focus on institutional care.

Bibliography

Act of 15 April 2011 on health care activity, Journal of Laws of 2013.

Central Statistical Office (2008), *Demographic Yearbook 2008*, Warsaw, stat.gov.pl/cps/rde/xbr/gus/oz_rocznik_statystyczny_rp_2008.pdf, date access: 4.04.2014.

Facts and prospects of development of long-term care in Poland (2012), Ministry of Health Warsaw, www.oipip-poznan.pl/strategia.doc, date access: 4.04.2014.

Central Statistical Office (2009), *The forecast of the population 2008–2035*, Warsaw, stat.gov.pl/cps/rde/xbr/.../L_progniza_ludnosci_na_lata2008_2035.pdf, date access: 4.04.2014.

Central Statistical Office (2013), *Health and health care in 2012*, Warsaw, stat.gov.pl/download/.../zo_zdrowie_i_ochrona_zdrowia_w_20121.pdf, date access: 4.04.2014.

Central Statistical Office, *GUS statistical yearbooks*, <http://stat.gov.pl/obszary-tematyczne/roczniki-statystyczne/>, date access: 4.04.2014.

Golinowska S. (2000), *Inna rola państwa także w sferze socjalnej*, „Polityka Społeczna” 9, ISSN 01374729.

Information on the results of the inspection of services provided by a nursing home (2006), Supreme Audit Office, Warsaw, <https://www.nik.gov.pl/kontrola/wyniki-kontroli-nik/kontrola,250.html>, date access: 4.04.2014.

List of doctors and dentists according to their field and degree of specialization, including division into doctors who practice and do not practice their profession - status as of 31.01.2014; http://www.nil.org.pl/__data/assets/pdf_file/0020/95150/Zestawienie-nr-04.pdf, access date: 29.04.2014.

Long-term care for older people. The OECD Health Project (2005), OECD Publishing, Paris, ISBN 9264008489.

- Long-term health care*, The European Commission (2008), Brochure_LTCBis_PL_0810 13[1], <http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=2781&langId=pl>, access date: 29.04.2014.
- Mossakowska M., Więcek A., Błędowski P. (eds.) (2012), *Aspekty medyczne, psychologiczne, socjologiczne i ekonomiczne starzenia się ludzi w Polsce*, TERMEDIA, Poznań, ISBN 9788362138814.
- Rembowski J. (1984), *Psychologiczne aspekty starzenia się człowieka*, Warsaw-Poznań, ISBN 8301049014.
- Rosset E. (1959), *Proces starzenia się ludności. Studium demograficzne*, Warsaw.
- Rosset E. (1967), *Ludzie starzy, Studium demograficzne*, Warsaw.
- Statistical Bulletin of the Ministry of Health* (2013), Centre of Health Information Systems, Warsaw, <http://www.csioz.gov.pl/publikacja.php?id=6>, date access: 4.04.2014 .
- Susłowska M. (1998), *Psychologia starzenia się i starości*, Warsaw, ISBN 8301090111.
- Synak B. (1992), *Zależność ludzi starych. Analiza socjologiczna*, „Research Bulletin of The University of Gdańsk” 16, ISSN 02084694.
- The Communication from the Commission of the European Communities, *The Green Paper: Confronting demographic change: a new solidarity between the generations* (2005), Brussels, http://www.ab.gov.tr/files/ardb/evt/1_avrupa_birligi/1_6_raporlar/1_2_green_papers/com2005_green_paper_confronting_demographic_change.pdf, date access: 4.04.2014 .
- The Polish Sejm, *Odpowiedź podsekretarza stanu w Ministerstwie Pracy i Polityki Społecznej - z upoważnienia ministra - na interpelację nr 17083 w sprawie sytuacji osób starszych wymagających pobytu w domach pomocy społecznej*, <http://www.sejm.gov.pl/Sejm7.nsf/InterpelacjaTresc.xsp?key=5C752F63>, date access: 30.04.2014.

Creating an Environment of Family Support in the Area of Cooperation of the Church, Aid Institutions and Schools

Krystian Wojaczek

Abstract

In this paper, in terms of collaboration of three institutions: the church, schools and social assistance institutions as an inspiration for the creation and development of environments which support marriage and the family as a factor of preventive measures against threats to the fulfilment of their basic functions. The structure of the study includes the presentation of the concept and functions of the environment which supports marriage and the family. Therefore, the concept of environmental support and its basic functions will be presented first, followed by the possibility of cooperation in building the three essential institutions, from the point of view of a functioning family.

Key words: marriage, family, society, welfare institutions

The family as a basic cell of society always operates in a certain social environment, starting with the community and ending with the international structures. This arrangement has consequences for the family. This means that society does not always promote completion of the basic functions of the family, both of personality and institutional (Adamski 1984: 51–52). Intensification of this negative effect can be particularly noted from the appearance of the so-called nuclear family, that is, emancipation of the two-generation family with a large family environment – multigenerational. Therefore, all the therapeutic measures, if there is such a need, and also preventive measures should include the creation of an environment of family support as an essential effective factor on its effects.

In this paper, in terms of collaboration of three institutions: the church, schools and social assistance institutions as an inspiration for the creation and development of environments which support marriage and the family as a factor of preventive measures against threats to the fulfilment of their basic functions. The structure of the study includes the presentation of the concept and functions of the environment which supports marriage and the family. Therefore, the concept of environmental support and its basic functions will be presented first, followed by the possibility of cooperation in building the three essential institutions, from the point of view of a functioning family.

The Concept and Features of a Supportive Environment for Marriage and Family

The term “supportive environment” may at first glance, seem like tautology. Polish language dictionaries define the very concept of “environment” as a “group of people, connected together through living conditions, type of work (1979: 456). In biological terms, this concept is defined as “the totality of all factors of the environment (animate and inanimate), more or less uniform in the area, affecting living organisms and undergoing changes under the influence of these organisms”

(1979: 456). The support is thus indirectly included in the very definition of the environment, as it is defined in relation to particular communities such as creative, scientific and others. The biological definition of the environment, however, leaves no doubt as to the nature of the relationship between it and the organism in the framework of functioning. It is not only the support but also the action that causes changes in the opposite direction i.e. in this case negative for marriage and family (Wojaczek 2007: 196). Thus, the phrase “environmental support” is not only justified, but necessary. We are dealing with an environment that facilitates marriage and a family fulfilment of the appropriate functions.

The concept of “environmental support” is a concept that has gained the right to citizenship in therapeutic treatment or during the lives of the people after therapy, for example in the process of sobering up alcoholics. Yet it still has not gained “citizenship” as a necessary factor in modern conditions, an element in the functioning of marriage and family. Moreover, determined socio-historical conditions create certain resistance for those interested before, “interference in the internal life of their marriage and family”. It is sometimes perceived in this way. It is all about the perception of family heritage as an asylum against the oppression of a totalitarian system, which Poland was subjected to for many years (Wojaczek 2001: 65). These experiences and some resistance from some families could suggest a misguided effort to spread the idea of building environmental support for marriage and families in its preventive version, if not years of experience working with families. They show that environmental support for marriage and the family is already well established in Poland and produces good results in their functioning. The supportive environments are created by families affiliated with religious movements. Over 20 years of practical experience in working with these families clearly demonstrates that the impact of external factors tearing apart these families is much less than for families that do not remain in similar supportive environment (Wojaczek 2013: 144–146).

The understood concept of environmental support for marriage and the family is a number of marriages, families or single people staying together in a direct relationship in order to pursue a similar model of marriage and family life (Wojaczek 2011: 217). In this study, interchangeable synonymous concepts such as “supportive society,” “environmental support” and “supportive environment” will be used. As defined, a support environment can and should be created by the participants themselves, who are aware of its importance in their lives and are able to take the trouble of building them. Important from the point of view of its shape and its functions seem to be the rules for its construction. These include participation (Želežnik 1993: 183–184), solidarity (Želežnik 1993: 157–158) and subsidiarity (Piwowski 1993: 197–198). The importance and role of environmental support for marriage and family becomes fully visible only from the perspective of functions that are fully environmental. As the main features, noted should be psychological function, social and economic function, and recreational function. A key function is psychological. First, it involves providing spouses, as well as parents, with the belief that in adopting and implementing a particular model of marriage and family they are not alone. This matter is why it is so important, because in terms of adopting and implementing this model of marriage and family

as a consequence arising from personally being of man and woman. Moving away from this model threatens not only the success and sustainability of the marriage, family soundness, and the functioning and bringing up of children, but the very existence of man as an individual. Dissemination of models of human life contrary to their personal being often inspires spouses to ask the question on whether their behaviour is appropriate since so many people around act differently? Environmental support, as evidenced by the experience of families affiliated with religious movements, significantly weakens external pressure and allows them to operate freely without the symptoms of a besieged fortress. In addition, meeting with spouses and parents who are like-minded and pursuing the model of marriage and family allows the opportunity to open discussion on the disputed value of married life. It allows the recognition of their rationale and strengths, to defend their choices not only in discussions with like-minded people, but mainly in the daily toil of their implementation. Support environment as a structure bringing together a number of marriages and families having the possibility to organise activities for deepening the knowledge and skills of the spouses and parents in their concerns with these issues. It's about conferences, workshops, and retreats, which an individual family is not able to organise. Lectures on philosophical and theological anthropology, psychology, interpersonal communication, family functioning in wider social structures, the possibility of opposing the manipulation of the media, etc., are all examples (Wojaczek 2001: 70). Thanks to psychological support environment, spouses and parents reinforce self-esteem, which is crucial in the process of being for one another a personal gift. After all, it bestows what is valuable and not a lack of values. They make far fewer mistakes in building a marriage and family which translates into their functioning. They conscientiously raise their children in anticipation of external threats; as they are the first and principal educators of their children.

Economic and social function should be indicated as a second, important function of the supportive society for marriage and family. It involves self-help marriages and families affiliated with their environment in difficult situations. It's about self-help with emergency childcare, assistance in situations of the illness of spouse, loss of a job, assisting the elderly, who often remain alone after the death of their spouse etc. (Wojaczek 2001: 70). Economic and Social functions significantly improves the sense of security of individual families who are aware they do not remain alone in a difficult situation. It allows one to more fully engage in activities not only for their family, but also others, and above all in building a supportive society. Families belonging to the supportive environment know best what activities in the community are needed. It is worth noting that at this point economic and social function almost meets the psychological function, which creates a sense of confidence in spouses and parents that the chosen way of conduct in their family life is appropriate.

An important function of support society is recreational function. It involves the creation of leisure activities and relaxation in a manner conducive to the development of marriage and family, and above all strengthening the ties between spouses. The importance of this function of supportive environment is seen when we realise the significance of fun and relaxation in the development of emotional

bonds between people, in this case between spouses. There are no rare situations of a significant weakening of the emotional bond between spouses, particularly young people under the influence of an excessive workload and responsibilities. A relatively simple way to prevent this type of risk is systematically economising oneself through the spouse's leisure, relaxation and rest in order to be with each other and reconstruction of the impaired emotional bond. This is possible thanks to the supportive society when one of the friendly couples take into its custody the children of a couple which wants to relax. It creates for them in this way the ability to focus exclusively on repairing their marital bond. The donors then benefit from such marriage support when it is reciprocated the next time. At this point recreational function of the supportive society meets its social function. Moreover, within a supportive society, you can organise various forms of leisure and holidays, which are available to poorer families. This is especially important for large families, who often belong to poor families. Questions regarding the substantive issues of leisure and recreation are also important (Daszykowska 2011: 12-18). In terms of the content of the fun, which not only lead away from demoralisation, but promote values, particularly related to the functioning of marriage and family.

Cooperation of the Church and School in the building supportive Society for Marriage and Family

A look at the supportive environment for marriage and family from the perspective of prevention reveals new horizons of Church and school cooperation. This view clearly exposes education as a factor in anticipation of many types of pathology, and consequently avoids expensive and often ineffective therapy. Education, not therapy, is also the main vocation of Church and the school institutions. It can therefore be concluded that in creating a supportive society for marriage and family, these two institutions are themselves almost doomed. This submission refers to Polish conditions, and therefore primarily, the Catholic Church without excluding other Christian communities.

The primary determinant of the co-operation of these two institutions is the embracing fact of their business has the same subject: families who declare their allegiance to the Catholic Church and whose children frequently attend public school. It is at this point that it must be realised that the parents of these children pay taxes which, among other things, go to the school attended by their children. The fact that the impact on the same subject of the Church and the school requires factual and substantive cooperation mainly on issues that are important for creating a supportive environment for marriage and family. Taking into account the basic features of a supportive society, it seems that this cooperation should primarily focus on psychological function and recreation.

An important element of the psychological function of supportive society is organising various lectures and workshops to improve the knowledge of spouses and parents. Classes should take on the subject of mechanisms for the proper functioning of marriage and the family, raising children etc. Both the Church and school have predispositions and values, which can significantly facilitate the individual circles of supportive society to carry out this type of activity. It is also

important that these institutions have complementary values. Complementarities will facilitate their cooperation. The Church has a well-planned model of marriage and family, which is based on a clear conception of anthropology. The school, in its staff of teachers has professionals in the field of educating children as well as in marital relationships such as conflict resolution, mediation in difficult family issues, etc. (Walc 2011: 195). It is important to be attuned to the detailed solutions adopted by spouses in the anthropological model of marriage and family. Church and school cooperation should contribute to the integration of marriage and family. Only then can one discuss the synergistic action of the Church and school in creating a supportive society. Only then can cooperation between the two institutions contribute to building their authorities, which is a weak point in the Polish educational process, and elsewhere. An important means for both institutions for the building of a supportive environment is the sharing of their premises for meetings and conducting classes for couples and families. There is no doubt that cooperation between the Church and school in creating a supportive society for families will bring tangible benefits to the institutions which cooperate. The Church will establish closer contact with the families, and the school will enable closer cooperation between the teachers and the parents of children who are entrusted to their care.

It seems that the Church and school can successfully cooperate in the development of the recreational function of supportive society for marriage and family. Each of them has values that respectively, when used in this cooperation, will prove to be factors which reinforce the family, the Church, and the school in their mission as well. Today, the real challenge is the appropriate management of leisure time by spouses, the family as a whole, as well as children when they are outside of the care of parents, and not only due to range of offers on the matter directly threatening marriage and family. It is primarily a challenge because many spouses and parents do not realise the importance of the proper use of leisure time for the development of marriage and family. It is therefore the planning and the use of recreation and leisure time that have encouraged the development of community life which is marriage and the family. This awareness is becoming more and more present in those sectors of the Church, which are concerned with pastoral family care. It is inspired by the centuries of existence of the third commandment of the Decalogue and the commandments of the Church. It is this which creates a fertile ground for understanding the importance of the issue today, when family members meet at a common table as well as when spending leisure time together, then it becomes a serious wake-up call for its members. It is these movements that for many years positively verify the thesis regarding the necessity to create an environment which supports marriage and the family and its recreational functions. They, among others, show that the order itself for celebration is important, however not sufficient, if only due to the transformation of civilization impeding the ability of interpersonal communication of many contemporary couples and parents. Dynamically developing electronic communication is not the same as communicating with people face to face. That is why the growing awareness of the need for spouses and families to spend leisure time together must go hand in hand with the proposals of its management. Here the role of the school appears, which has a professionally trained

staff to conduct such activities and a huge base of proven teaching materials. Many of them can be used for the integration of family, for enhancement of their communication skills, to build mutual trust, etc. It should be noted, that many spouses involved in religious movements are also themselves teachers at various schools. Cooperation of the Church and school in developing recreational function may contribute to the spread of this style of leisure time among married couples and families. However, it is important everyone has the possibility to find themselves in a support environment, if that is what they wish. In addition to manpower and materials, schools often have sports equipment and facilities needed for recreation. The involvement of schools in creating a supportive environment may also include the use of these sources. This applies first to schools found in the towns which are tourist attractions. A significant factor in building a supportive society is different types of workshops or retreats for families during their children's school holidays. It is in these classes that the recreational function plays a significant role, as it is ultimately about rest for the individual members of the family. Very often the places where the individual families are accommodated do not have this kind of facilities that a local school has. For this reason it is worth the organisers from the Church establishing contact and cooperation with local school teachers to expand recreational opportunities and create a supportive environment. The use of these schools is not exclusively meant for tourist purposes. Each school that has such facilities should be invited to cooperate and also express their willingness to cooperate. Often, for economic reasons individual families decide not to spend holidays away from home. They build a supportive environment with its recreational function at their residence, or a not too distant neighbourhood. Church and school cooperation in the development of the recreational function of the supportive society for marriage and family is beneficial to everyone involved. It is beneficial to the family through the deepening of its consistency and good functioning. It benefits the Church and school by displaying their professionalism and building authority.

The cooperation of Church and Social Welfare Institutions in building a Supportive Environment for Marriage and Family

The cooperation of Church and social welfare institutions in the process of assisting families primarily involves the church organisation 'Caritas', whose objectives for action are similar to some of the objectives of social assistance centres. Such cooperation shall therefore focus primarily on the activities of assistance and compensation, and addressed to individual members of the family, or families who are existentially in difficult situations (Szluz 2011: 294; Okrasa 2011: 322-323; Zdebska 2011: 330-333; Szluz, Klonowska 2011: 32-40). This article addresses the issue of cooperation of the Church with social welfare institutions in the creation and development of a supportive society for marriage and families. It is obvious that it will affect the economic and social function of this society. Such a formulation of the problem stems from the belief that man is a social being, which is an attribute to be understood in the first place that he is the essence of a family. This means that regardless of how the roll of his fate, or the fate founded by his family, his focus on family life remains a fact. Environmental support for marriage and the family is

derived from this belief and economic and social function is its substantiation. It includes marriages, families and individuals who engage in providing assistance to other entities and benefiting from this assistance if they are in need. The cooperation of the Church with social assistance institutions can strongly affect the shape of the supportive environment for marriage and family would also include single people, especially those that survive the death of a spouse. An important role is played by the Church through the dissemination of anthropology and the religious dimension of a supportive environment. It provides in this way a strong motivation to engage members in the process of building a supportive society. Social welfare institutions have specific solutions to be used in specific situations to solve the difficult situations of those who need them. Church cooperation with social assistance institutions should also relate to obtaining and exchanging information on the possibility of creating a supportive society in new places. Discernment of each institution is usually a bit different. The exchange of information on new areas for creating a supportive environment can prove to be very fruitful and necessary from the point of view of marriages, families and single people in need of help. A slightly different issue from the exchange of information is the opportunity to reach new areas for the creation of a supportive environment. These tend to be areas where access to any of the institutions can be more difficult, or even impossible. This may also be the case with access to some of the Church's secular environments. For this reason, it is not only advisable but necessary for these collaborative institutions to create communities of support.

Cooperation Church and social welfare institutions is primarily addressed to building a supportive environment for marriage and family, which is based on self-help work within it entities. Changing the mindset of the entities of a supportive society in economic and social issues comes to the forefront. Without it, while keeping the demanding attitudes in relation to the Church and the state, it is difficult to discuss the possibility of a supportive society. The case does not therefore boil down to providing material aid to the needy. There are situations when it is necessary. Here, however, it is also about creating an environment of self-help with regard to economic and social function. While the discussed issue of the contribution of the Church is evident due to the orientation of the entire pastoral ministry for comprehensive human development, many problems can arise for social workers that are often targeted in their active interventions in pathological situations. Paradoxically, however, the experience of social workers can be used to stimulate the activities of self-help in a supportive society. They have large amounts of evidence where it eventually leads to leaving a marriage or the family, and leaving a single man to himself, without any support or social roots. They can therefore provide important motivation supplied by entities creating the newly built supportive environment and the involvement of self-help activities in economic and social issues as well. In this way, the cooperation of the Church with social welfare institutions is an important factor in creating an environment that supports marriage and the family, whose essential function is economic and social. This cooperation should not be limited to only initiate the process of creating a supportive environment, but should accompany it discreetly in the course of its further development.

An important aspect of this cooperation, as is the case with the cooperation of the school, is to provide space for organisational meetings, and is related to the same economic and social function. Important are possibilities for the collection and storage of assistance and their preparation for distribution etc.

Applications

In conclusion, for the correct functioning of a marriage and the family, environments of self-help support need to be created. The essential functions they perform are the psychological function, social and economic function, and recreational function. The formation of environmental support for marriage and family can and should be inspired by such institutions as the Church, school and social welfare institutions. The effectiveness of this inspiration largely depends on the cooperation of these institutions together. The cooperation of the Church and school relates primarily to the psychological and recreational support for marriage and the family. The cooperation of the Church and social welfare institutions are primarily concerned with economic and social functions.

Bibliography

- Adamski F. (1984), *Socjologia małżeństwa i rodziny*, PWN, Warszawa, ISBN 8301031190.
- Daszykowska J. (2011), *Style życia współczesnej rodziny w czasie wolnym*, [in:] B. Szluz, W. Walc (eds.), *Rodzina, szkoła, środowisko lokalne. Współczesne wyzwania*, KORAW, Rzeszów, ISBN 9788392664086.
- Garbarz A., Szluz B., Urbańska M., Walc W. (eds.) (2011), *Rodzina w środowisku lokalnym. Pomoc – wsparcie – opieka*, Wydawnictwo KORAW, ISBN 9788392022141X.
- Okrasa M. (2011), *Wybrane świadectwa niepieniężne wspomagające funkcjonowanie rodzin w mieście Lublin*, [in:] A. Garbarz, B. Szluz, M. Urbańska, W. Walc (eds.), *Rodzina w środowisku lokalnym. Pomoc – wsparcie – opieka*, Wydawnictwo KORAW, ISBN 9788392022141X.
- Piowowski W. (1993), *Zasada pomocniczości*, [in:] W. Piowowski (ed.), *Słownik katolickiej nauki społecznej*, PAX, Warszawa, ISBN 832111542X.
- Szluz B. (2011), *Nowe formy pracy z osobami bezdomnymi*, [in:] A. Garbarz, B. Szluz, M. Urbańska, W. Walc (eds.), *Rodzina w środowisku lokalnym. Pomoc – wsparcie – opieka*, Wydawnictwo KORAW, ISBN 9788392022141X.
- Szluz B., Klonowska H. (2011), *Instytucjonalne wsparcie bezdomnych rodzin samotnych rodziców*, [w:] B. Szluz, W. Walc (eds.) *Rodzina, szkoła, środowisko lokalne. Współczesne wyzwania*, KORAW, Rzeszów, ISBN 9788392664086.
- Szymczak M. (ed.) (1979), *Słownik języka polskiego*, t. 3, PWN, Warsaw, 8301002816 (t. 1–3).
- Walc W. (2011), *Rola pedagoga szkolnego a wspieranie rodziny ucznia*, [in:] A. Garbarz, B. Szluz, M. Urbańska, W. Walc (eds.), *Rodzina w środowisku lokalnym. Pomoc – wsparcie – opieka*, Wydawnictwo KORAW, ISBN 9788392022141X.
- Wojaczek K. (2007), *Więź małżeńska w sytuacji rozłąki z przyczyn ekonomicznych. Studium pastoralne*, UO, Opole, ISBN 9788360244487.
- Wojaczek K. (2001), *Małżeństwo, doświadczenie obdarowania*, Opole-Lublin, ISBN 8372700699.
- Wojaczek K. (2013), *Profilaktyka kryzysu małżeństwa. Podstawy i praktyka*. Lublin, ISBN 9788378471264.

Zdebska E. (2011), *Organizacje pozarządowe w Małopolsce jako element systemu wsparcia rodziny*, [in:] A. Garbarz, B. Szluz, M. Urbańska, W. Walc (eds.), *Rodzina w środowisku lokalnym. Pomoc – wsparcie – opieka*, Wydawnictwo KORAW, ISBN 9788392022141X.

Żeleźnik T. (1993), *Uczestnictwo*, [in:] W. Piwowski (ed.), *Słownik katolickiej nauki społecznej*, PAX, Warszawa, ISBN 832111542X.

Żeleźnik T. (1993), *Solidarność*, [in:] W. Piwowski (ed.), *Słownik katolickiej nauki społecznej*, PAX, Warszawa, ISBN 832111542X.

Family Policy and the New Demography of Europe – Contemporary Challenges and Experience Exchange Platform

Martyna Kawińska

Abstract

The decrease in fertility rate below a simple demographic renewal threshold, putting off the decision to get married and have a first child, an increase in divorce rates, the percentage of single parents and families without a fixed income are all a part of the consolidated trends that significantly affect the size and structure of European families. In the EU member states, significant differences between the demographic situation and family-oriented policy solutions are easily noticeable. The member states implement certain family policy, which is based on different models, categories and objectives. The comparison of family policies creates a possibility of identifying the best practical solutions, corresponding to the needs of specific groups of beneficiaries, which in turn allows for the development an information system as well as a system for the exchange of good practices.

Key words: family policy, demography, European Union

Introduction

The decrease in fertility rate below a simple demographic renewal threshold, putting off the decision to get married and have a first child, an increase in divorce rates, the percentage of single parents and families without a fixed income are all a part of the consolidated trends that significantly affect the size and structure of European families. In the EU member states, significant differences between the demographic situation and family-oriented policy solutions are easily noticeable. The member states implement certain family policy, which is based on different models, categories and objectives. The comparison of family policies creates a possibility of identifying the best practical solutions, corresponding to the needs of specific groups of beneficiaries, which in turn allows for the development an information system as well as a system for the exchange of good practices.

New demography of Europe

For over 40 years, we have been experiencing in Europe significant population trends that contribute to the establishment of a new demographic order on the continent. Using the words of Dirk van de Kaa “the new demography of Europe”¹, it is found that due to the processes related to the demographic ageing of societies, the population of the Old Continent lost its ability to balance births and deaths. Therefore, it becomes necessary to understand the new demographic situation that is to come in the nearest future. It is also of great importance to separate classic

¹ Dirk van de Kaa used this term in his paper entitled *The New Demography of Europe*, delivered on 8 May 2003 while staying in Warsaw due to the awarding of the Honoris Causa Doctorate by the Warsaw School of Economics.

factors determining the ageing process of societies, understood as long-term fertility decline trends, as well as average life expectancy increase due to the reduction in fatality rate, which accompany the society modernisation processes, from the trends being the consequences of such changes (Kotowska, Józwiak 2012: 10–11).

The new demography of Europe refers to the consolidation process of generation reproduction, definitely at the level of the following simple demographic renewal. It is an important consequence of increasing life expectancy with a simultaneous low or even very low fertility rate. A very low fertility rate refers to those countries in which the Total Fertility Rate (TFR) does not exceed 1.35 children per woman of child-bearing age, whereas in countries in which this indicator is 1.35–1.5 child per woman of child-bearing age, we may speak of a low fertility rate. In 2012, as many as 16 EU member states observed fertility rates below 1.6, and in 4 countries the fertility rate was very low, including Poland occupying the third place from the end with its fertility rate of 1.3 in 2012 (Fertility indicators, <http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu>). Additionally, it was noted that the long-term trend towards a decrease in the fatality rate in Europe was significantly inhibited, whereas the division into East and West as regards the average life expectancy is still prominent. Among European countries, male life expectancy is the highest in Iceland (80.7 in 2011), Switzerland (80.5) and Italy (80.1). On the other hand, women live the longest in Spain (85.4), Italy (85.3) and Switzerland (85.0) (Eurostat, European Social Statistics 2012a: 32).

The fact that the fertility rate maintains at a very low level and that life expectancy is improving affects the dynamics of fluctuations in population numbers. The above leads to a decrease in population growth as well as an intensification of the population ageing process, which significantly affects the balance of proportion between the number of the youngest birth cohorts, population of child-bearing age and the oldest birth cohorts. Therefore, the new demography of Europe also means irreversible changes in population age structures. The progressing population ageing process will cause a decrease in the number of the population of child-bearing age as well as the ageing of the labour force, which is an irreversible global process. What is the most typical of the modern European population ageing process is a significant increase in the number of the oldest birth cohorts aged 80 or over (double ageing). Already in the 1990s it was predicted that the population ageing process in Europe would accelerate and hence contribute to a considerable increase in interest in the economic and social effects thereof (Kotowska, Józwiak 2012: 12).

The fertility model has changed in Europe in the last fifty years thanks to the transformation of the perception of factors influencing it. Until the 1980s, the developed countries observed a negative correlation between the general fertility rate and female professional activity, their education, percentage of divorces and number of out-of-wedlock births. The analyses from the second half of the 1990s prove the emergence of entirely different trends and correlations. The development of the professional activity of young people in connection with a possibility of their independent accommodation positively affects their reproductive decisions (Tymicki 2013: 6–8). It is thus expected that the aim of family policy in a

broad context should be to create appropriate conditions for making the perspective of parenthood more attractive from the family point of view (Bukowski 2010: 51–52).

When analysing the determinants of the new demography of Europe, it is crucial to consider retirement solutions. Concerns about the financial viability of pension schemes and a decrease in the economic activity of persons aged 55–64 affected the reform of pension schemes, including increasing the statutory retirement age and the reduction of the possibility of earlier retirement, together with a necessity to lengthen the duration of professional activity of persons in retirement age. In 2012, the professional activity rate of persons aged 15–64 was 72% in the EU (27), whereas of persons aged 50–64 – 63.8%. To compare – in Poland, these rates were 66.8% and 54%, respectively. In countries with the highest economic activity of the elderly, the rate value exceeds 70% (Sweden, Finland, Denmark, the Netherlands, Great Britain, and Germany) (Eurostat, European Social Statistics 2012a).

Furthermore, in the second half of the twentieth century in Europe, the migration processes intensified, whereas the structural features, directions and types of migration changed, and the percentage of women, especially in labour-related migration, increased (Sobotka 2009: 217–33). The dominant forms of migration to Europe are labour-related visits, then family reunions and the search for asylum by political refugees. In 2011, over 1.7 million persons in total arrived to the EU from EU non-member states. The country with the highest number of immigrants was Great Britain, then Germany, Spain and Italy. These countries accepted in total 60.7% of all immigrants. In the same year, return migrations within the European countries were also observed, where the highest percentage was noted in Lithuania (89.3% of all immigrants), Portugal (63.6%), Croatia (55.3%), Estonia (54.8%) and Greece (54.5%). These were the only member states, in which the percentage value exceeded 50% (European Social Statistics 2012b: 36).

Therefore, it might be stated that the new demography of Europe is the lowest (in history and in comparison with other world regions) fertility rate, the highest life expectancy (the largest number of persons aged 80 or over) and the most intense immigration. These factors have shaped permanent and irreversible changes in the age structures, population reproduction process, and in particular fertility changes related to family transformations, which translate into the relationships between children, parents and grandparents (Kotowska, Józwiak 2012).

Family policy in the process of demographic transitions

Family policy implemented in EU member states contains different assumptions and contents; however, what particular countries have in common is indirect or direct support of families with children. The specific solutions of the national and regional policies are supported with relevant investment, housing, education and employment policy tools. The type, scope and social acceptance of the family-oriented solutions determine whether the member states are more or less attractive for family growth and functioning. It is directly reflected in the procreative attitude. It also sets specific directions of migration for child-bearing aged persons. A comparison of the introduced systems allows identification of the best practical solutions. It is important to be aware of the fact that the efficiency of the proposed

solutions would require the adaptation of the service offer or forms of support to particular needs and expectations of families, parents or future parents (Journal of Laws 2012: 66).

The aforesaid expectations may differ between individual member states due to their national culture, social customs and traditions. While family policy does not belong to the competence of the European Union, it may constitute law in the fields that are related to the combination of a career with the caring for children, professional equality between men and women as well as the protection and development of children. The family policy includes tax funds and family benefits, activities for the professional equality of men and women, services for children and dependents, family rights under pension insurance and the possibility of combining a career with the raising of children: including parental or family leave and the choice of a part-time job (Journal of Laws 2012: 66).

In the 1970s, in the Scandinavian countries, special attention was paid to the consolidation of the partnership family model, in which both parents are professionally active and share their family responsibilities. In response to the trends, the social policy was implemented within the scope of professional training, which allows a better balance between a full-time career and the parenting of children, as well as an easier return to the labour market after a parental leave. In Sweden, the reforms of parental leave, public care services for small children, special family tax, and family legislation formed grounds for the above-mentioned policy. The implemented family policy was based on three concepts: support for families, support for working parents in the form of paid parental leave and the division of rights to paid parental leave between both parents. The policy led to a high employment rate among women, increased the involvement of fathers in the care of small children, a fertility rate higher than the average in the European Union as well as a decrease in child poverty. In 1988, Finland introduced an allowance for childcare at home, and in 1998 Norway implemented a similar allowance in order to consider the full-time work of parents raising their children as well as to provide them with appropriate funds (European Economic and Social Committee 2011: 4–5).

In the Netherlands, the main emphasis was put on the increase of part-time employment in order to allow parents to devote more time to their children. Additionally, fathers in the Netherlands work part-time more often than anywhere else. It is possible to work part-time until the child turns 18 years old, which means that the monthly tax burden of parents is reduced. In France, family policy is based on a combination of financial benefits, the tax system, introduction of provisions on special paid leave into the retirement systems and labour law, system of care of children under the age of 3, and free kindergartens for children up to the age of 3. The French departments and cities supplement the national policy by implementing various family-oriented policies at a local level with respect to the childcare system or family support. Family benefits are designated for paying the costs of raising a child and are advantageous for large families. In compliance with the principle of universality, such benefits do not depend on the amount of income (European Economic and Social Committee 2011: 5).

In Great Britain, the family policy is directed at preventing poverty in families with children. Family policy is realised in the context of a flexible labour market allowing mothers to relatively easily return to work. The fertility rate in the case of women more concentrated on family life is approximately twice as high as in case of women more involved in professional duties. In Germany, where the demographic situation is the poorest when compared to the presented countries, the implemented family policy allows one to combine a career with raising children. The solution constitutes the advanced childcare systems and a 14-month paid parental leave, during which two thirds of the remuneration is paid. These activities are accompanied and targeted by complementary funds making up an addition to income in order to prevent poverty among children (European Economic and Social Committee 2007: 66).

A comparison of the family policies allows identification of the best practical solutions. In order to make these solutions effective, the service offer and support mechanism, especially with respect to financial or tax support, must correspond to the expectations of the stakeholders. Public authorities should propose solutions allowing certain entities to make a decision to start a family as well as on the number of children that a given family would like to have. Therefore, it seems reasonable to develop a system of information and exchange of the best practical solutions (European Economic and Social Committee 2008: 66).

Family in the era of transformation

The observed transformations with regard to children leaving their family homes, postponing their decision on getting married and having their first child affect the family creation process. It is another reason which proves that the defined demographic processes are already irreversible and that contemporary research is aimed at finding the answer to the question on how such transformations will affect the development of particular societies (Saraceno 2008: 17–20).

Detailed analyses confirm the existence of a correlation between social and cultural factors and the time of leaving the family home, which will in turn affect procreative attitudes. A relatively early transition out of the family home is more typical in the Northern European countries than in the Southern European countries. The creation of one's own family before leaving the parents' household is typical for Central and Eastern Europe, where a relatively late transition out of the family home is correlated with the relatively young age of the individual upon their first marriage (Kotowska 2010: 298–301). The postponement of the decision to get married definitely became more common much earlier in Western, Southern and Northern Europe than in the Central and Eastern European countries. It may be assumed that the women from Central and Eastern Europe, who are getting married for the first time, will be younger than those from other parts of Europe (Kotowska, Chłoń-Domińczyk 2012: 9).

The postponement of the decision to get married causes the postponement of the decision to have the first child, the consequence of which is the analysed fertility rates. Such grounds cause deinstitutionalisation of the family, which is reflected in a decrease of the significance of the institution of marriage replaced by partnerships and a higher percentage of divorces. These changes are typical for families in the

Northern European countries. On the other hand, in Southern Europe, the decisions to enter into marriage and have children are made at an older age, whereas marriage is still the dominant and permanent form of a family. The scope of family deinstitutionalisation and destabilisation in other European countries is narrower than in Scandinavian countries, whereas the creation and development of families is similar. On the other hand, the Central and Eastern European countries, in which Poland is included, constitute a group in which the postponement of marriage is still not so prominent, whereas the difference lies in the level of family stability as well as the value and significance of marriage (Kotowska, Chłoń-Domińczyk 2012: 10).

While analysing the fertility rate in European countries, it must be noted that the Western and Northern European countries have been experiencing a constant improvement of the fertility rate since the second half of the 1990s. A sign of slight improvement may also be observed as of the beginning of this decade in countries with lower fertility rates, whereas unfortunately in Central and Eastern European countries the improvement ceased. The proof thereof is still the low fertility rate in Poland - at the level of 1.3 in 2012 (Eurostat, European Social Statistics 2012b).

Apart from the previously mentioned families consisting of a married couple with or without children, and incomplete families, new forms of families have emerged, created by the cohabitation of couples with or without children, reconstituted families or LAT (Living – Apart – Together) couples emerged. The changes to the family and household structures in European countries have common features, whereas their dynamics depend on social, economic and cultural determinants in particular countries. The common features, with respect to family and household structures, are most often analysed on the basis of data derived from the census. The data include, inter alia:

- an increase in the number of incomplete families created by single mothers;
- an increase in reconstituted families, in which at least one partner has a child/children from previous marriages;
- an increase in families created by childless couples;
- an increase in unmarried couples (cohabitation, LAT).

Such dynamics of transformations are reflected in negative trends that include:

- a decrease in the general number of families with children;
- a decrease in the number of families created on the basis of a marriage;
- a decrease in the number of multi-family households and an increase in single family households with a nuclear family (with one child) (Kotowska, Józwiak 2012: 26).

Changes in the household size structure and family model are also correlated with changes in the labour market. The persisting economic crisis contributed to an increase of labour market flexibility, which in practice translates into career instability with a simultaneous increase in requirements for employee qualifications. The natural consequence of the imbalance in accessing work is the risk of social exclusion, which in the case of families with children is truly dangerous. The above refers not only to persons with low qualifications, but also women raising children, or young people who have just started their families (Balcerzak-Paradowska 2009: 20).

Good practices in family policy of EU member states

The concept of “good practice” is used when defining the activities within different fields of social issues—good practices, e.g. in case of homelessness, family aid, etc. Good practices refer to the applied methods and techniques of social work, new organisational solutions, the creation and application of standards of support services and activities (Trawkowska 2012: 141–145). Thanks to the involvement of researchers and the world of science in social problem solving, the beneficiary activation system was developed as well as attitudes of involvement in the support network of different partners implementing projects based on innovations. The complexity of such relationships is illustrated by a review of the strategies concerning the implemented innovations, also in the field of family policy (Rymsza 2012).

Good practices may co-exist at different levels and, additionally, in order to evaluate their quality, it is essential to compare them to different practices, which are similar thereto. The most important features of good practices include social utility, functionality and practical efficiency as well as the possibility of reproducing and adapting them to current needs (Sadowska-Snarska, Brajczewska-Rębowska, Skibicka-Sokołowska 2007: 16–17). For the purpose of this publication, good practices were used in the context of combining a career with the raising of children, with special emphasis put on institutional care and such instruments of family policy, which are acclaimed in a given country.

Part-time work is considered an important factor in combining a professional career with the raising of children, which was included in EU strategies and programmes such as the *work – life – balance and family friendly employment*, which refer to activities for the benefit of employees with family obligations at different stages of family life. A comparison of European experiences confirms that part-time work should be considered with respect to employers, employees and the economy as a whole. Part-time work positively affects the employment rate, as it is believed to increase the participation of women in the labour force. For employees, it may be a method of attaining a better balance between work and family life (Sandor 2011: 10). The largest number of professionally active women aged 15–39 (so the most fertile child-bearing age range) in 2013 worked part-time in the Netherlands (74.3%), Switzerland (43.6%), Denmark (43.3%), Great Britain (38.8%) and Germany (36.7%). Poland and Latvia, with rates of 10.0%, are ranked next to such countries as Lithuania (10.3%) and Estonia (11.9%). The lowest percentage of women working part-time occurs in Bulgaria (2.6%) (Sandor 2011: 11).

Definitely more women than men work part-time and in the countries, where such a form of employment is prevalent, the percentage of women is also significant. The high degree of part-time employment is correlated with the low unemployment rate, whereas the low unemployment rate is correlated with the high unemployment rate. In most EU member states, the unemployment rate of women is higher than the unemployment rate of men, therefore, women are the majority of the unemployed. The only exceptions are Estonia, Latvia, Ireland and Great Britain, where the unemployment rate of women is lower, and also Germany, where these rates are basically equal or minimally lower in the case of women. Part-time work as one of the work – life – balance strategies positively affects the process of combining

a career with the raising of children. European research on life quality, in which the methods for attaining a better balance between work and family life in all of Europe, proves the importance of the above. More pressure put on greater flexibility of the employment status (fewer full-time jobs and less long-term employment), working hours (non-standard hours, more intense work) and mobility as well as increasing concerns about employment and professional career refer especially to women and cause tension between work and family life (Kotowska 2010: 8).

The second most important factor in combining a professional career with the raising of children is access to various types of institutional care for children of pre-school age and younger. Childcare services are considered an instrument of the family policy, as they support the professional activation of women with family obligations. They provide the necessary support for families that implement the model with both professionally active parents and based on the principle of partnership between the spouses. The conflict between professional and family obligations is one of the most serious obstacles hindering procreative plans, therefore, it is assumed that the development of care services has become one of the methods for changing procreative attitudes, especially of women, and has additionally contributed to the professional activation of mothers (Balcerzak-Paradowska 2007: 16-18).

The availability of institutional care may be measured by the percentage of small children in daycare centres. EU member states significantly differ in this respect, and additionally in the majority thereof, the network of childcare centres is built in relation to parental leave, which are treated as alternatives forms of childcare. Therefore, each EU member state has a different, characteristic model of childcare outside of the family setting, which mainly results from historically formed structure and development dynamics.

The largest percentage of children up to two years of age are in day nurseries, or so-called crèches - in the Scandinavian countries with social democratic governments, such as Denmark (64%) or Sweden and Norway (40%), and in liberal countries such as Great Britain and Ireland. On the other hand, almost all children from 3 years of age to the mandatory school age are taken care of in kindergartens - in France, the Netherlands, Italy and Belgium. The majority of children go to kindergartens - in Denmark (91%), Slovakia (90%), Hungary (87%), Czech Republic (85%), Germany, Spain (84%), Portugal (75%), Sweden and Norway (80%), Austria (68%) and Finland (66%) (Kołaczek 2009: 50).

While searching for good practices promoting access to crèches and kindergartens, it is worthwhile referring to those countries, where the level of participation is relatively high. In Belgium, the emphasis was put on private care institutions, the services of which are used by 70% of children aged 0-3 under non-family care. In Denmark, the authorities are obliged to provide places in a non-family care facility for each child from 19 months to the mandatory school age. In France, due to different forms of childcare, no problems exist with respect to the care of pre-schoolers (children of the age of 3 and older). Younger children not always find places in facilities providing care services, therefore 20% of children aged 0-3 go to crèches, another 20% are under the care of registered babysitters or stay at home or

in an orphanage, where they live. In the Netherlands, the demand for institutional care is high; approximately 22% of children up to the age of 3 use the services of non-family facilities, and nearly half as many use alternative forms of care. Since the Netherlands is the country with the largest percentage of men and women employed part-time in Europe, the majority of public institutions also operate part-time. In Sweden, the non-family childcare system is widely accessible. All children up to 12 years of age have the right to attend crèches, kindergartens and after-school clubs, where they receive sufficient care and participate in various activities in their free time (Kołaczek 2009: 51).

One of the innovative solutions of family policy is the Swedish *speed premium* formula, which includes additional remuneration for parents who decide to have another child within a relatively short period of time (30 months). Such a solution was recognised in social terms, even though it has some weakness resulting from the amount of payment determined by the previous annual income of the parents and hence affected by the economic cycle. The consequence thereof is an unequal distribution of birth rates over time and a burden to the state budget, for example by maintaining fully or partially used schools (Leszczyński 2012: 173).

Conclusions

The family policy implemented in EU member states should be aimed at balancing all areas of citizens' life by using specific aid forms, in particular the development of a social infrastructure for the families, including an increase of care for children and other persons. It is equally important to create favourable conditions for combining a career with the raising of children. The promotion of activities aimed at demographic renewal is indispensable in all European countries. Different models of family policy are implemented in European countries and different instruments of social policy are used, which is directly related to the labour market. Furthermore, the cultural factors that are responsible for shaping gender roles, especially with respect to the division of duties within the family, are also of great importance. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that family policy should always be well adapted to the needs of a given country.

Family-oriented solutions aimed at creating favourable conditions for combining a career with the raising of children should not only result in better reconciliation of work and family duties, but also have a more positive influence on the work/family life balance as well as the life satisfaction level in contemporary society. Therefore, it is recommended using the good practices of the individual European countries and adapting them to domestic needs and transferring them to the local market.

Bibliography

- Balcerzak-Paradowska B. (2007), *Ocena systemu opieki instytucjonalnej nad dzieckiem w Polsce (w aspekcie umożliwienia godzenia obowiązków zawodowych z rodzinnymi)*, [in:] S. Sadowska-Snarska (ed.), *System instytucjonalnej opieki nad dzieckiem*, WSE, Białystok, ISBN 9788387981723.
- Balcerzak-Paradowska B. (2009), *Ogólne kierunki zmian w polityce rodzinnej krajów UE*, [in:] M. Zubik (ed.), *Polityka rodzinna w krajach UE – wnioski dla Polski*, Research Bulletin 67, Warsaw.

- Bukowski M. (ed.) (2010), *Zatrudnienie w Polsce 2008. Praca w cyklu życia*, MPiPS, Warszawa, ISBN 9788361638100.
- European Economic and Social Committee (2007), *The Family and Population Trends*, 13.07.2007, Opinion of the European Economic and Social Committee, Journal of Laws C 161.
- European Economic and Social Committee (2008), *Promoting Solidarity between the Generations*, 16.05.2008, Opinion of the European Economic and Social Committee, Journal of Laws C 120.
- European Economic and Social Committee (2011), *The Role of Family Policy in Relation to Demographic Change with a View to Sharing best Practices among Member States*, 14.05.2011, Exploratory Opinion of the European Economic and Social Committee, SOC/399, Brussels.
- Eurostat, European Social Statistics (2012a), *Life expectancy by sex 2011*, <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/refreshTableAction.do?tab=table&plugin=1&pcode=tps00025&language=en>, date access: 4.04.2014.
- Eurostat, European Social Statistics (2012b), *Migration flows*, http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Migration_and_migrant_population_statistics#Migration_flows, date access: 4.04.2014.
- Fertility indicators*, <http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/submitViewTableAction.do>, date access: 11.03.2014
- Kończak B. (2009), *Uwarunkowania ekonomiczne, społeczno – gospodarcze i kulturowe polityki rodzinnej w krajach UE*, [in:] M. Zubik (ed.), *Polityka rodzinna w krajach UE – wnioski dla Polski*, Research Bulletin 67, Warsaw.
- Kotowska I.E. (2010), *Prognozowanie gospodarstw domowych* [in:] J. Kurkiewicz (ed.), *Procesy demograficzne i metody ich analizy*, UE, Kraków, ISBN 9788372524942.
- Kotowska I.E. (ed.) (2010), *Drugie europejskie badanie jakości życia: Życie rodzinne i praca*, European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, Luxembourg, http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/sites/default/files/ef_files/pubdocs/2010/02/pl/1/EF1002PL.pdf, date access: 4.04.2014.
- Kotowska I.E., Chłoń-Domińczyk A. (2012), *Zarządzanie finansami publicznymi w kontekście zmiany demograficznej*, „Economic Studies” 1, ISSN 02396416.
- Kotowska I.E., Józwiak J. (2012), *Nowa demografia Europy a rodzina*, „Roczniki Kolegium Analiz Demograficznych” 28, ISSN 12324671.
- Leszczyński M. (2012), *Procesy depopulacyjne a przemiany współczesnych rodzin*, „Research Bulletin of the Institute of Economics and Management of the Jagiellonian University”, http://wne.tu.koszalin.pl/images/dokumenty/wydawnictwo/zeszyty/05/dok_12.pdf, date access: 4.04.2014.
- Rymsza M. (2012), *W stronę pracy środowiskowej i nowych ról zawodowych pracowników socjalnych*, [in:] M. Rymsza (ed.), *Pracownicy socjalni i Praca socjalna w Polsce. Między służbą społeczną a urzędem*, Instytut Spraw Publicznych, Warsaw, ISBN 9788376890517.
- Sadowska-Snarska S., Brajczewska-Rębowska E., Skibicka-Sokołowska E. (eds.) (2007), *Reconciling Work and Family. Good Practices from Finland, Poland and Spain*, Publication of the Transnational Project: *Time for Partnership, Partnership for Time*, WSE, Białystok, ISBN 9788387981747.
- Sandor E. (2011), *Part-Time Work in Europe*, European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, Luxembourg, ISBN 9789289708838.
- Saraceno C. (2008), *Patterns of Family Living in the Enlarged EU*, [in:] J. Alber, J.T. Fahey, C. Saraceno (eds.) *Handbook of Quality of Life in the Enlarged Union*, Routledge, New York, <https://getit.library.nyu.edu/go/9381610>, date access: 4.04.2014.

- Sobotka T. (2009), *Migration Continent Europe*, Vienna Yearbook of Population Research. Special issue on „Impact of Migration on Demographic Change and Composition in Europe”, Vienna, http://epub.oeaw.ac.at/0xc1aa500d_0x0022ebe7.pdf, date access: 4.04.2014.
- Trawkowska D. (2012), *Pracownicy socjalni jako środowisko zawodowe. Portret czy portrety pracowników socjalnych?* [in:] M. Rymśza (ed.), *Pracownicy socjalni i Praca socjalna w Polsce. Między służbą społeczną a urzędem*, Instytut Spraw Publicznych, Warsaw, ISBN 9788376890517.
- Tymicki K. (2013), *Zamierzenia prokreacyjne a możliwości ich realizacji w kontekście czynników biologicznych*, „Research Bulletin of the Institute of Statistics and Demography, Warsaw School of Economics” 32/2013, http://kolegia.sgh.waw.pl/pl/KAE/struktura/ISiD/publikacje/Documents/Working_Paper/ISID_WP_32_2013.pdf, date access: 4.04.2014.
- Van de Kaa D. (2003), *The New Demography of Europe*, paper delivered on 8 May 2003 while staying in Warsaw due to the awarding of the Honoris Causa Doctorate by the Warsaw School of Economics.

Inter-Sectoral Dialog for Migrants, Based on the Example of Lubelskie Voivodeship

Marzena Kruk

Abstract

The phenomenon of migration brings many changes, including changes in the field of social life for both the host society and the immigrants themselves. Migrants' problems should be considered not only in the global context, but primarily in the local one. The first part of this article is to define migration in sociological terms. An analysis of various forms of inter-institutional dialogue for migrants in Lubelskie Voivodeship raises a number of questions regarding the implementation of the theoretical content contained in a number of demands at the level of practical action. These relate to the cooperation of the local environment in the Lubelskie Voivodeship as Non-governmental organisations, local government units, and private companies for the returnees and foreigners. Are the undertaken initiatives consistent and do they correlate with complementing offers? Do the offers respond to the real problems of different groups of migrants? In addition, Lublin province is a region where many young people migrate for work and invites immigrants, in particular Romanians and Ukrainians. It is worth noting that in the city of Lublin, the number of foreign students is increasing, which is also a new challenge for the different environments, not only the universities, but the entire social environment. The article presents the most important initiatives for inter-institutional dialogue for the above-mentioned groups. An important element of this analysis is to highlight the cooperation and exchange of experience, which from the point of view of Lublin organisations, is one of the essential elements in developing integration programs. Furthermore, an analysis of the various forms of action leads to the proposal of several important arguments and conclusions that have been identified in the last part of the article. They have a vital importance not only from the point of view of the previously taken action. They are a starting point for reflection and taking effective action for anyone interested in building dialogue and cross-sector partnerships so that the actions bring the expected results.

Key words: *migrants, migration processes, students, refugees*

The phenomenon of migration brings many changes, including changes in the field of social life for both the host society and the immigrants themselves. Migrants' problems should be considered not only in the global context, but primarily in the local one. The first part of this article is to define migration in sociological terms. An analysis of various forms of inter-institutional dialogue for migrants in Lubelskie Voivodeship raises a number of questions regarding the implementation of the theoretical content contained in a number of demands at the level of practical action. These relate to the cooperation of the local environment in the Lubelskie Voivodeship as non-governmental organisations, local government units, and private companies for the returnees and foreigners. Are the undertaken initiatives consistent and do they correlate with complementing offers? Do the offers respond to the real problems of different groups of migrants? In addition, Lublin province is a region where many young people migrate for work and invites immigrants, in particular Romanians and Ukrainians. It is worth noting that in the city of Lublin,

the number of foreign students is increasing, which is also a new challenge for the different environments, not only the universities, but the entire social environment. The article presents the most important initiatives for inter-institutional dialogue for the above-mentioned groups. An important element of this analysis is to highlight the cooperation and exchange of experience, which from the point of view of Lublin organisations, is one of the essential elements in developing integration programs. Furthermore, an analysis of the various forms of action leads to the proposal of several important arguments and conclusions that have been identified in the last part of the article. They have a vital importance not only from the point of view of the previously taken action. They are a starting point for reflection and taking effective action for anyone interested in building dialogue and cross-sector partnerships so that the actions bring the expected results.

Contemporary migration processes¹ in Poland and the actions undertaken by non-governmental organisations in the areas related to the labour market

There are three elements in the sociological definition which define the way of understanding the movement involved in migration: migrants always move in a physical space, the transfer is preceded by a decision-making process (the decision to migrate is usually formed in the process of analysing potential gains and losses related to the change of physical space, and above all, the social consequences of the transfer which is a change in the system of migrants' interactions. On the one hand, migratory movement results in expanding the interactive network of people and groups who occupy the new place of settlement, and on the other hand, this leads to a reduction in interactions with those who remained in the community of origin (Niedźwiecki 2010: 22–23). A frequently used criterion in the divisions is the reason for the decision to migrate. On this basis one can distinguish: labour (economic) migration, family migration (family reunification), ethnic migrations, and also religious, political, recreational or tourist migration (Niedźwiecki 2010: 22–23). The Lublin region is not homogeneous in terms of migration.

In addition, in this analysis the criterion concerning the distance and geographical characteristics of emigration are important from the point of view of Lublin. From this point of view we can distinguish external and internal migration movements and border movements:

- the first ones include continental migration (between countries of the same continent, overseas migration (intercontinental) and macro-regional migration (which take place within unified communities of states);
- internal trips include interregional and regional travel;
- cross-border movement taking place within the territorial scope of the socio-cultural area (Niedźwiecki 2010: 22–23). The causes the emigrations in the province of Lublin (border areas) and the rural character of the region are internal and temporary. The increase in migration can be observed mainly

¹ The Oxford sociological dictionary migration is defined as: (...) *more or less the permanent movement of individuals or groups that cross symbolic or political borders to new areas of residence or new communities.* (Olechnicki, Załęski 2004: 228).

in suburban areas: Lublin, Zamość, Puławy, Biała Podlaska and Chełm (Wesołowska 2011: 59).

Migration theories on the microanalysis plane are relevant considerations for local phenomena. This diversity of theoretical and methodological approaches illustrates various research trends in the labour and economic migration processes, dominant in the modern world. Some of them try to analyse migration movements at the micro-social level, focusing attention on individuals and small groups, while others include coverage at the macro-social level, addressing the analysis of the causes and consequences of migration for the whole of society.

Migration from Lubelskie Voivodeship is determined by economic factors. The Lublin region is seen as a backwater, and the boundary affects the exclusion of regions, and as a result the Lublin region is an area of the greatest migration in Poland; in 2010, net migration was 2.3 per 1,000 people (Wesołowska 2011: 59)². Labour migrations are quite obviously linked to problems in the labour market: on the one hand, factors related to the functioning of this particular market are considered crucial to the understanding of the mechanisms and determinants of migration, while on the other hand – due to the fact that mobility is the movement of foreign labour resources, it affects the operation of the labour market, both in the host country and the country of origin.

The theory of new migration economics emphasises the collective nature of decision-making in a journey and its consequences for a small social group. According to its principles, a social group, usually a family, sends one of its members to the new reality in order to diversify income and, consequently, reduce the risk of a crisis of the material associated with changes in the economic environment. Social environment is a reference point that determines the propensity to migrate, the worse the situation of a particular household in relation to the neighbourhood, the greater the inclination to take the journey (Niedźwiecki 2010: 54). In this theory, in contrast to the neoclassical approach – it is assumed that the work is a specific factor of production, and therefore, labour movements are accompanied by a number of specific costs, such as the costs of a social or psychological nature, which essentially distinguish the migration of people from the “migration” of capital. It is assumed that individuals act in a specific social context, which means that it appears to be necessary to analyse migration decisions at the individual level, while taking into account the system of reference in which the decision-making process occurs, with particular emphasis on the reference system in which the decision-making process takes place, with particular emphasis on the family or household of the potential migrant. Socio-cultural considerations are important for inter-institutional dialogue undertaken for the benefit of migrants and immigrants. Various types of workshops, such as intercultural dialogue for foreigners, are an important element. Each migration takes place in a political context, related to the conditions preceding the decision to leave, and the consequences of social mobility, which leads to the formation of migration policy in the host country and a policy towards immigrants

² According to statistics in 2010, 459 people migrated from Lubelskie Voivodeship (Central Statistical Office).

(also in the sending country) (Niedźwiecki 2010: 54). It is also important, from the point of view of building inter-institutional dialogue to identify and analyse the ways in which social structures, institutions and social relationships (as well as changes occurring in them) assist or hinder migration and affect the conditions of its course (Niedźwiecki 2010: 58). The migration-related phenomena are often the subject of analyses by authorities, politicians, officials, various institutions and non-governmental organisations.

As part of the many sociological theories on external migration, one can distinguish four basic ways to explain the phenomenon of the spatial mobility of people; these are: the theory of migration networks, institutional theory, cumulative causation theory, and the so-called “push-pull” theory. The most important variable in the theory of migration networks is the relationship between former and current migrants and future migrants that determine migration. The former are, on the one hand role models, and on the other hand they provide material, organisational and informational support for future migrants. Institutional theory focuses on the institutional environment which is formed around the phenomenon of migration and works for their organisation, maintenance, and development. The activities of different types of public entities and non-governmental organisations are aimed at providing migrants with both information and professional legal assistance if they find themselves in emergency situations. Some of these institutions can operate both in the host country as well as in the country of origin. Generally, the result of their efforts is essential to reduce the risks associated with migration. As in the case of migration networks theory, one deals with a chain of events of a feedback loop. The first wave of migration builds an institutional environment, and it in turn facilitates the subsequent person’s decision to leave. The theory of “push and pull” identifies four main groups of factors determining migration processes: factors that attract to potential points of departure, ejecting it from the current place of residence, indirect obstacles, and personal factors. Among the factors that attract foreigners to Lubelskie Voivodeship one can primarily identify its geographical proximity for immigrants from Ukraine and Belarus, and the academic potential of Lublin, due to the low cost of study (e.g., a medical school, and a wide range of scholarships for students from the eastern border). Moreover, in Lubelskie Voivodeship there are 5 large centres for more than 500 refugees (Central Statistical Office)³.

Examples of actions for immigrants in Lubelskie Voivodeship

The new paradigm of research on migration (Castles 2007: 293–308)⁴ should use the participatory approach and should involve many circles interested in the

³ Large numbers of migrants in Lubelskie Voivodeship are unregistered. Each year the Border Guards issues decisions to expel c.a. 1.000 people (what is only a small share of illegal migrants). The Border Guards estimates that in Lubelskie Voivodeship there are c.a. 50–100 thousand illegal migrants. The number of seasonal legal and illegal migrants is c.a. 15–20 thousand people.

⁴ One should mention a social camping that since 2007 has been organised in the Framework of the EFI by *Centrum Wolonariatu* “As I was a stranger...”, which was aimed at increasing the acceptance level for migration in the societies of the Lubelskie, Podlaskie and Podkarpackie regions, as the region which hosts migrants to build an inter-cultural dialogue. The actions had two dimensions: indirectly through the media and directly through engaging volunteers and building a platform for intercultural dialogue.

phenomenon of migration. This concerns the analysis of the active role of migrants and all other persons and entities involved in the process of collective migration. Examples of organisations and their inter-sectoral activities for migrants in Lubelskie Voivodeship can be divided into three types. The first one covers the practical aspects of assisting, for their benefit, migrants through direct assistance, in the form of a range of services offered by local government and non-governmental organisations. In Lublin, an institution that stands out in this area is *Fundacja Instytut na rzecz Państwa i Prawa* which, among other things, provides services in the scope of legal counselling, counselling for inclusive actions, and learning the Polish language. The second type of action is addressed at officials and is represented by *Avenir*, one of the organisations which implements projects aimed at raising the qualifications of employees at local institutions and their work with migrants. A third of the highlighted measures on the subject of migration activities are addressed at the host society (Castles 2007: 293–308). The participation of returnees in building inter-institutional dialogue is extremely important for several reasons: a positive aspect concerns the idea-generating activities of incomplete migrants. They are often the originators of all kinds of civic initiatives (Castles 2007: 315)⁵. A percentage of returnees' engagement and various aspects of civil society in the Lubelskie Voivodeship were presented through an example of research conducted in the municipalities of Zwierzyniec and Tyszowice (see: Niedźwiecki 2010: 277). Structural dimension included the existence and functioning of non-governmental organisations in the local community, as well as the extent of the participation with respondents in social initiatives aimed at the realisation of the common good. In all the problems it was important to establish a personal involvement of the respondents in the institutions, and the procedures related to the operation of the local community and capturing the impact of migration, or its absence (shuttle and return), for the life of the commune.

Innovative aspects of activities primarily include the creation of the Regional Migrant Support Network (*Regionalna Sieć Wsparcia Imigrantów*), which produces guidebooks and brochures providing information on regional support institutions. The activity extended past Polish borders, for example in Polish migrants' organisations. In addition, valuable workshops were attended by representatives of non-governmental organisations and local government in Lublin.

Conclusions and an attempt to evaluate the actions for building inter-institution dialogue for migrants problems

A passive attitude and little involvement in the affairs of the original migrant community are due to several reasons: there is a division between those who were migrants and those who did not leave as a barrier to joint action (Niedźwiecki 2010: 289–290). Hence there is a need to change the attitudes of residents towards migrants. In addition, migrants who leave cannot create organisations, societies and associations, nor can they personally get involved in the activity of existing Non-governmental organisations. Returnees do not opt for greater involvement in the

⁵ According to many researchers, migrants bring new ideas, part of which is then implemented into the local community.

affairs of the local community as a result of institutional barriers. *Here, the majority of people are waiting for people like us to come. They will come and they will come up with some ideas (...)*. The conducted inter-institutional dialogue in the form of workshops with representatives from non-governmental organisations and local government in Lublin summarised the activities for the integration of foreigners in the city and the activities targeting returning migrants. The following proposals were put forward: easy and quick access to information on the rights and procedures for foreigners, intercultural education, police, municipal police and border guard education (Hilarowicz 2013: 5). It is important that the actions are complementary, including publishing, reports, brochures and other materials. Another, but no less important issue, is the lack of communication between organisations implementing projects and the lack of coordination of activities at the central level of these organisations (Hilarowicz 2013: 8). *When it comes to bad duplication of efforts, it is common, i.e. actions, similar groups of beneficiaries and an often mutual lack of information about what the organisations are doing, what they do in general and ... good examples of what is done in Lublin, for example, such a good practice as the integration of these entities within these projects (...)* or *Local Immigrant Support Network, which just implements real cooperation*. The gathered opinions confirm that after a project is finished, there is a gap in the institution's offer because there is no continuation of the actions.

In order to make the initiative last, it is necessary to engage in cooperation institutional partners, representatives from local government, non-governmental organisations, and universities. One should also involve research entities and centres, and representatives from the private sectors of the economy. Sustainability in building inter-institutional dialogue is also provided through the effective and constant financing of already existing "good practices" and those actions which are selected by the interested returnees and foreigners.

Bibliography

- Brettel C.B., Hollifield J.F. (eds.) (2000), *Migration Theory. Talking cross Disciplines*, Routledge, London-New York, ISBN 0415926114.
- Burawska W. (2007), *Uchodźcy w Polsce oraz problem nielegalnej migracji*, „Biuletyn Centralnego Ośrodka Szkolenia Straży Granicznej” 2, ISSN 14292505.
- Castles S. (2007), *Twenty-first-century migration as a challenge to sociology*, „Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies” vol. 33, ISSN 1369183X.
- Central Statistical Office, *Regiony Polski*, <http://stat.gov.pl/obszary-tematyczne/inne-opracowania/miasta-województwa/regiony-polski-2014-folder-roczny,6,8.html>, date access: 4.04.2014.
- Faist T. (2000), *The Volume and Dynamics of International Migration and Transnational Social Space*, Oxford University Press, Oxford, ISBN 9780198293910.
- Goss J., Lindquist B. (1995), *Conceptualizing international labour migration: a structuration perspective*, „International Migration Review” vol. 29, no. 2, ISSN 01979183.
- Hilarowicz M. (2013), *Monitoring integracji. Doskonalenie metod i narzędzi do oceny skuteczności polityki integracyjnej. Notatki na marginesie badań Lublinie*, Instytut Studiów Migracyjnych, Bruksela, fism.pl/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/obserwacje-lubelskie.pdf, date access: 4.04.2014.

- Jończy R. (2003), *Migracje zarobkowe ludności autochtonicznej z województwa opolskiego. Studium ekonomicznych determinant i konsekwencji*, UO, Opole, ISBN 8373950060.
- Jończy R. (2003), *Zewnętrzne migracje ludności wiejskiej Opolszczyzny po wejściu Polski do Unii Europejskiej. Konsekwencje w kontekście sytuacji społeczno-demograficznej i regionalnego rynku pracy*, Instytut Śląski, Opole - Wrocław, ISBN 9788375110777.
- Niedźwiecki D. (2010), *Migracje i tożsamość. Od teorii do analizy przypadku*, Nomos, Kraków, ISBN 9788376880266.
- Okólski M. (2006), *Demografia. Podstawowe pojęcia, procesy i teorie w encyklopedycznym zarysie*, Scholar, Warszawa, ISBN 9788376880266.
- Okólski M. (2007), *Poland's Migration in the European Context*, [in:] A. Kicinger, A. Weinar (eds.), *State of the Art. Of the Migration Research in Poland*, CEFRM Working Paper 1, ISSN 17320631, ISBN 9788360462065.
- Olechnicki K., Załęcki P. (2004), *Słownik socjologiczny*, Graffiti BC, Toruń, ISBN 8390078414.
- Praszałowicz D. (2002), *Teoretyczne koncepcje procesów migracji*, „Przegląd Polonijny” 4, ISSN 0137303X.
- Sztompka P. (2002), *Socjologia. Analiza społeczeństwa*, Znak, Kraków, ISBN 8324002189.
- Van den Broeck J. (1996), *The Economics of Labour Migration*, Edward Elgar Publishing Company, Cheltenham, ISBN 9781858983110.
- Wesołowska M. (2011), *Migracje ludności i ich skutki w regionie peryferyjnym na przykładzie województwa lubelskiego*, „Barometr Regionalny” 3, ISSN 16449398.

Intersectoral Cooperation in the Area of the Fight Against Social Exclusion of Children and Youth

Marta Komorska

Abstract

Nowadays, we are beginning to pay more attention to the importance of local partnership and intersectoral cooperation. Their role in effective social policy and solving social problems is well known. Intersectoral cooperation indirectly contributes to the efficient organisation of social services which meet the needs of the local community thanks to, among others, properly diagnosed problems. The offer of social services directed to children and youth demands a complex programme in which we can find one's tasks on all sides responsible for the development of the young generation, such as: family, school, health protection subjects. Intersectoral cooperation creates a platform for the mutual understanding of information and experiences in order to work out the solutions that guarantee the basis for stable support and common work for young people. Children and youth belong to this group of people, where functioning under the conditions of environmental threats and the lack of full access to health and educational services influence their chances of growth and professional social activity in adult life. From the perspective of threats that have recently touched the poorest regions in Poland one needs to mention the migration of youth to the big cities in Poland, and European countries. Pilot surveys in Lublin voivodeship showed that over half of the studying youth pay attention to the lack of opportunities for growth in their own places of residence and there is a lack of faith that this situation can be changed, which not only reveals the „unattractiveness“ of the centres where young respondents live, but we can also clearly notice their „civil passiveness“. The question refers to the tasks that need to be done so that young citizens may feel membership and responsibility for their „small homelands“, and also the role of intersectoral cooperation in solving the problems resulting from the progressive marginalisation of young people, i.e. the lack of local identity and perspectives for growth in their local communities.

Key words: *social exclusion, children and youth, system of support*

Introduction

Nowadays, we are beginning to pay more attention to the importance of local partnership and intersectoral cooperation. Their role in effective social policy and solving social problems is well known. Intersectoral cooperation indirectly contributes to the efficient organisation of social services which meet the needs of the local community thanks to, among others, properly diagnosed problems. The offer of social services directed to children and youth demands a complex programme in which we can find one's tasks on all sides responsible for the development of the young generation, such as: family, school, health protection subjects. Intersectoral cooperation creates a platform for the mutual understanding of information and experiences in order to work out the solutions that guarantee the basis for stable support and common work for young people. Children and youth belong to this group of people, where functioning under the conditions of

environmental threats and the lack of full access to health and educational services influence their chances of growth and professional social activity in adult life.

From the perspective of threats that have recently touched the poorest regions in Poland one needs to mention the migration of youth to the big cities in Poland, and European countries. Pilot surveys in Lublin voivodeship showed that over half of the studying youth pay attention to the lack of opportunities for growth in their own places of residence and there is a lack of faith that this situation can be changed, which not only reveals the “unattractiveness” of the centres where young respondents live, but we can also clearly notice their “civil passiveness”. The question refers to the tasks that need to be done so that young citizens may feel membership and responsibility for their “small homelands”, and also the role of intersectoral cooperation in solving the problems resulting from the progressive marginalisation of young people, i.e. the lack of local identity and perspectives for growth in their local communities.

Intersectoral Cooperation

In the 21st century in European countries great emphasis is laid on the growth of civil society and its social capital. Various steps leading to the increased participation of social circles in public life as wide as possible are undertaken. Citizens are encouraged to take up an activity in associate communities. Non-governmental organisations are becoming an essential element in the social life of modern democratic countries. They may actively participate in public life on different levels, both by undertaking their own initiatives and participating in other people’s enterprises by realising commissioned tasks, acting in one’s own interest, but also for the benefit of others. Optimal participation means not only co-participation on partner rules in decisive processes on a different level, but also in management.

Partnership plays an important role in creating and making local social policy, amplifying the so-called governance, which is also defined as a system of governance, co-operation in the decisive and realisation processes of various local “stakeholders”. The key for efficient governance is intersectoral partnership concentrating representatives of three sectors who show their will for co-participation in building local development teams. Such groups aim at effective solutions for local problems and both the amplification and the realisation of development chances potential existing in the community. Defining the tri-sectoral character of subjects brings together the category defined in such a way to others as a tri-sectoral partnership, inter-sectoral partnership. More elements constituting inter-sectoral partnership are shown by R. Serafin. This is a tri-sectoral agreement of public institutions, non-governmental organisations, and companies that wish to act together for their region: it has long-term character, and the joint for its members is the common area where they act, and the common aims that they share. Its dynamics constitutes a special feature of such an agreement—local partnership is gradually developing and the number of its members and the range of realised tasks (Każmierczak 2008: 30) grow. Intersectoral partnership which we understand as the voluntary, conscious and strategic common activities of partners coming from

different sectors (public, commercial, non-governmental) and made for the realisation of local development assumptions is now beginning to play a major role in creating and implementing modern social policy.

In the past few years one has observed a considerable acceleration in transferring the implementation of the part of tasks from the area of social policy to non-governmental organisations and private subjects, which at the same time caused a demonopolization of social policy in public institutions (Grewiński, Karwacki 2010). Here, a principle of subsidiarity has also been used, the one that transfers legal social aid obligations onto another subject (most often non-governmental) together with the transfer of the means necessary for its realisation through the signing of a contract and their socialisation understood as a transfer of a donation for statutory non-governmental activity. At the same time, conditions for inter-sectoral cooperation development and the creation of local partnerships were created, and thus ground for the development and supply of new social services was prepared, which should match the solutions offered by the model of active social policy. Engagement in preparing local strategies is a chance to initiate intersectoral partnerships (Matczak, Koziarek 2011). This participation refers not only to the technical design of the document, but also to a certain social effect that may appear in the process of preparing the documents. Starting with initiating working groups, social consultations, social diagnosis and the planning of activities, there exists a wide area for starting local social powers. Strategic documents, especially in the area of social policy are created for citizens as the response for their needs and with the active participation of all social life actors. Strategies still constitute an excellent tool for education, information, and the activation and socialisation of citizens, but only if said strategies are properly prepared. Local governments which cannot understand the “developmental role” of strategic documents and the activation potential that lie in the very process of their creation lose the important impulse for social development, both through closing the access to social funds, and they, first of all, lose a chance to create and amplify intersectoral partnership, “creating an opportunity for a change in quality of the managed” community.

The task to design the strategy for solving social problems and designing strategic documents gives basis for pointing at the common area for cooperation, also in the range of solving the difficult situation of children and youth, and it creates an opportunity to prepare a social services offer safeguarding their needs. The threats affecting young people do not constitute a problem of an individual or a task directed exclusively to the local government. The solution for a social problem should belong to the area of interest of both of the local government authorities, and also social, private, and non-formal actors and come into existence in citizens’ conscience, which, on one hand, gives ground for creating partnerships and starting intersectoral cooperation, civil society development, social participation enlargement, while on the other hand, it increases the chances of creating innovative solutions for the benefits of the community and its development.

An interesting issue is to determine to what extent local subjects are able to use the already existing solutions. We are observing a transfer of inter-institutional

cooperation from the transactional model that has most often been used in acquiring aid funds in the direction of the partner model (Grewiński, Karwacki 2010: 20). Nowadays, it is important to ask the question about the condition of inter-sectoral partnership in the implementation of social policy and particularly, in creating solutions for the benefit of children and youth.

The situation of children and youth in Lublin voivodeship

On the map of Poland, Lublin voivodeship (...) is situated at the end of the list in most regional rankings in the country. It belongs to voivodeships that have the most traditional economic structure—with the biggest participation of population working in agriculture. (...) Human resources in Lublin voivodeship are not developing quantitatively. Despite the fact that the participation of the youngest population is not low, the demographic prognosis is not favorable. The negative migration balance is still very high (Golinowska, Kocot 2013: 223–224). The voivodeship also belongs to those that are most threatened by social exclusion; statistics show information on one of the highest percentage of the poor and unemployed and the quickly aging in the region, and the excessive demographic burden, negative population growth, and migration balance specifically caused by the emigration of young people¹. The year 2013 is the time of preparing new strategic documents, which, on one hand, promote summing up, and on the other hand, setting up new aims, and in the face of threats coming from the process of demographic aging which accelerates both as the result of low child bearing, but also because of the migration of young people. Therefore, focusing upon the situation of children and youth seems particularly justified. In the new created strategy of social policy one should find not only a diagnosis on children and youth as particularly threatened groups, but also proposals for solutions and a system of support adequate to the character of problems.

Threat of social marginalisation

Lublin voivodeship is a region where over half of the total population resides in rural areas. In the studied sub-population of middle school students, the situation looked slightly different². According to the GUS (government statistics office) data this proportion among middle school students constitutes nearly “half and half” (in round figures 50%). In the random sample, despite the fact that the number and size of classes from middle-schools located in the area of rural boroughs, rural-urban, and urban, the relationship was to the benefit of city dwellers (55%) at the cost of the countryside (45%). The basic information that needs to be mentioned is the composition of the household, thus: 82% of respondents live with their parents, 16%

¹ According to Central Statistical Office 2012 – relative poverty threat index 22,9%; statutory – 9,0, extreme – 8,9. Unemployment rate in 2013 – 14,4. Proportion of post-productive population – 29% (Central Statistical Office).

² Empirical studies were conveyed by the survey method with the use of auditory technique. The process of data collection took place in the year 2013 in randomly selected middle school classes from the area of Lublin region. The research sample selected the random-layer-group way in order to ensure participation of respondents from both rural and urban areas proportional to those from the general population. After verification 789 respondents were qualified for final analysis.

with one parent, and 2% with no parent. 77% live with siblings, 40% with one sibling, 3% with two, 8% with three and 7% with four or more. Only two students lived in a dormitory. Into this feature, after reducing the number of categories to two (complete family and incomplete family), enter numerous correlations with the variables from each dimension of marginalisation, and also with the place of residence—it appears that middle school students dwelling in cities of the Lublin region, more frequently than their peers from the country, come from incomplete families.

The economic aspect of social marginalisation is regarded as the most important. The problem of material deprivation that is connected with this phenomenon has always been the basic threat for the existence of individuals. Exclusion from this sphere becomes a factor deepening marginalisation in the remaining areas. On the other hand—the other forms of marginalisation increase the size of marginalisation in an economic sense, on the principle of feedback. Generalised, subjective evaluation of the family material situation points to a small range of poverty symbolised by the so-called “making ends meet”, yet full satisfaction of daily needs was declared by only 2/3 of respondents. Yet, not even half (45%) could certainly count on the immediate purchase of necessary clothing. Every third middle school student is not always assured with a warm meal; nearly every second is sometimes hungry in class. Nearly all declared possessing a computer at home with access to the internet. Nearly every fourth respondent took a job during holidays (paid or connected with assisting parents in their tasks) that pushed the rest to a further plan.

Nearly half of them do not participate in extra after-school activities which always have a more or less hidden integration function. 55% respondents attended extra after-school activities. A very wide range of language courses, individual tuition, sports, artistic and parish activities appeared many times in different configurations. Undoubtedly, this part of middle school students develop their skills and personality, integrate with peers, and actively spend their free time, thus acquiring competition advantages in the shape of bigger intellectual, social and cultural capital that influence success in further educational paths and then in the labour market. The remaining 45% of respondents did not attend such activities, including 24% who declared no need, 14% no time, 4% insufficient income and 3% middle school students mentioned a different reason.

The middle school students were also asked about their plans for permanent migration from their place of residence, 19% declared indifference on where they were going to live in their adult life. Only 26% respondents chose a native place, 20% wanted to go abroad and 35% wanted to stay in Poland but live in a different place. Naturally, these plans should be treated with a certain distance because, as was proved in many studies, entering adult life and playing new social roles (for example an employee, spouse, parent) and stabilisation cool down their enthusiasm, reducing the likelihood of migration. However, *the results above – prove no attachment to the place where middle students grew up, a belief in no chance of schooling at a high level for realisation of their life plans in their places of residence and a readiness for emigration.* Attachment to their own place was the same in all sub-populations. The only statistically essential difference referred to the preferred direction of migration—youth who come from cities much more wanted to emigrate abroad on a permanent basis

thus rooting in “a small homeland” is felt only by every fourth teenager, over half desiring to change their place of residence.

Middle school students who do not use cultural goods through institutions founded for this purpose are relatively many—despite the supportive role of school which they are obliged to attend. The worst situation is observed in the frequency of theatre and museum attendance. During the last 12 months—because such time perspective became of interest—every third middle school student from Lublin region had not watched a theatre play, and every second had never been in a museum. 40% have never been to any concert, while over 20% have never even been to the cinema. About 60% of teenagers at middle school age do not read magazines, and almost 40% have not read any other book than those on the school reading list in one year. More often we notice that the problem of digital exclusion has different faces. It should not be identified only with the lack of computer equipment and internet access. Equipment with adequate apparatus is not a problem for the vast majority of households in the population under study—which makes it similar to the countries more developed than Poland. Additionally, the majority of middle school students has access at their friends’ homes or at school after lessons—however, the latter, although not poorly equipped with computer equipment, is not accessible for 43% students. Middle school students do not have to be encouraged to use the internet as they use it very often, some of them even too often. They are fully satisfied with the competence level they have, while on the other hand, every tenth student can only do simple tasks. Let us summarize the remaining social exclusion indexes. Two thirds of middle school students from the Lublin region are certain of their parents’ firm and inevitable reaction in the case of an unexpected night outside the home. Only a few over half of the students are convinced about such consequences in response to bringing home electronic devices of unknown origin. Nearly 2% of students (it means almost 1400 students in the whole voivodeship!) regularly experience abuse at home. 8% face systematic alcohol consumption in the family home, 22% compulsive smoking, and 2% drugs abuse. Their school environment is characterised by a bigger intensity of the described phenomena. 15% middle school students permanently experience abuse at school, 37% constantly face circumstances where alcohol is consumed.

For almost two thirds of students, smoking is a part of everyday life, and every sixth systematically observes drug abuse in middle-schools. The fact that only every seventh young man shows a dislike to general elections is optimistic.

Summary

The problem of social exclusion finds its confirmation in the results of the presented studies in the area of Lublin voivodeship. It is undoubtedly necessary to further monitor the phenomenon and continue the undertaken studies for their verification. At the same time an opportunity for comparative analysis across the time with the same evaluation indexes should be used. The analysis showed that certain areas of social exclusion are linked to the problems that are unwillingly revealed, e.g. low income in a family, education, widely understood abuse, addictions and so on. Therefore, deepening of the analysis of quality methods is justified. It will allow

credible diagnosis of the mentioned issues, which seem especially crucial from the perspective of prophylaxis and creating a system of support for families.

The basic task that needs to be pointed out after getting acquainted with the results of the studies is the necessity to engage in cooperation all the subjects responsible for creating a system of support and prophylaxis referring to social exclusion. Therefore, the key institutions are: school, social aid centre, health centre, police, non-governmental organisations, including the Church. Their cooperation should be initiated and activated in order to diagnose the situation of youth and families in a better way, and as a consequence create a coherent system of support and safeguard. Starting a training program for employees in these institutions is advisable for intersectoral cooperation. The training will help them understand the mechanisms of this cooperation, recognise the advantages, and most of all, create effective systems of support. The training will also become an opportunity to get acquainted with the diagnosis of social situations and the characteristics of the problem appearing in a given area. However, the exchange of information and experiences among civil servants, a network for effective activities seems most important.

An analysis of the study's results did not show essential differences in threats connected with the social exclusion of youth from rural areas and cities, therefore differences in creating solutions in rural areas and in cities were not taken into consideration. The only clear area of threat is the access to cultural goods, which undoubtedly results from geographical causes, i.e. the distance to big cities with museums, theatres, and so on. In this case *one should prepare solutions for youth from rural areas which create an opportunity to reach the goods mentioned, i.e. borough culture centers or schools organising trips to a museum, theatre, the cinema*. It should also be emphasised that the whole local community should benefit from these initiatives, which will also allow for better integration. A very important task is to organise solutions referring to the problem of the undernutrition of youth. *Activities securing nutritional needs on the school and home environment level must be quickly undertaken!!!* As was mentioned, this task should be done on the basis of cooperation with, for example, schools, aid centres, and non-governmental organisations. The studies clearly showed that youth from incomplete families are in the most difficult situation, which means particular care and support.

Anxiety originates from the lack of parental interest and control in the sphere of their youth's free time, their use of the Internet, their time outside home, no control of the origins of the items possessed by their children. *It is necessary to prepare programs for parents which will help them become aware both of the scale and character of threats facing youth*. One more task that results from the threat of the planned outflow of youth in the direction of big cities in Poland and other European countries needs to be accentuated. Over half of the youth under study pay no attention to opportunities for development in their hometowns and have no faith in changing their situation, which, on one hand, not only shows the "unattractiveness" of the cities where the young respondents live, but also their „civil passiveness" can be clearly noticed. Local governments should undertake activities for promotional and regional development, and first of all, attractive forms of civil education which

help young residents feel a sense of belonging and responsibility for their „small homelands.”

The commencement period of the social policy strategy for Lublin voivodeship for the years 2014–2020 allows the planning of necessary activities initiating both the system of support in the areas that need it, and creating initiatives for the benefit of local development. It is important to avoid in the nearest perspective of implementing social policy negligence with reference to youth and establish solutions to guarantee regional development on the basis of the development of the young residents’ potential, which are described by Golinowska: „In the Polish policy of recent years, youth has not constituted a group for which a complex program for their growth has been designed (...). The tasks ahead of the young generation against challenges of the future demand not only the partnership of nowadays weakened sides: school and parents. They also demand a stronger and more responsible policy of the state, including more directed and territorially coordinated policy. The successful futures of youth from all those poorer regions of the country should not (and cannot) on such a scale as nowadays simply depend on the luck of emigration. They are needed in their country as those who can change life conditions for themselves and at home. This demands directing policy of development to territorial coherence and a polycentric model of shaping space. A chance for the present economic development phase of the country is undoubtedly the growth of innovation. However, it will not be done at an adequate scale and will not result in social results if demographically shrinking young people’s potential is neglected and pushed out to emigration” (Golinowska, Kocot 2013: 190–191).

The presented threats indicate new areas for exploration, which should be the analysis of regional and local policies in the Lublin region from the perspective of the developmental needs of young people and the use of intersectoral partnership for the realisation of these tasks, so that necessary corrections can be introduced and opportunities for regional development can be used creating chances for youth development. Building a cooperation network for the benefit of young citizens through initiating intersectoral partnership is going to play a few functions: it will ensure information flow and communication surface in order to diagnose their problems in a better way, strengthen the subjectivity of society engaging its members for action, integrate people and groups through better recognition and understanding and avoid the resistance of society in the implementation of solutions, and a lack of resistance means faster and cheaper implementation.

Bibliography

Central Statistical Office, www.stat.gov.pl, date access: 4.04.2012.

Golinowska S., Kocot E. (2013), *Spójność społeczna. Stan i perspektywy rozwoju społecznego kraju w przekroju regionalnym*, SCHOLAR, Warszawa, ISBN 9788373836501.

Grewiński M., Karwacki A. (2010), *Pluralizm i międzysektorowa współpraca w realizacji usług społecznych*, MCPS, Warszawa, ISBN 9788391810088.

Kaźmierczak T. (2008), *W stronę nowego Liskowa. Inspiracje, konteksty i cele projektu studyjno-badawczego*, [w:] T. Kaźmierczak (ed.), *W poszukiwaniu strategii pobudzania oddolnego rozwoju społeczności wiejskich*, ISP, Warszawa, ISBN 9788389817631.

Matczak P., Koziarek M. (2011), *Współpraca międzysektorowa przy tworzeniu polityk publicznych dotyczących spraw społecznych i ochrony środowiska*, ISP, Warszawa, ISBN 9788361752745.

The Interdisciplinary Team as an Example of Inter-Sectoral Cooperation – Family Violence Prevention Including Violence Against Women

Malwina Misiąg

Abstract

Family violence is one of the most significant social problems because it targets the most important goods which are health, human life, freedom, public safety etc. There is no doubt that people experiencing violence are often physically or psychologically inept. That is why they are not able to defend themselves, their families, or just demand their rights. Representatives from governmental, scientific and non-governmental organisations have discussed some gender theories as well as the validity of the Convention in order to emphasize neither the importance nor the irrelevance of its ratification with respect to Polish law. It is of considerable significance for interdisciplinary teams, which have existed since 2010, which attend to family violence prevention. Their functioning gives an answer to some of the recommendations included in the project of a European government resolution devoted to aggression towards women. The recommendations clearly demonstrate that the elimination of hostility is not possible by only taking individual actions. In fact, a wide range of actions, namely infrastructural, legal, judicial, executive, cultural, educational, social, and health may contribute to broadening our knowledge of the problem of violence as well as minimizing the potential threat of aggression and its consequences. What is more, interdisciplinary teams have represented some points of the report focusing on violence preventions aims such as politics, prevention, security and partnership. This has an influence on the security of people, including women, who struggle with domestic violence before secondary victimization.

Key words: *violence, women, prevention of violence, interdisciplinary work*

Introduction

Family violence is one of the most significant social problems because it targets the most important goods which are health, human life, freedom, public safety etc. There is no doubt that people experiencing violence are often physically or psychologically inept. That is why they are not able to defend themselves, their families, or just demand their rights. It was shown that in 2012 there were altogether 76 993 people suffering from domestic violence (the number of fulfilled form Blue Card (Journal of Laws 2011: 1245) - 51 292), where 50 241 are represented by women (approximately 65 per cent), 75 80- by men, and 19 172-under age (Przemoc w rodzinie 2013)¹. Similar statistics are demonstrated in the 2014 report of The European Union Agency for fundamental rights. The statistics indicate that every third Polish woman was sexually abused, every tenth was the victim of stalking, and finally 19 percent of them experienced physical or sexual violence (Report of the

¹ That day the website was lacking in a full report of 2013, only a semi-annual report which did not describe the scale of the problem.

European Agency for Fundamental Rights 2014). It can be concluded that women are to a great extent the object of aggression. Yet, domestic violence treated as a social problem has been noticed for only a short time. Establishing some structures which offer effective help to women springs from feminist movements. They laid the foundations for groups, associations whose aim was to protect women from violence. Nowadays, not only feminist organisations but also representatives from some authorities deal with the problem of violence. In 2011 the Council of Europe accepted ratification of the Istanbul Convention and Poland started working on both preventing and combating violence against women (*Konwencja o zapobieganiu i zwalczaniu przemocy wobec kobiet i przemocy domowej* 2011: 1-48). Representatives from governmental, scientific and non-governmental organisations have discussed some gender theories as well as the validity of the Convention in order to emphasise neither the importance nor the irrelevance of its ratification with respect to Polish law. It is of considerable significance for interdisciplinary teams, which have existed since 2010, which attend to family violence prevention. Their functioning gives an answer to some of the recommendations included in the project of a European government resolution devoted to aggression towards women. The recommendations clearly demonstrate that the elimination of hostility is not possible by only taking individual actions. In fact, a wide range of actions, namely infrastructural, legal, judicial, executive, cultural, educational, social, and health may contribute to broadening our knowledge of the problem of violence as well as minimalising the potential threat of aggression and its consequences. What is more, interdisciplinary teams have represented some points of the report focusing on violence preventions aims such as politics, prevention, security and partnership (Report of European Parliament 2014). Furthermore, they are one of the elements of the silent revolution spreading throughout organisations. It seems that their possibilities are endless (Parker 2007). This has an influence on the security of people, including women, who struggle with domestic violence before secondary victimisation.

Measures taken according to the procedure of the Blue Card

Amendment of the family violence prevention act implemented legal solutions which re-established the procedure of the Blue Card (KG Policji, DzU KGP 2008, no. 4, item 30). Since now, such a procedure was followed by the local social service committees, community of resolving problems with alcohol and most of all by the police. Police officers followed the procedure according to the regulation of the Chief Constable no.162 of 18 February 2008 on forms and methods of fulfilling tasks concerning domestic violence in line with the procedure of the Blue Card. As far as the Blue Card documentation of social services is concerned, it was regulated in social services article 107, item 2 according to which a social worker completed the paper form Social Service-Blue Card (Spurek 2011: 103-104). According to number 9, item 2 of the 2010 Act on the Prevention of Family Violence prevention, to be in line with the procedures of the Blue Card, not only were representatives of the organisational units of social services, the community of solving problems of alcohol, and the police, but also the representatives of education and health protection were obliged to deal with domestic violence (Act of 29 July 2005: art. 9d,

section 2). Restarting the procedure is possible when the representatives of the above-mentioned services obtain information on the eventual danger of domestic violence. Such information becomes the rationale for taking preventative measures. The procedure may be followed not only when a victim of spousal abuse reports it, other witnesses, including members of the family, are also taken into account. It does not have to be a person who personally witnessed an event, it can be a neighbour who has heard the noise of an argument and was concerned about the wife or her child being battered (Jaszczak-Kuźmińska, Michalska 2012: 21–22). A lawmaker indicates that the victim's permission is not necessary to intervene. At this stage, the representatives of the public bodies mentioned follow the procedure of the Blue Card in terms of the cooperation rule; what is more, they give information to the interdisciplinary team's foreperson on the measures taken (Act of 29 July 2005: art. 9d, section 3). Some details connected with the realisation of the Blue Card procedure were included in the Regulation of the Council of Ministers of 13 September 2011 (Journal of Laws 2011, no. 209, item 1245). According to this regulation, representatives were obliged to complete paper form Blue Card-A. This kind of a document allows the notation of both the victim's and witnesses' personal data, and the person suspected of being violent. The form clearly describes the forms of the violence (emotional, physical, and sexual) and other issues attributed to the perpetrator such as damage, burglary, drug abuse, and the duration of similar behaviour. The form allows registration of whether the members of the family have overcome psychoactive drugs (alcohol, drugs, medicines) and describes people's behaviour during intervention as well as where the event takes place. In addition to this, which service measure were taken and why they were used upon a member of a particular family and gives any information of actions taken by representatives of a particular body during the intervention. The Blue Card -form A, especially takes into account the character of the actions of some services (Police and health protection) and contain questions related to their abilities and functioning. Questions associated with police efforts mainly deal with using direct enforcement measures or sobriety testing among the participants of an event. In turn, a representative of health protection complete a part of the paper form devoted to the victim's health condition. According to a lawmaker, filling in a form has to be conducted in the presence of a victim of violence. Hence, it is possible to complete the details later on the basis of poor health. Then, the lawmaker demands that the form be completed immediately upon the restoration of health. When linking up with the victim of violence is impossible, there is the possibility of completing this form without this person being present. The moral task of every service is to provide the victim of family violence with friendly conditions in which to converse, and which can guarantee a sense of security and freedom of speech. It is not advisable to interview a victim in the presence of the perpetrator. It is tolerated to let other people close to the victim be present during an investigation to make them feel safe and comfortable in front of an unknown representative of the institution (Jaszczak-Kuźmińska, Michalska 2012: 24-26). A completed Blue Card-A form is then immediately, up to seven days, sent to the foreperson of an interdisciplinary team and is then used as the first and fundamental tool of working in a team. It should be stressed that starting the procedure is in line with taking measures which provide the victim with a sense of safety (Michałowska 2012: 126). The Regulation of the

Council of Ministers on the procedure of the Blue Card and examples of Blue Card forms enumerate tasks of particular services (Regulation of the Council of Ministers of 13 September 2011: par. 11–15). Furthermore, a victim receives a paper form of Blue Card-B including information which allows them to understand what domestic violence is, informs them about the different kinds of crimes, and from which institutions one can seek assistance. Additionally, one is acquainted with the competencies of services and the forms of assistance offered by them. Further measures are taken during meetings of the interdisciplinary team or working group dealing with family violence prevention.

The idea of interdisciplinary work

In order to understand why interdisciplinary attitude is so important while working with victims of domestic violence, you have to investigate the half-century tradition of a team work. The first attempt at interdisciplinary assistance appeared in the United States. It was involved in working with people and families struggling with difficult living conditions (child abuse, violence towards adults, and sexual abuse). In Poland, the Nobody's Children Foundation played a crucial role in the promotion of assistance to children within the local system of violence prevention (Fundacja Dzieci Niczyje). Multidisciplinary assistance to families, in particular those with problems relating to alcohol and violence, is also offered by the State Agency for Prevention of Alcohol Related Problems (Państwowa Agencja Rozwiązywania Problemów Alkoholowych). As a result of those recommendations, interdisciplinary teams which dealt with family and children violence prevention worked in over one-third of local communities before an amendment on domestic violence went into effect (Jaszczak-Kuźmińska, Michalska 2012: 31).

The idea of teamwork is most of all associated with the multidimensional perception of the violence prevention phenomena and the different perspectives of its understanding, which influences a better distinction of family problems and needs.

D. Jaszczak and K. Michalska single out four perspectives: legal, psychological, social and moral. Thereby they emphasise that each of them will explain the definition of violence differently, at the same time, they will differently define actions which have to be taken in the case of a suspicion of violence.

Legal perspective defines violence as an action causing the abuse of existing law, and the consequences of such behaviours are described, inter alia, in a penal code. According to this perspective, the reaction of such behaviour should be a legal procedure, and everyone who breaks the law should be held criminally liable (Act of 6 June 1997 – Criminal Code, Journal of Laws 1997).

In the psychological perspective, violence is behaviour in which one person threatens another person, and it results in causing somebody harm and moral or physical suffering. That is why offering assistance to victims of violence focuses on providing psychological support.

Social perspective says in turn, that domestic violence is the result of existing conditions and social norms, as well as beliefs and stereotypes which can excuse violence and factors rooted in social attitudes and customs which tolerate violence.

As far as moral perspective is concerned, it refers to ethic values and treats violence as a moral evil, as a behaviour which demands unambiguous condemnation (Jaszczak-Kuźmińska, Michalska 2012: 32).

Taking all this into account, the representatives of justice-judges, prosecutors, probation officers, and police officers will function, most of all, on the basis of legal perspective; while the representatives of assistance services- psychologists, educationalists, therapists, and social workers base their work on the psychological perspective. Moral and social perspectives influence the functioning of both.

D. Jaszczak-Kuźmińska and K. Michalska notice that domestic violence is a complex problem so it is necessary to combine all the four perspectives. Taking into consideration the character and consequences of these phenomena, it is advisable to consider the different aspects of the lives of not only victims of violence, but also the violators. It should be highlighted that combining perspectives does not mean ultra vires and fulfilling another institution's or service's tasks. These people represent different professions and while doing their jobs they have to cooperate in such a way as to draw effective conclusions about the family situation and then take the appropriate measures to assist. The improvement of the family situation should be an effect of all those actions (Jaszczak-Kuźmińska, Michalska 2012: 33).

It is worth mentioning E. Trafiałek's words referring to the intervention of the interdisciplinary action where flexible professionalism is necessary for the effective recognition and compensatory actions. It characterises social workers and the representatives of other professions responsible for public safety, namely police officers, probation officers, judges, prosecutors, psychologists, therapists, psychiatrists, educationalists, physicians, visiting nurses, assistants of a family and others. Trafiałek claims that in times of constant changes and developing problems, the interdisciplinary team represents a determinant of the effectiveness of measures and initiative (Trafiałek 2013: 64).

Interdisciplinary cooperation means an agreement, a combining skills and abilities of different people in order to achieve a common target, which is stopping violence.

As a result of the fact that families suffering from violence have different psychological, legal, financial, health problems, and others connected with functioning in a social environment, they need support and psychological, legal, social (including financial), medical and therapeutic help. The representative of an individual service or institution is not able to feed their needs on their own. They do not possess the appropriate knowledge and opportunities to solve the problems alone. That is why a congeneric attitude to a family's difficult situation can activate the process of changes in line with the cooperation of specialists of different fields and guarantee its effective help.

Interdisciplinary teams working in the area of domestic violence prevention consist of a group of professional workers who cooperate with each other in a coordinated way with the intention of effectively reacting on information about family violence.

K. Łukowska put forward the idea of work as part of interdisciplinary teams where the linking of skills is of top priority and working alone will not answer the

complexity of problems of a particular family. The author indicates that the tool of an effective group work, with the exception of desirable skills, is sharing obtained information which can be of a key importance when taking precautionary measures (Łukowska 2013: 21). Parker declares that interdisciplinary teams link people of essential skills in order to achieve optimal evaluation. An effective team links in turn a set of skills which are not possessed by other members of a team (Jaszczak-Kuźmińska, Michalska 2012: 34).

We have to remember that calling up a team does not guarantee a high quality of work and fast, visual effects. Working as part of an interdisciplinary team requires the full engagement of each member.

Interdisciplinary teams dealing with domestic violence prevention

A lawmaker of a 2010 amendment on family violence prevention, based on the idea of cooperative work, obliged local communities to call up interdisciplinary teams to deal with domestic violence. These teams continue the procedure of the Blue Card started by the representatives of the entitled services, emphasising that interdisciplinary teams get all the Blue Card when starting the procedure of violence prevention. The team consists of the representatives of organisational units of social services, local committees dealing with problems of alcohol, police, education, health protection, and non-governmental organisations (Act of 29 July 2005: art. 9a, section 3). The members of teams are also probation officers. According to the Act on probation officers, the representatives of probation officers can be professional as well as social (Act of 27 July 2001: art. 2 section 1). The lawmaker stresses that the team can be composed of prosecutors and representatives of other public bodies combating family violence. Their presence in the team is facultative. The team calls up working groups who take preventative measures in the cases of particular families, working in direct contact with the families. The make-up of the group can be completed with the representatives of other institutions only when the members are familiar with the problem. Among the members of the team are chosen, the head of the team, a deputy, and last but not least a secretary. The head of the team is a key role since the very beginning, they are the ones who obtain completed paper forms of Blue Card-A (Filipek 2013: 29). The head, no later than three days, hands in the forms to the members of a team or group. They in turn evaluate the situation of a victim of violence in the presence of such a person. The whole event takes place during the meeting of a team or working group. They fill in the form Blue Card-C. The absence of a victim of violence does not delay the work of a team. In the presence of the victim of family violence, the team completes form Blue Card-D (Miachalowska 2012: 127).

Institution of the interdisciplinary team by a reeve or mayor to implement certain tasks is based on the program of the community. Their task is to prevent family violence, protect potential victims of violence, and coordinate actions concerning family violence prevention. The tasks are fulfilled through a diagnosis of the problems in a family, taking appropriate action, intervening when necessary, spreading of information to other institutions, and people and opportunities to offer assistance in the local environment. The task of a working group is to compile and

implement the plan of assisting a family suffering from violence (Act of 29 July 2005: art. 9b section 2 pt 1-5).

What is more, the group is responsible for monitoring the situation and documenting the actions taken towards the members of a family (Act of 29 July 2005: art. 9b section 2 pt 1-3). A. Filipek declares that the working group is able to implement other actions not mentioned in the plan if necessary (Filipek 2013: 29).

A lot of doubt is associated with the realisation of the procedure in the work of the interdisciplinary team and working group. The procedure can be completed in only two cases: firstly, when there is no reason for taking measures; and secondly, in case of a cessation of violence, after the implementation of an individual plan of assistance (Regulation of the Council of Ministers of 13 September 2011: par. 18.1). Furthermore, the procedure is considered closed when there is a cessation of violence and an assistance plan was not implemented. The latter may be changed on the basis of needs and the situation of a victim of violence.

Summary

Domestic violence appears as a result of a difficult to define combination of distinct and unfavourable factors such as economic, social, psychological, cultural, individual, family and environmental which can contribute to the marginalisation and exclusion of the weakest. The phenomena of violence contribute to a deformation of the most important environment of human-family. Consequently, it causes a devastation of world view and portrays the family as a source of violence, including violence towards women (Misiąg 2014: 224-235). Therefore, the elimination and prevention of violence is of considerable importance. Interdisciplinary teams, which have existed since 2010, were established to fight violence and they represent the well-known saying two heads are better than one (Łukowska 2013: 21).

D. Jaszczak-Kuźmińska and K. Michalska compare interdisciplinary work to a jigsaw puzzle. Only when the representatives of services and institutions get together and each of the members brings with them a piece of puzzle of their knowledge and skills, a picture of the situation of a family in need can be created (Jaszczak-Kuźmińska, Michalska 2012: 41). The work of interdisciplinary teams deals with so-called synergy, where $2 + 2 = 5$, it means that the effect of cooperation is bigger than the sum of particular individual operations. In brief, cooperation and synchronisation guarantee better results.

In order to illustrate the effectiveness of the activity of interdisciplinary teams I will present a research study by Filipek, conducted by the Regional Centre of Social Policy in Białystok from September 2010 to October 2011. It was the quantitative research of 118 social services representatives from Podlaskie voivodeship, and qualitative research conducted on 36 members of interdisciplinary teams in three local communities with the help of in-depth interviewing (Report: Stan zastany funkcjonowania LZI 2011). The author noticed that the work of interdisciplinary team brings benefits to a family provided with faster and specialised help, more individualised and adequate to the actual needs of a family. This, as a result, has a

positive influence on the victims of violence. The model of teamwork brings benefits to professional workers: it allows for a fast, free and easy information flow, gives an opportunity for developing a common diagnosis of a problem, consolidate the strength and opportunities of social services to take planned and coordinated actions. One of the most significant advantages of cooperative teams is reducing the burden of problems resulting from the family working with a group of people. This kind of cooperation protects the professional workers from the burnout and routine of the fulfilled tasks.

To sum up, I would like to quote Ford who claims that meeting is a beginning, agreement is a development, and working together is a success (Idziak 1990: 62). The lawmaker took care of the beginning but the rest is in the hand of local services and institutions in order to guarantee the quality of inter-sectoral work which will contribute to the effectiveness of the help offered.

Bibliography:

Act of 6 June 1997 - Criminal Code, Journal of Laws 1997, no. 88, item 553 as amended.

Act of 27 July 2001 on probation officers, Journal of Laws 2001, no. 98, item 1071 as amended.

Act of 29 July 2005 on the prevention of domestic violence, Journal of Laws 2005, no. 180, item 1493 as amended.

Filipek A. (2013), Zespoły interdyscyplinarne ds. przeciwdziałania przemocy w rodzinie, „Praca Socjalna” no. 2, ISSN 08603480.

Fundacja Dzieci Niczyje, <http://fdn.pl>, date access: 27.04.2014.

Idziak W. (1990), Biznes, Koszalińskie Wydawnictwo Prasowe, Koszalin.

Jaszczak-Kuźmińska D., Michalska K. (2012), Zespoły interdyscyplinarne. Procedura „Niebieskie Karty”, PARPAMEDIA, Warsaw, ISBN 9788377600689.

KG Policji, DzU KGP 2008, no. 4, item 30.

Konwencja o zapobieganiu i zwalczaniu przemocy wobec kobiet i przemocy domowej – Translation prepared at the behest of the Chancellery of the Prime Minister of Poland, http://amnesty.org.pl/uploads/media/konwencja_przemoc_wobec_kobiet.pdf, date access: 27.04.2014.

Łukowska K. (2013), Co dwie głowy to nie jedna, czyli o procesach (i pułapkach!) podejmowania decyzji przez zespoły interdyscyplinarne i grupy robocze, „Niebieska Linia” no. 1, ISSN 15072916.

Michałowska A. M. (2012), Przeciwdziałanie przemocy w rodzinie w świetle ustawy z dnia 29 lipca 2005 roku o przeciwdziałaniu przemocy w rodzinie i przepisów kodeksu postępowania karnego z 1997 roku, [in:] E. Kowalewska-Borys (ed.), Problematyka przemocy w rodzinie, Podstawowe środki prawne osób pokrzywdzonych, „Difin”, Warsaw, ISBN 9788376416946.

Misiąg M. (2014), Tożsamość i role społeczne kobiet doświadczających przemocy, [in:] M. Pataj (ed.), (Nie)obecność kobiet w przestrzeni publicznej, Adam Marszałek, Toruń, ISBN 9788377809211.

Państwowa Agencja Rozwiązywania Problemów Alkoholowych, <http://www.parpa.pl>, date access: 27.04.2014.

Parker G. (2007), Zespoły Interdyscyplinarne. Jak pracować z sojusznikami, wrogami i innymi nieznanymi, MT&DC, Warsaw, ISBN 9788391946268.

Regulation of the Council of Ministers of 13 September 2011 on the procedure of a „Blue Card” and samples of paper forms, Journal of Laws 2011, no. 209, item 1245.

Report of European Parliament of 31 January 2014 containing recommendations for Commission of Women Rights and Equality on women violence prevention, <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+REPORT+A7-2014-0075+0+DOC+XML+V0//PL#title1>, date access: 27.04.2014.

Report of the European Agency for Fundamental Rights, Violence against Women: every day and everywhere 2014, <http://fra.europa.eu/en/press-release/2014/violence-against-women-every-day-and-everywhere>, date access: 27.04.2014.

Report: Stan zastany funkcjonowania LZI obejmujący okres od września w od września 2010 r. do lutego 2011 r. oraz od marca 2011r. do października 2011 r., http://www.google.pl/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&frm=1&source=web&cd=3&ved=0CEEQFjAC&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.projekt2011.rops-bialystok.pl%2Fdownloads%2FStan%2520zastany%2520funkcjonowania%2520%2520LZI.pdf&ei=BxxdU4_cOYjIOc_PgJgP&usg=AFQjCNF5VIXfk5-rmGhGyCI-eJMFFZJNIA&sig2=BCB18M1FGMEq2fd3Buac7w&bvm=bv.65397613,d.Yms, date access: 27.04.2014.

Spurek S. (2011), *Przeciwdziałanie przemocy w rodzinie. Nowe zadania jednostek samorządu terytorialnego*, Presshouse, Wrocław, ISBN 9788362452118.

Statystyka - przemoc w rodzinie, <http://statystyka.policja.pl/st/wybrane-statystyki/przemoc-w-rodzinie/50863,Przemoc-w-rodzinie.html>, date access: 27.04.2014.

Trafiałek E. (2013), *Przemoc w rodzinie jako wyzwanie interdyscyplinarne*, „Praca Socjalna” no. 5, ISSN 08603480.

Intersectoral Partnership in Work with a Grieving Family after a Death by Suicide

Anna Andrzejewska-Cioch

Abstract

Social work aimed at supporting an individual is a multifaceted and interdisciplinary process which requires extensive knowledge. A social worker often encounters the various critical moments of their clients. The need for preparing social workers for working with grieving people especially in the face of the loss of a relation or a death by suicide is one of the neglected aspects of intervention work. A death by suicide, which is often not accepted socially, stigmatises the family and conditions its functioning in society. A social worker needs to gain extensive knowledge on how to assist a family as well as provide them with some 'institutional support' in light of the growing number of suicides of not only adults but also adolescents. It seems that only intersectoral support within the discussed aspect can result in multidimensional assistance for the grieving families. The article attempts to draw attention to the issue of suicide in social work which may result in an enhanced awareness of suicide among social workers and society in light of working with a client, a family or the local community. Intersectoral partnership is unquestionably a necessary condition in undertaking work with a family experiencing grief after a death by suicide.

Key words: *intersectoral partnership, death by suicide, grief, social work, support, social work with the family, education of social workers*

Introduction

Social work aimed at supporting an individual is a multifaceted and interdisciplinary process which requires extensive knowledge. A social worker often encounters the various critical moments of their clients. The need for preparing social workers for working with grieving people especially in the face of the loss of a relation or a death by suicide is one of the neglected aspects of intervention work. A death by suicide, which is often not accepted socially, stigmatises the family and conditions its functioning in society. A social worker needs to gain extensive knowledge on how to assist a family as well as provide them with some 'institutional support' in light of the growing number of suicides of not only adults but also adolescents. It seems that only intersectoral support within the discussed aspect can result in multidimensional assistance for the grieving families.

The article attempts to draw attention to the issue of suicide in social work which may result in an enhanced awareness of suicide among social workers and society in light of working with a client, a family or the local community. Intersectoral partnership is unquestionably a necessary condition in undertaking work with a family experiencing grief after a death by suicide.

Death by suicide: social taboo – a silent cry of despair

Death by suicide—a silent cry of despair, calling for help which remains socially unanswered—anguish of existence and grief of loss. Human tragedies and an unanswered question ‘why?’ The phenomenon of suicide has always fascinated researchers. There have been many attempts at determining what a death by suicide is, and what are its conditions and reasons. Suicide is described in the literature of the topic as an intentional act of self-destruction, a murder, a reluctance to live (Stukan 2008: 21–23). Death by suicide has been culturally conditioned and has become a way of solving problems, escaping from pain, a protest against the inevitability of death, a free choice of the location and method of departing this life (Holyst 1983: 32–33). It is estimated that worldwide, approximately 3000 people die at their own hands, while 1500 people attempt suicide (Jarosz 1997: 54). Accordingly, every 40 seconds somebody commits suicide, and every 3 seconds somebody attempts suicide (The World Health Organization 2003: 9). Global statistics are alarming with respect to the increasing number of suicides, especially among youth and more often, also among children. Police Headquarters have reported that 1920 more suicides were reported in 2013 than in 2012. Thus, there was an immense increase in the number of deaths by suicide in 2013, the largest in the period of the past ten years. So far, the number of attempts at suicide did not exceed six thousand until 2013 when it reached 6.1 thousand (Matusiak, Kinasiewicz 2013). It should be pointed out that apart from the statistics there is a dark number of suicides which are often covered up and concealed for many different reasons. The most common reason for concealing suicides is social condemnation and incomprehension of self-destructive acts. Socially unaccepted acts of self-destruction burden and stigmatise relatives who are in mourning. According to police statistics conducted in Poland, in recent years the main reasons for death by suicide have been mental illness (app. 1000 deaths annually), family conflicts (app. 600 deaths annually) and economic conditions (app. 400 deaths annually) (www.statystyka.policja.pl). Other frequent causes of suicides are chronic illnesses (app. 400 deaths annually) and love disappointment (app. 300 deaths annually) as well as a sudden loss of source of income (app. 200 deaths annually) (Policja, <http://statystyka.policja.pl/st/wybrane-statystyki/samobojstwa>). It is worth pointing out that more men commit suicide; whereas more attempts at suicides are reported among women (www.statystyka.policja.pl). It can be concluded that suicide is not always a conscious choice of a person resigning from life in a responsible way. Deaths by suicide are most often a call for help, the last silent cry of a person who is left with their own problems, despair and difficulties which they cannot handle themselves. The act of self-destruction becomes a call for help, a struggle to be noticed and request for a better future. Suicide becomes a form of disapproval for an unsatisfactory life. Eventually, it is the failure of an individual who is burdened with tears, unhappiness and protest. A person who chooses death by suicide perceives life as a boundless void, a senseless existence and suicide becomes a form of existential anguish relief, often physical pain relief, and the end of frustrations, dreams and aspirations. In all these cases suicide is an immense tragedy of an individual regardless of the fact if the decision was made spontaneously or was a long process. It is often said that mentally weak people who cannot deal with difficulties commit suicides and death is the only possible solution.

Suicide is the symptom of various problems that a person is forced to face. Social, mental, familial and often personal issues are the source of losing the will to live. Undoubtedly, people who choose suicide are lonely, isolated, and misunderstood and thus have relationship problems. Paradoxically, social loneliness becomes the source of human tragedies since people who consider suicide seek help in society. According to Erwin Ringel who quotes Alfred Adler, "suicide is an individual problem but it has its social causes" (Ringel 1987: 113). Man is a social being living in a specific system of roles. Individual decisions apart from its personal influence also have a social impact on our family and neighbourhood as well as school and professional circles. Our decisions always affect other people directly, whether we want it or not. It is especially very visible in the context of death by suicide. The act of self-destruction always carries some social consequences. Death by suicide is not only an immense trauma for the family, close relations, circle of friends and acquaintances, but also for school, work and local communities. One should remember that "no-one is a lonely island. Everyone is a piece of a continent, an element of a larger whole. The death of another person also concerns me since I am a part of humanity. Therefore one should never ask for whom the time has come as it has come for you" (Ringel 1992: 111). The thread which connects all the people has a great meaning in the process of social support. One should remember that no-one should be left alone and the issue of suicide is a social concern which should be discussed openly and aloud. It cannot be a taboo and society ought to be ready to support people who see no other solution than death. It has been estimated that eight out of ten suicides have openly expressed their intentions (Crisis intervention in the case of suicide). Unfortunately, society, family or acquaintances were not open to their cries for help which soon became the silent cries of despair.

Failed attempts at suicide often clearly indicate their intention in the social sphere in many different ways. They often express them openly, sometimes as a joke and eventually more often on the Internet where anonymity offers a sense of security and feeling of being understood. Thus, it is easier to communicate one's intentions since the interlocutors are separated by a screen and they can switch off anytime without any consequences. However, seeking understanding is a cry for social acceptance and support in difficult circumstances that one cannot handle. Psychopathological reasons for suicide are widely discussed in the literature of the topic. Psychology and psychiatry have been searching for the causes of suicide and it appears that depression is the most common one. Sociologists point out that psychological and psychiatric factors may contribute to death by suicide but do not determine it directly. Psychopathological factors do not depend on social or environmental ones. According to research, acts of self-destruction are often determined by the social circumstances of a failed attempt at suicide. The feeling of belonging, or the lack of it, is the key factor that socially condition suicide (Sobkowiak 2011: 55-56). Social support which is provided to the person in a suicidal crisis decreases the risk of death by suicide through regaining the sense of security. The feeling of social acceptance and understanding is one of the ways of restoring hope and the will to live to those who have lost them.

Death by suicide results in various unpleasant social consequences; grieving family and friends, a lack of understanding from the closest community evoke guilt and

social stigmatisation. Grief, a lack of sympathy, and remorse make people feel stigmatised. According to research, one-third of the relatives of victims of suicide experience social condemnation (Sobkowiak 2011: 56). The lack of sound knowledge and prophylactic actions results in fears and rejection of suicide from the social discourse. Thus, people do not know how to react when faced with an act of self-destruction and they fail to talk to or support the relatives of a victim of suicide. Unfamiliar issues always evoke fear and aversion in social life. Therefore, the grieving families of victims of suicide are often left alone with their nurturing questions. This often leads to another social phenomenon called 'suicidal tradition.' Families that have experienced death by suicide or an attempt at suicide often resort to suicide when faced with difficult problems. It is often caused by inheriting the pathological ways of dealing with difficult situations that cause chronic stress. Increasing tensions and family patterns often lead to suicidal tradition in subsequent generations. Research shows that the percentage of death by suicide is even three times higher in families which have already experienced suicide (Sobkowiak 2011: 32).

Having analysed the literature of the topic and empirical research, one can observe that death by suicide leads to destructive results among individuals and society. Suicide disturbs social rules concerning the value and meaning of life, ruins family life and stigmatises the relatives of a victim of suicide.

'In the frozen frame' – the grieving family after a death by suicide

Death, regardless of whether it comes unexpectedly or we have time to get accustomed to it, is always an immense shock. The loss of a close, beloved person is the most traumatic, upsetting and devastating experience in the life of every person. It is an experience which leaves a mark and which we can only learn to live with. Natural disbelief, lack of acceptance and sorrow become the natural reaction to death and the main obstacle is to accept it. Coming to terms with the loss of a relative is a long process which depends on the individual personality traits of the person who experiences it. Suicide is always shocking for relatives and the local community. Everybody keeps questioning 'why' it happened. People tend to focus on the deceased and often forget about their relatives who are left in sorrow and often also in guilt. Death by suicide is an immense anguish, a cry of despair, miscomprehension and a situation which becomes 'a frozen frame'. According to Edwin Shneidman, one of the most renowned American suicidologists, 'the person who takes their own life leaves their psychological skeleton in the emotional cupboard of those who remain. They condemn them to many negative feelings and what is more for obsessive thinking if they were really guilty of their suicide death or if they could have done something to prevent it' (Krysińska 2013). In the case of death by suicide the relatives most often do not accept the main cause of death. They deny it and explain it as an accident or participation of some third parties (Krysińska 2013). Denial and suppression of death by suicide is most often caused by shame, fear and a lack of social understanding. Stigmatisation strongly disturbs social support and comprehension as well as reinforces family isolation, thus disturbing the process of mourning (Krysińska 2013).

The literature of the topic offers a variety of studies which discuss the process and stages of mourning. Helen Alexander points out five basic stages of mourning which include: shock, searching, anger, depression and acceptance (Alexander 2001: 9). It should be highlighted that mourning is an individual process which is experienced depending on the psycho-physical characteristics of an individual. The stages of mourning only outline and organise the period of sorrow and trauma after the loss of a relative. The stages can merge and last longer, thus everyone experiences them in their own individual manner. Mourning as a long process may undergo some pathological changes which depend on such factors as relationship with the deceased or the type of death. It is stressed in the literature of the topic that death by suicide significantly disturbs the process and can even affect its pathological character (Herbert 2005: 36).

Death by suicide of a relative is often an immense shock for the family and close relatives who often cannot accept the fact and its causes. Denial of a death by suicide is the first sign of the prolonged process of mourning which may turn into a pathological stage detrimental to the sufferer. This stage is accompanied by shame and fear of social incomprehension. Stigmatisation of the family of a victim of suicide results in isolation and a lack of social support which intensifies stress and frustration among the relations. It evokes remorse, guilt and leads to seeking the guilty ones (Krysińska 2013). The lack of inner peace and support as well as seeking the answer 'why?' cause that the grieving person after a death by suicide cannot go through the further stages of psychological mourning. They linger in the sense of a lack of security and misunderstanding and rejection as well as anger at the suicide, often not realising the need for professional help in the process of mourning. The lives of the relatives of victims of suicide are often compared to a 'frozen frame' from the moment when they were informed about the tragedy. Teeming emotions, thoughts, questions and anger become an obstacle on the way to accept the situation against their will and turning a new leaf in life, in a new reality and with some new experiences.

Coming to terms with a death by suicide requires a high level of self-awareness and should include some professional support. Multidimensional support for the family experiencing the death of a relative is a fundamental condition of an attempt to come back to 'normal life.' The family should be provided with the knowledge and experience of specialists in the fields of theology, psychology, medicine, psychiatry, social work as well as the support of family and friends. Willingness to make an effort to work with people experiencing grief after death by suicide is a sign of social support. Readiness to undertake a difficult topic and the social commitment to handle the issue which is more and more affecting children and adolescents. Accompanying people who are in mourning after a death by suicide, is one of the best things we can offer them without any unnecessary questions, intrigue or speculations. It is worth knowing that "although the beloved person wanted to die, we did not want it and that is why we have the right to bewail them" (Alexander 2001: 161).

Let us give a helping hand – intersectoral partnership for the family in mourning after a death by suicide

The trauma experienced after a suicidal death of a relative is severe and often leaves a distinctive impression for the rest of their lives. People often do not know how to handle the grief, anguish and teeming questions which may remain unanswered. The period of mourning is difficult and demanding in their everyday and often lonely lives. Mourning is a crisis situation and not everyone can handle it using their familiar methods of coping with difficult or stressful situations. One should then resort to support from experienced specialists. The Act on Social Assistance of 12 March 2004 describes the responsibilities of the social welfare system in terms of supporting people experiencing crisis situations such as accidents. In accordance with the act, every citizen is entitled to assistance in the form of crisis intervention or specialised counselling (The Act on Social Assistance from 12 March 2004). In light of a death by suicide it seems that social welfare and institutions which support the sector should focus on two vital issues. Namely, with respect to suicide prevention and the multidimensional support provided to families experiencing grief after a death by suicide. Currently, having observed and analysed the work of the Polish social aid system in relation to working with a family with a suicidal problem, one may conclude that the system is not prepared to provide support for the family in crisis as a result of a suicide. The issue of death by suicide has been marginalised and social workers are not equipped with the knowledge nor the skills necessary to support families in crisis after a death by suicide or an attempt at suicide. The system lacks not only the preventive action which can limit the number of self-destructive actions, but social services personnel is also short of the skills necessary to work with families experiencing the death by suicide of a relative. Therefore social workers providing support to families in crisis situations ought to be educated more extensively. Thanks to this, assistance for families in mourning after a death by suicide and actions aimed at limiting the phenomenon would be provided in a more intentional and professional way.

Another vital issue in working with a family in mourning after a death by suicide is an integrated and complete support system provided by various institutions both in the public and private, as well as nongovernmental sectors. The three sectors cooperating with one another as a form of partnership may contribute to the improvement of suicide prevention and to supporting grieving families. The process of mourning after a death by suicide and 'healing' are time-consuming and they demand the integrated effort of various specialists. Nowadays, the social assistance system is not capable of meeting the requirements of this group. Thus, a partnership of public and nongovernmental sectors in terms of supporting mourning families would enable the organisation of a range of actions aimed at this group of clients. Nongovernmental organisations, which often specialise in assisting some specific groups of clients, could complement actions undertaken by public sector organisations. Another advantage of public and private sectors partnership is that nongovernmental organisations are often better prepared to conduct actions which also belong to the public sector, such as supporting people in crisis or undertaking educational and prophylactic actions. Moreover, they have some well-equipped spaces at their disposal, as well as experienced, passionate and committed

specialists in various fields willing to work voluntarily for the sake of some specific target groups. An individual approach to clients, commitment, authenticity and previously mentioned selflessness show such organisations in favourable light compared to public system organisations (Wenclik 2009: 26–27). Furthermore, nongovernmental organisations have access to greater financial support and various ways of obtaining it which are often inaccessible in the public sector (Wenclik 2009: 26–27). Nongovernmental organisations have a broader knowledge of local communities than social assistance organisations which enables them to extensive support for families in mourning. The context of social conditioning in the local environment is one of the main elements of support for the families in mourning after a death by suicide. Nongovernmental institutions have greater social trust, access people in need more easily, and have a stronger effect on people. That is why every effort should be made to win new advocates of partnership between the public and private sectors. Partnership in terms of supporting grieving families would make it possible to organise more systematic and institutionalised ways of intersectoral cooperation. Undertakings such as support groups, advisory groups, educational actions, training, as well as social campaigns on the topic of suicide would support grieving families at different stages of trauma and crisis resulting from the suicidal acts of relatives. Public and private sector partnership can take place on different levels within society which enables the direct accessing of people in need. Extensive cooperation can be conducted within districts, voivodeships or nationwide which makes the process both individual and also affecting the whole of society which is one of the elements of influencing self-destructive behaviours (Wenclik 2009: 26–27). Public administration should gain from the potential of nongovernmental institutions and cooperate at every stage including planning, preparation and undertaking actions. Ignoring the perspective of the nongovernmental sector in handling social issues and supporting clients in crisis situations may result in conflicts with the public sector. This may lead to some negative initiatives that affect people in need who cannot handle their problems themselves.

Recently, the partnership and cooperation of public, private and nongovernmental sectors has been widely emphasised. Although it may seem that the private sector is reluctant to get involved in any undertakings connected with the issue of suicide, it could not be further from the truth. Partnership with the private sector is aimed at cooperation that serves some public interest. “The aim of the cooperation is some mutual benefits in the social and commercial context of an undertaking” (Wenclik 2009: 21). In light of some dreadful statistics that show an increase in the number of deaths by suicide in 2013, as well as the reasons behind the phenomenon, it seems that private sector could support the undertakings of the public and nongovernmental sectors. The research shows that a significant increase in the number of suicides affects the unemployed at the age of 50+ (Matusiak, Kinasiewicz 2013). “Economic crises and the unwillingness of private sector, namely employers and entrepreneurs, toward this age group affect the growing number of suicides among the population. Unemployment, old age, and social marginalisation in professional life lead to chronic stress, increasing financial problems of the whole family, and a decreased standard of living. As a result, a majority of men decide that

the only reasonable solution is taking their own lives. According to research published in September 2013 in British Medical Journal, the economic crash of 2008, which led to a growth in the unemployment rate, resulted in five thousand 'additional' deaths by suicide in Europe and the USA in 2009. Researchers from universities in Oxford, Bristol and Hong Kong compared the number of suicides during the economic crisis and prior using data from fifty-four countries. Similar research had been conducted earlier after an Asian economic crash from 1997. According to the estimated data ten thousand more people took their own lives after an economic crash only in Japan, Hong Kong and South Korea compared to times of economic prosperity" (Matusiak, Kinasiewicz 2013). It turns out that we can also witness a similar phenomenon in Poland. Engaging the private sector into extensive actions of suicide prevention and support for families in crisis after a death by suicide would be an ideal solution in extensive suicide prevention.

Public and private sector partnership aimed at some new solutions concerning employment of people excluded from the labour market would be a part of a prevention and social support scheme. Each institution would maintain its individual character while at the same time would cooperate to achieve some common goals.

Intersectoral partnership to support a family experiencing a death by suicide may result in the improvement of cooperation for the sake of families and people who grieve after a death by suicide. Some integrated actions of the public and private sector as well as nongovernmental institutions may create a supporting system for families. Due to this, grieving people who undergo a crisis will not experience a sense of social isolation and rejection which is an essential element in the process of overcoming a crisis. Only intersectoral partnership offers an opportunity for preparing an integrated support system of all institutions in terms of such a social phenomenon as the number of deaths by suicide grows.

Death by suicide should no longer be a taboo, and society should take some partial responsibility for the people who have decided to take their own lives. Having encountered some difficulties, frustrations and a lack of perspectives, having sought social support without success, having been rejected by society, they have been left alone and have thus chosen death.

Bibliography

- Alexander H. (2001), *Doświadczenie żałoby różne rodzaje śmierci, różne typy żałoby*, „W drodze”, Poznań 2001, ISBN 8370333664
- Jarosz M. (1997), *Samobójstwa*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8301124482.
- Herbert M. (2005), *Żałoba w rodzinie. Jak pomóc cierpiącym dzieciom i ich rodzinom*, GWP Gdańsk, ISBN 836008324X.
- Hołyst B. (1983), *Samobójstwo przypadek czy konieczność*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8301047186.
- Ringel E. (1987), *Gdy życie traci sens. Rozważania o samobójstwie*, „Głęb”, Szczecin, ISBN 8370071317.
- Ringel E. (1992), *Nerwica a samozniszczenie*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8301106697.
- Stukan J. (2008), *Diagnoza ryzyka samobójstwa*, „Prometeusz”, Opole, ISBN 9788391522219.

Wenclik M. (2009) *Sfera publiczna i prywatna – interakcje*, [in:] M. Perkowski (ed). *Partnerstwo międzysektorowe. Możliwości, zasady, realizacja*, Fundacja Prawo i Partnerstwo, Białystok, ISBN 9788392942146.

Crisis intervention in the case of suicide, www.e-cochaczew.pl/pliki/samobojstwa.pdf, date access: 4.11.2013.

Krysińska K. (2013), *Żałoba po śmierci samobójczej*, www.dracus.eu/cmspl/item/227, date access: 4.11.2013.

Matusiak W., Kinasiewicz A. (2013), *Mężczyźni pod presją*, http://m.wyborcza.pl/wyborcza/1,105226,15713588,2013__rekord_samobojstw__Meczczyni_pod_presja.html, date access: 1.05.2014.

Policja, <http://statystyka.policja.pl/st/wybrane-statystyki/samobojstwa>, date access: 4.04.2014.

Sobkowiak M. (2011), *Przeciwdziałanie zachowaniom suicydalnym w pracy socjalnej*, Publikatornia, Gorzów Wielkopolski, www.ksiegarnia publikatornia.pl/ksiazka/Mariusz-Sobkowiak/przeciwdzialanie-zachowaniom-suicydalnym-w-pracy-socjalnej/628.html, date access: 4.04.2014.

The Act on Social Assistance from 12 March 2004 (Gazette no. 64, position 593), <http://www.google.pl/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&ved=0CCwQFjAA&url=http%3A%2F%2Fisap.sejm.gov.pl%2FDownload%3Fid%3DWDU20040640593%26type%3D3&ei=qSV2U4XvCOaf7ga-4YD4Cg&usg=AFQjCNHshb4mE1RtoThM35bw23r3Yt8YYg&bvm=bv.66699033,d.ZGU>, date access 12.05.2013.

The World Health Organization (2003), Polish Suicidological Society, *Preventing suicides a manual for basic health care workers*, Geneva – Warsaw (Folia).

Multi-professional Support of Families Through Cooperation of a Non-Governmental Organisation with the Public Sector: Advantages and Risks

Izabela Krasiejko, Lidia Zeller

Abstract

The purpose of this article is to present principles and forms of multi-professional family support in a local community, along with its advantages and potential threats. Also described are examples of projects executed by the non-governmental organization Stowarzyszenie na rzecz pomocy dziecku i rodzinie DLA RODZINY in Częstochowa [Association for the Child and Family Support FOR FAMILY in Czestochowa] in cooperation with the public sector.

Key words: social service, multi-professional social work, social welfare centre

Introduction

The purpose of this article is to present principles and forms of multi-professional family support in a local community, along with its advantages and potential threats. Also described are examples of projects executed by the non-governmental organization Stowarzyszenie na rzecz pomocy dziecku i rodzinie DLA RODZINY in Częstochowa [Association for the Child and Family Support FOR FAMILY in Czestochowa] in cooperation with the public sector.

Multi-professional activities of social services – key terms and definitions

Social services provide assistance for families struggling with difficulties they are unable to overcome by themselves. To properly understand what social services are, it is helpful to consider the word “service”. When we talk about service, we think about performing duties supporting the set of rules adopted by the society. The word “service” for a long time has been, and still is used in the context of (among others) the military, police forces, fire department, or religious ministrations. The same term is used to describe social service, traffic and road maintenance service, technical, municipal, and rescue services, etc., providing these institutions with greater credibility and respect, as they perform important public and social duties. “Service” also means devoting oneself to a certain cause, idea, or the greater good (Gerstenkorn 2014). Therefore, all activities and duties supporting, protecting, and assisting groups or individuals in various aspects of life can be described as service—especially when those groups or individuals would be unable to otherwise provide for themselves (Gerstenkorn 2014). In the context of socio-pedagogical work with families, especially when bureaucratic institutions such as individual branches of social services are involved, additional precautions need to be taken to ensure the proper character of the assistance provided. Institutional formalism needs to be abandoned in favour of cooperation and subsidiarity (Liciński 2012a).

In literature on the subject, the meaning of “social service” was widely established by J. Rosner as “all institutions and organisations working in the field of social policy” (Rosner 1979: 25). K. Wódcz in turn describes social services as “the organisational structures of environmental social help”, (Wódcz 1996: 43) providing a much narrower focus of the term. For the purpose of this article we use the definition created by M. Porowski (1999: 270), who describes social service as “a network of officially or functionally interconnected or complimentary institutions, non-governmental organisations, informal task groups, or individuals who, due to professional duty, voluntary work, or by their own volition and at their own expense, and to the extent of their competence and under supervision of law or their conscience only, work with the purpose of aiding individuals and social groups in regaining their self-esteem, avoiding the effects of helplessness, or regaining the capability to function in society through properly selected efforts to support, relieve, protect, rehabilitate and correct, and creating macro-structural and environmental conditions required for achieving these goals”.

According to this definition, any group or any individual sensitive to human misery, and working to enhance the living conditions of society, acting on behalf of institutions and organisations performing social or pedagogical services for groups or individuals (families, elders, disabled, orphans, former convicts, single mothers, families affected by alcoholism or violence, etc.) can be defined as a “social service”. This includes social workers, family assistants, foster care coordinators, court-appointed caseworkers, school counsellors, career counsellors, police officers, etc. (Szatur-Jaworska 2010: 9) Two types of services can be distinguished: institutionalised services, which include the governmental system of social care, charities, foundations, or aid groups; and non-institutionalised services, which include: help from relatives, neighbours, or informal aid groups (Smykowska 2007: 25–26).

Multi-professional social work targeted at a certain category of clients (e.g. a family) is based on the cooperation of professionals from different fields, which allows a better chance of achieving common goals, including both goals pursued by the family in question and those required by institutions (e.g. the court of law). This is achieved through joint arrangements and the division of work between the family members and representatives of various aid groups during scheduled meetings. The purpose of these meetings, which include professionals from different fields, is to exchange information, assess the situation, create a work plan, analyse the problem, implement the plan, and evaluate the results. C. Robertis (1998: 238–241) describes four forms of the cooperation of social workers: communication, coordination, teamwork, and consultation.

Social workers communicate (through mail, telephone, or during face-to-face meetings) to exchange information about their clients, and learn about the steps taken by other institutions.

The purpose of coordination is to develop an accurate analysis of the situation, perform an operational assessment, and create a plan of action during a meeting with the family members and a group of professionals. While working with families who struggle with multiple issues, it is often necessary to employ professionals from different fields, e.g. a social worker, family assistant, health visitor, court-appointed

caseworker, school counsellor, or psychologist. When multiple workers try to implement their own solutions without proper coordination, conflicts of actions and expectations can appear. Joint planning allows for improved coherence and a reduced number of actions taken. During a meeting its participants perform an assessment of the family situation, determine their objectives, identify any resources and possibilities available to the family, and plan activities best suited to achieving the chosen goals. Subsequent meetings are devoted to an assessment of the completed actions and the planning of future ones (Krasiejko 2012). Every participant of such a meeting, regardless of their status and prestige, should have a chance to express their opinion – otherwise no true coordination is possible. Special attention should be paid by the person conducting the meeting to ensure that at least half of the available time is devoted to the second stage of the meeting, i.e. searching for solutions. C. Robertis (1998: 239) classifies coordination as an indirect action - conducted in the clients' absence. However, it is worth noting that the presence of the family during these meetings has many advantages. Family members have an opportunity to express their own assessment of their situation, as well as create their own solutions, evaluate the suggestions of other social servants, express their willingness and readiness, and describe possibilities of taking advantage of institutional resources offered to them by social workers (Mróz, Krasiejko 2011: 63–80).

Teamwork is the next method mentioned by C. Robertis (1998: 239–240). In opposition to coordination meetings, which are held when needed, teamwork is based on regular meetings involving a group of professionals working in the area (district, municipality, or city). Teamwork meetings focus not only on clients, but also on workers – their knowledge of the latest developments in legislation, plans for long-term cooperation, or conducted research (e.g. action research). Teamwork allows for a deeper analysis and confrontation of opinions. Team members make decisions concerning the division of duties and responsibilities. This method of work is used to solve problems affecting not only a single client, but a whole segment of the population, e.g. families facing multiple problems, families affected by violence, the homeless, young people leaving foster care institutions, etc.

Teamwork requires the adoption of a specific structure of action: keeping a schedule of meetings and ensuring they are conducted regularly and are of sufficient length. It is not an easy method. The institutionalised structure of a team can lead to conflicts motivated by rivalry, the overbearing nature of high-status team members, shifting responsibilities of one profession onto the members of another, fear of expressing one's opinion, being judged by others, or not receiving proper recognition.

The last method, consultation, requires asking for the opinion of an expert in a given field – a social worker with greater professional experience or an expert in a field unknown to a social worker, e.g. a lawyer or psychiatrist.

According to E. Jarosz (2008: 372; Kantowicz 2010: 139–148), the actual implementation of a multi-professional, cross-sectoral approach requires specific conditions.

One of the most crucial ones is that all of those participating in the system, all its elements and subjects, share a clear vision of their joint activity as well as the phenomena this activity pertains to, and understand the benefits and the need for conducting cross-sectoral cooperation. Reinforcing local resources, presenting the positive effects of cooperation, monitoring activities (e.g. through mass media) and their evaluation—these are all important principles of multi-professional cooperation. Reaching to traditions of social pedagogy, e.g. according to the “manpower” theory, while activating social institutions to pedagogic activities we need to take into account the components that are potentially active i.e. human resources: well-prepared and expertly trained staff and volunteers (Kantowicz 2010).

In the context of working with families, the concept of multi-professional support allows for a better implementation of the pedagogic process and building a shared responsibility for the upbringing of the younger generation. E. Jarosz believes that “the integration and cooperation of sector activity—their agendas and professionals—should be implemented on all levels, i.e. not only the level of individual families (a child) but on the level of all local activities” (Jarosz 2008: 376).

Speaking about the activation and integration of social institutions in an environment of family life in the context of multi-professional support, we can enumerate those entities and institutions which are currently able to participate in joint activities through the work of competent and committed professionals. These are:

- 1) social welfare institutions diagnosing and supporting the family environment of families affected by unemployment, poverty, disability, single parenthood, alcoholism, violence, and other dysfunctions;
- 2) care and education institutions, especially daycare facilities organising compensatory, therapeutic, and recreational activities affected by, or in danger of being affected by, social exclusion;
- 3) schools;
- 4) family courts and juvenile courts which intervene into the family environment via court-appointed caseworkers;
- 5) non-governmental organisations specialising in family welfare and organising assistance for children with special needs;
- 6) clinics offering psychological and pedagogical help (as well as other specialist clinics for children, teenagers, and parents) able to properly diagnose children/students displaying intellectual giftedness, developmental deficits, or social maladjustment;
- 7) local authorities and governmental bodies creating specific policies (including the sphere of education) and are able to financially and organisationally support institutional initiatives, and monitor specific projects in the given environment (Jarosz 2008);
- 8) police, churches, and other institutions undertaking preventive, pedagogical, and educational projects;
- 9) mass media, which is able to undertake informational and educational activities or promote other institutions and help them raise health and education awareness (Kantowicz 2010: 146-148);
- 10) healthcare facilities, clinics, and specialist clinics.

Advantages and risks of multi-professional actions targeted at families

A stable system of social care requires two sources of support. One of them is a base of professionals (social workers, family assistants, psychologists, therapists, and counsellors), as situations in which many of the clients find themselves require professional help and therapy. The other one is the implementation of work methods that utilise the strengths of the client and their social environment. The use of multidisciplinary teams, family assistants, therapists, is vital—but we should take care not to surround the client in layer upon layer of social workers, “the instruments of active integration”, effectively removing the client from the equation. We do not want to follow in the footsteps of some interdisciplinary teams who engage multiple professionals, all proposing new solutions to the clients’ situation—while the clients themselves are sitting in their homes, blissfully ignorant of the fact that they are the subject of a discussion. The area of social, pedagogical, or therapeutic work should first and foremost be the client. It is the client who is supposed to handle the difficult situation—social workers are there just to provide support (Przeperski, Krasiejko 2011: 38–40).

Most of the tasks that social workers engage in to assist the client are based around three points: diagnosis, solution, motivation (usually externally) of the client to implement the solution proposed by the professionals based on their expertise. Engaging the client is an essential part of working with families. To this day many social workers find it hard to believe solutions can be reached through working together with families. Cooperation requires time, patience, and understanding: both for different points of view and for the fact that clients live in the context of their family. It is easier for social workers to reach for techniques of manipulation such as: hiding their real intentions, not informing the client about their rights, conspiring with members of other services in order to force the client to do something they might not yet be ready to do. Also: imposing a one-sided social contract full of arbitrary demands which the assisted person often does not understand and does not accept, and presenting them with a skewed, overly positive view of the proposed solution without revealing the actual cost they entail, as well as playing on the clients ambition, pressing them into making a decision, shaming them, and instilling a sense of guilt. Other methods of manipulation include: creating coalitions with some family members against the others, or disclosing information obtained in confidence to other family members or social service workers (Liciński 2012b).

The clients themselves are often not particularly interested in seeking solutions on their own, and instead wait for the social worker's initiative—a situation especially common while creating contracts. Clients are passive, because their opinion is seldom asked for. They are not accustomed to self-reflection, to forming their own opinions, searching for solutions, or taking responsibility for their actions. They clearly have expectations of the system—“You want to help me, give me a solution”. Therefore it is necessary to maximise the possibilities of finding new solutions.

A valuable methodological proposal is the solution-centred approach, where we start by analysing the client’s strong points and those moments in their lives when they did not struggle with the problem or managed to resolve it by themselves. The

family is invited to a meeting along with a multi-professional team and together they try to come up with a way to overcome the difficult situation. While working, it is important to take clients' goals into account, to ask them what they want and need, how they imagine their future life, to compare their current situation with their expectations, to inform how we, as social workers, can help them to achieve what they want for themselves, for their children, and for their whole family.

As we just demonstrated, the most crucial task of social care is to enable clients to regain control of their own lives and forego the need for institutional assistance. If we take a look at the statistics, we can clearly see that the majority of clients require assistance for many years. Adopting proper methods is essential if we want our clients to learn how to overcome the problems and hardships of everyday life. Social care has lost its way, forgetting that we should give only as much help as is really needed, no more, no less. The goal of social care is not to make social workers busy (they usually already are), but to make clients strong, active, and capable of dealing with their own problems (Liciński 2012b).

Examples of multi-professional tasks completed by The Association for the Child and Family Help "FOR FAMILY"

Non-governmental organisations are part of many non-profit organisations currently functioning on the market. The financial crisis in Poland (as well as in the rest of Europe) "forced" the rationalisation of public spending and increased the demand for new, reliable ways of satisfying the needs of the populace in individual regions. NGOs are an excellent answer to this situation. The increasing need for a reduction in expenditures created a fertile ground for non-governmental organisations tendering for public contracts—as it would for any organisation ready to contribute their own finances, human resources, office space, and—importantly—the experience gained from previous projects.

New opportunities for cooperation between local government and the third sector are appearing constantly. The cooperation is based on the principles of partnership, subsidiarity, sovereignty of the parties, efficiency, fair competition and transparency.

Local governments have more confidence in NGOs, and are more likely to trust them with tasks that not so long ago were considered possible to accomplish only by public organisations. These partnerships form the basis for the rational use of local resources, and enable further cooperation between local governments and non-governmental organisations. It is worth noting that the "opening" of local governments for cooperation with NGOs became possible thanks to the clarification and modernisation of legislature. The Act of 23 April 2003 on Public Benefit and Volunteer Work (Act of 23 April 2003) allowed for the creation of many new venues of partnership between the public and non-governmental sector. Public administration authorities operate in the field of public tasks in cooperation with NGOs. The main forms of cooperation are: commissioning NGOs for public works, consulting draft legislation concerning public tasks, mutual notification of planned directions of activity, and the creation of joint teams with advisory and initiative character (Act of 23 April 2003: art. 5)

Since 1 July 2013, as a part of open tender, Child and Family Support Association "FOR FAMILY" has been executing the project "Częstochowskie Centrum Wsparcia Rodziny" [Częstochowa Family Support Centre]. This includes the implementation of provisions of The Family Support and Foster Care Act of 9 June 2011 (Act of 9 June 2011) in the scope of both municipality and county. The Association employs family assistants, foster care coordinators, social workers, a pedagogue, and a psychologist. The association's beneficiaries are families struggling with a variety of problems that could result in the removal of children from their parents' care. The families are offered the help of a family assistant and other professionals employed by the association. Many ways of assistance are possible only through cooperation with various institutions. The increasing number of that place children in foster care can be avoided thanks to preventive measures. However, such measures require a proper understanding of the family situation and the full utilisation of all resources available to the family and local community. Great effects are achieved through the distinct separation of emotional, instrumental, and informational assistance provided by the employees of the association from purely financial help. Office space available at the centre allows for simultaneously providing support for both children and adults. Childcare is provided for parents participating in meetings (self-help groups, support groups, etc.). The Child and Family Association is also a place where parents can apply for their 'RODZINA' (FAMILY) card. Close cooperation with the social welfare centre, daycare centres, schools, the interdisciplinary team, court, medical centre, employment agency, and other non-governmental family support organisations allows the tailoring of the association's offer to the individual needs of any family.

An example of a multi-professional family support programme offered by the non-governmental organisation and the public sector is the implementation of the "Schematom STOP" (STOP Stereotypes) pilot project. The main objective of the project is to create a coordinated system of institutional cooperation with families who are at risk of social exclusion due to unemployment, who remain in permanent generational unemployment, or who lack the possibilities of becoming independent from social benefits. Additionally, the NGO tests new instruments of family activation and social integration, focusing on compatibility if influencing both families and their members, so called "programmes of family assistance, social integration, and career activation". The project involves employees of the association, representatives of the Social Welfare Centre, County Employment Agency, the Centre for Social Integration, and the municipal council. The group is divided into two teams: The County Team for Cooperation Coordination] (PZKW) and the Mobile Interdisciplinary Group (MGI). The division and planning of working together with the families involved in the project allows for the introduction of activities that will ultimately make the families more self-reliant. To achieve this, the workers focus on the strong points of families, involving its members in the process, and holding the right of self-determination and decision-making as principles. Working with families relies on the collaboration of association employees, the family in question, and other representatives involved in the project. A comprehensive look at the capabilities of a family, help in problem solving, and assistance in the consecutive stages of development can become a real

opportunity for the clients, giving them a chance for self-reliance, to change their old life-style (often based on being helped by others, having all family decisions made not by the family members, but by institutions), and ultimately resulting in their total independence from social support services.

The organisation of work during a project proceeds as follows: the team works with ten families, but each member of the team collaborates individually with one family, providing its members with vast opportunities of career and self-improvement training. With the cooperation of the County Employment Agency and the Centre for Social Integration, the client is given a chance at employment, at changing their attitude toward the institution – the institution that until now might have been seen as a source of almost totalitarian intrusion into the life of the family. The four members of the association who belong to both groups (PZKW and MGI) are very happy with their experience in the project, which is, to quote: “a dream come true” for a social worker or a family assistant. The ability to work one-on-one is very rare in social work, almost bordering on impossible.

In this project’s implementation it became clear that investing in people is a valuable investment indeed. The first results of work show that building a relationship of mutual trust allows families to open up to others and –above all– to each other. Parents initiating conversations with children and families and spending time together are the first effects of the project. The clients can confirm their own potential through searching for and applying their own solutions. Permanent employment gives them a chance of becoming self-reliant.

Of course, it is possible that some families may not wish to continue the work when they decide that, while the project has a lot to offer, it also demands consistence and persistence that the family might not yet be ready to provide at that moment.

Keeping an agreement can prove to be a challenge for some families. For that very reason the agency focuses on promoting decisiveness and decision-making so that the family feels they have control over their own lives, so they can make their own choices, as well as teaching children that they don’t have to rely on the help of social services.

It is not only the beneficiaries of the project who focus on self-reliance, but also its employees. The search for new, innovative, methods gives energy and motivation to break out of a routine of “standard actions.” We hope the project will contribute to changes in social care at the city level, proving the effectiveness of dedicated, coordinated social work based on the cross-sectoral, multi-professional collaboration of different entities.

A non-governmental organisation provides new possibilities, searches for novel approaches and ways of implementing them in future projects. The “FOR FAMILY” Association participates in many projects –one of them is “Menager życia” (“Life Manager”).

Life Manager is targeted at young people brought up by foster families or foster care institutions. Its goal is to give them opportunities of active investment in self-development and career development, relieve their fear of change, showing them

that the effort does pay, and that realising their dreams and goals is difficult but can be achieved.

The “FOR FAMILY” Association is the organiser of family foster care in Częstochowa. It employs family foster care coordinators and social workers supporting people who live or have been brought up in foster care. The Family Support Act forms the basis of their work. The activities included in “Life Manager” give a different perspective of a young person who is in the process of becoming independent, not only through the prism of the self-reliance programme, but also taking into account the real-life challenges the young person will encounter. The young person can discover their strengths and learn the value of the agency and decision-making. They are shown the benefits of „discovering the world” outside of their own neighbourhood and peer group, the importance of curiosity, learning, self-development and self-fulfilment, and searching for an interesting, attractive job. They are also being taught responsibility for their own decisions. The ‘Stowarzyszenie – Polski Komitet Pomocy Społecznej (Polish Committee for Social Welfare Association – an organisation engaged in numerous family support activities – is the leader of the project. Thanks to their experience and capabilities they gained the cooperation of the Social Welfare Centre and the “FOR FAMILY” Association.

The partnership does not prevent the individual organisations from pursuing their own activities. On the contrary – it opens up new venues and possibilities, while simultaneously assuring active participation of the young people included in the project. The atmosphere of subsidiarity and active involvement arouses young people’s curiosity and motivates them towards achieving their goals and plans.

Cross-sectoral cooperation of the “FOR FAMILIES” Association translates into all daily activities, not just those directly related with the implemented projects. It also includes a collaboration of the association’s family assistants with social workers and court-appointed caseworkers, and also collaborative work with the family and on its behalf. Flexible working hours allow the association to conduct expanded activities for children and adults, including daily access to the services of various professionals: psychologists, pedagogues, mediators, or lawyers – resulting in a higher standard and new possibilities of cooperation. The financial resources of the project can be used to diversify the offer targeted to the whole families (both biological and foster) as well as its segmentation. The association offers training courses, workshops, support groups, and family mediation not only to the families covered by the association’s support, but also to all residents of the city. It distributes publications concerning the activities carried out by the “Częstochowskie Centrum Wsparcia Rodziny,” publishes articles in the local press, conducts a wide array of activities for whole families, and engages in projects proposed by the local government and other bodies – all this while keeping a high quality and a wide scope of the offered assistance, while searching for new, fascinating solutions. Its employees continually expand their professional competences, share their experience, and reach out for the experience of others. The association focuses on cooperation and building positive relationships with representatives of other social

services who work for families and individuals (both those included in the commissioned tasks and those covered by the statutory tasks of the association).

An important aspect of the association is the fact that it was created by workers of the Social Welfare Centre in Częstochowa. Only last year those people were employees of a public institution. Today they work for the non-governmental organisation—“FOR FAMILY”. The change of employment from governmental to non-governmental means new possibilities, discarding some old fears and attitudes, and changing “I” to “we” in the context of work. Completing tasks described by The Family Support and Foster Care Act was proven to be possible. The value of experience provided by introducing their own ideas, participation in projects, opportunities for personal development, and working in a group as either partner or leader cannot be overrated. Failures do occur—not every family can achieve independence or survive as a whole, not every project can win in a tender and be carried out, but to quote Charles Darwin: “It is not the strongest of the species that survives, nor the most intelligent that survives. It is the one that is most adaptable to change”.

Let us keep our eyes open for new, better, possibilities. Let’s believe in ourselves, let’s give ourselves a chance (Manager Kariery).

In conclusion, it is difficult for a single social service to resolve the difficulties of families struggling with multiple issues. The cooperation of a team of specialists in various fields has a greater chance of success. It should be kept in mind that the problem of being helpless is also the problem of not being listened to—it is a problem of people whose needs, wishes, and opinions are not taken seriously. The assistance that is given to them, or even forced on them, does not meet their expectations, making permanent changes to their situation that are much more difficult. The task of social workers is to learn what the needs of their clients are, expanding the institutional solutions by those provided by the client, giving the client a choice, reinforcing their clients’ confidence, and giving them the means to control this process. Social services are meant to initiate change, support families temporarily, and when they are most needed—but they should also be able to withdraw when their clients have already regained their strength and control over their own lives.

Bibliography

Gerstenkorn T. (2014), *Zapomniana służba społeczna [Forgotten Social Service]*, Aspektpolski.pl from

http://aspektpolski.pl/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=6322&Itemid=168, date access 12.03.2014.

Jarosz E. (2008), *Ochrona dzieci przed krzywdzeniem. Perspektywa globalna i lokalna [Protecting Children From Harm. A Global and Local Perspective]*, UŚ, Katowice, ISBN 9788322617830.

Kantowicz E. (2010), *Koncepcja multiprofesjonalnego wsparcia dziecka w środowisku szkoły-szanse i bariery [The Concept of Multiprofessional Child Assistance in the School Environment. Possibilities and Barriers.]*, [in:] J. Surzykiewicz, M. Kulesza (eds.), *Ciągłość i zmiana w edukacji szkolnej – społeczne i wychowawcze obszary napięć [Continuity and Change in School Education – Areas of Social and Pedagogic Tensions]*, UŁ, Łódź, ISSN02086336, ISBN 9788375254075.

- Krasiejko I. (2012), *Metodyka działania asystenta rodziny. Różne modele pracy z rodziną* [*Methodology of Family Assistance. Various Models of Work With Families*], „Śląsk”, Katowice, ISBN 9788371646119.
- Liciński M. (2012a), *Asysta rodzinna* [*Family Assistance*], , from <http://www.przeciwubostwu.brpo.gov.pl/pliki/1226049987.pdf> date access 11.12.2012.
- Liciński M. (2012b), *Przemoc w pomocy* [*Violence in Help*], http://www.frs.pl/docs/pwp_przemoc_w_pomocy_-_marek_licinski.pdf date access: 20.11.2012.
- Manager Kariery, <http://managerkariery.pl>, date access: 4.04.2014.
- Mróz M., Krasiejko I. (2011), *Asystent rodziny w roli koordynatora zespołu interdyscyplinarnego* [*Family Assistant Acting as a Interdisciplinary Team Coordinator*], „Praca Socjalna” 6, ISSN 08603480.
- Porowski M. (1999), *Służba społeczna* [*Social Service*], [in:] D. Lalak, T. Pilch (eds.), *Elementarne pojęcia pedagogiki społecznej i pracy socjalnej* [*Elementary Definitions in Social Pedagogy and Social Work*], „Żak”, Warsaw, ISBN 8388149121.
- Przeperski J. Krasiejko I. (2011), *Od bezradności do samodzielności – o nowym paradygmacie pracy z rodziną* [*From Helplessness to Independence – A New Paradigm of Work With Familij*], „Problemy Społeczne” 5, ISSN 17306361.
- Robertis de C. (1998), *Metodyka działania w pracy socjalnej* [*Methodology of Social Work*], „Śląsk”, Katowice, ISBN 8370604439.
- Rosner J. (1979), *Polityka społeczna w pracy socjalnej* [*Social Policy in Social Work*], IW CRZZ, Warsaw.
- Smykowska D. (2007), *Institucje wsparcia społecznego* [*Institutions of Social Assistance*], WNWSI, Lodz, ISBN 8360282013, 9788360282014
- Szatur-Jaworska B. (ed.) (2010), *Ewaluacja w służbach społecznych* [*Evaluation in Social Services*], PCPS, Warsaw, ISBN 9788391810040, 9788391810046.
- The Act of 23 April 2003 on Public Benefit and Volunteer Work, 2003, no. 98, position 873.
- The Act of 9 June 2011 on Family Support and Foster Care, 2011, no. 149, position 887.
- Wódcz K. (1996), *Praca socjalna w środowisku zamieszkania* [*Social Work in the Place of Residence*], Interart, Warsaw, ISBN 8370604331.

The Authority of a Regional Governing Body and Its Relationship with the Social Environment in a Local Development Sphere

Bożena Tuziak

Abstract

The aspect of the function of a regional governing body's authority in the process of local development is a multi-faceted and difficult to empirically recognise research area. Methodological problems emerge from the fact that authority is a complex phenomenon, conditioned by numerous factors, determined by evaluative and motivational processes taking place in individual and group thinking. The authority is connected through a system of complex relationships and conditions with many other social phenomena, such as: power, prestige, leadership, influence, reliance, social capital, values and standards. This is why it is difficult to show precise results of the aspect of authority in specific research. Taking into consideration the various possibilities of empirical conceptualisation of the aspect of a governing body's authority in the context of a local society's development it has been deemed that in such a case it is correct – from a methodological and empirical point of view – to categorise the authority as a relationship between a subject (a person or an institution) and the social environment attributing that authority to the subject. Such a perspective on authority is linked with the awareness of the fact, that the aspect of authority appears in more complex forms and it is very frequently classified as an attribute, value, social attitude, impact and function. To sum up, a total number of 756 people were surveyed in Podkarpackie county. In this paper are presented only the part of the quantitative result, which pertain to the relationship and cooperation between local authorities and social environment as far as activity focused on development is concerned.

Key words: regional governing body, local development, parishes, financial possibilities, management style

Introduction

The aspect of the function of a regional governing body's authority in the process of local development is a multi-faceted and difficult to empirically recognise research area. Methodological problems emerge from the fact that authority is a complex phenomenon, conditioned by numerous factors, determined by evaluative and motivational processes taking place in individual and group thinking. The authority is connected through a system of complex relationships and conditions with many other social phenomena, such as: power, prestige, leadership, influence, reliance, social capital, values and standards. This is why it is difficult to show precise results of the aspect of authority in specific research. Taking into consideration the various possibilities of empirical conceptualisation of the aspect of a governing body's authority in the context of a local society's development it has been deemed that in such a case it is correct – from a methodological and empirical point of view – to categorise the authority as a relationship between a subject (a person or an

institution) and the social environment attributing that authority to the subject. Such a perspective on authority is linked with the awareness of the fact, that the aspect of authority appears in more complex forms and it is very frequently classified as an attribute, value, social attitude, impact and function.

The methodological and theoretical scheme which was utilised in the research concerns neo-institutional explanations, pointing out the role of cultural and empirical factors as well as the tradition of the creativity and endurance of organisations and institutions (check Douglas 1990; Powell, DiMaggio 1991; Rychard 2000). Undoubtedly, when it comes to cultural factors, authority plays a major role, because it validates institutions as systems of rules and standards. Moreover, it guarantees their endurance and emphasises the significance for society's functioning and development. Finally, authority guarantees the endurance of traditions and cultural habits.

The academic aim of the research, which is determined in general categories, is an attempt to recognise – within empirical references – and affirm the importance of cultural determinants of social and economic development in a local area. In this context the major subject is authority as a phenomenon which in a specific way amasses – as Piotr Sztompka states (1997: 5–19) – the beam of social and cultural imponderabilia, such as: moral and socialisation models, social trust, public confidence, legitimisation of authority, and finally, social integration and solidarity. As far as the research venture is concerned, aims referring to cognitive and practical spheres were defined. In a cognitive sphere the major aim is to recognise the role of the authority of a regional governing body in the process of the development of local societies. A pre-eminent matter within this area is (as far as possible) the diagnosis and comparison of a situation between communities which is researched when it comes to the capabilities and barriers concerning the usage of the endogenous, non-economical, cultural and social factors of development, within which one's authority plays a fundamental role, being the basis of trust, cooperation, social consensus and the effectiveness of citizens' commitment to the matter of local society - for its welfare and successful development. When it comes to the practical sphere, the results of the research concerning the perception and evaluation of diversified, multi-faceted conditions as well as the conditionality and spheres in which the authority of a regional governing body has an impact on society, can be extremely helpful as far as creating an appropriate relationship between the local authority and citizens. Diagnosis, analyses and conclusions may also be used in the process of eliminating, or at least limiting, negative phenomena, for example, a lack of trust, passivity or demands from local society.

The main problem which was undertaken in the issue of the research venture concerned the existence of dependence between a regional governing body's authority and the effectiveness of the development of rural societies. Problem-based questions concerned the matter of conditionality and dependence between the level

of authority of a regional governing body and the level of development of rural societies. Formulating the research problem comes from the belief that in modern development processes non-economical factors matter. These factors are: culture, social capital, social awareness, values, knowledge, expertise, management style etc. “Soft” factors of development, to which authority belongs (its conditionality, functions, power of impact) as well as respect, trust in people or institutions, and the respecting of social rules—which are connected to authority, are an inevitable addition and support of economical development factors.

In the research venture quantitative and qualitative methods were used. The analyses are based on the empirical data gathered during the field study. In order to gather quantitative data a questionnaire for the inhabitants of local communities was used. Vast qualitative data was gathered by means of interviews with local authorities—village heads and councillors. There were also interviews with local entrepreneurs in each community. An addition was also made to the methods and techniques that were utilised in the research. It was the observation and analysis of chosen data, such as a community’s strategy, reports and statistics concerning local enterprises and initiatives connected with the development of society. Both the quantitative and qualitative research indicates a typological, but not statistical, representativeness of the groups which were researched.

The research included communities from Podkarpacie which had the highest and the lowest level of development- three parishes in each category, in total—six parishes diversified as far as the level of development is concerned. When choosing these communities, except for the basic economic criterion (rate of development), social and cultural conditions of their functioning and development were taken into consideration. The most important conditions were: the level of intensity of features of traditional rural society and the location factor—the placement of the parish near the centre (county seat) or an area which is attractive for tourist reasons. The research of the authority of a regional governing body in the context of the development of local societies was realised as part of an academic grant from the Ministerstwo Nauki i Szkolnictwa Wyższego nr NN 116226736: *Autorytet władz gminnych a rozwój społeczności lokalnych. Studium socjologiczne*. The research was realised within three parishes with the highest level of development—Krasne, Trzebownisko and Solina, as well as three parishes with the lowest level of development—Stubno, Tyrawa Wołoska, Wielkie Oczy. The adults of these communities were the basis of the research. Moreover, the specific research groups were distinct—they were local leaders (village heads and councillors) and local entrepreneurs. The research completed in each parish consisted of:

- a survey of 100 people (total 600);
- interviews with village heads (total 6);
- interviews with councillors (total 90);
- interviews with entrepreneurs (total 60).

To sum up, a total number of 756 people were surveyed in Podkarpackie county. In this paper are presented only the part of the quantitative result, which pertain to the relationship and cooperation between local authorities and social environment as far as activity focused on development is concerned (Tuziak 2014)¹.

Resources in social interactions

A developed web of social relations and contacts is one of the inevitable conditions necessary for the undertaking and successful realisation of social operations. Formal and informal (family, neighbours) groups interact, both of which may be capitalized on, that is, utilised to achieve aims which would be beyond the reach of any single person or social group. All forms of social interaction may consist of resources which could be possible to capitalise, for example:

- a) mutual obligations and expectations,
- b) access to information,
- c) social standards and sanctions,
- d) relations and authority (Giza-Poleszczuk 2000: 97–100).

Obligations and expectations are derived from social roles. In all formal (emerging on the level of institutions and organisations) and informal relationships a partner's obligation is a resource which may be capitalised on as a demand of mutuality. This is the fundamental basis for linking other people by doing favours for favours (check Cialdini 2007; Blau 2009), aimed at building a resource which will be possible to capitalise.

Access to information is a resource which may also be capitalised on, either as a means of imposing operations which can simplify achieving aims for a single person, or as a resource itself. Access to information may be guaranteed because of a person's status in an organisation (institution) or emerge from a person's informal status. Social standards and sanctions are a resource which can be capitalised on due to the fact that they may be used to impose desired actions on other people. They become a resource only when they are effective, which means that there are sanctions easing the introduction and enforcement of them. A very important resource which may be capitalized on is the relationship with local authorities. Authority, by its nature, enables successful subordination of others in such a way that a single person can achieve his/her goals at a lower cost, while at the same time a subordinated person may, in some situations, capitalise on the authority of a superior person (Giza-Poleszczuk 2000: 98–99).

Resources which appear on the basis of social interactions may arise as a side effect of the already existing structures organising social relationships, they may also be created intentionally by individuals leaguering together groups. The processes of self-

¹ The aspect of the role of authority of local authorities in the local development was presented in B. Tuziak, *Autorytet władz gminnych a rozwój społeczności lokalnych. Studium socjologiczne*, Scholar, Warszawa 2014 (during publishing). In the paper only the fragments of this publication were presented.

organisation of individuals, however, in practice frequently go through many problems and difficulties which emerge from the uneven dispensation of costs for creating webs of social relationships. As a result, a great majority of forms of social capital are created “on the way” – together with different operations. Factors favouring the spontaneous creation and functioning of social capital are: the level of closing the system of relationships in a given community, its firmness, cultural value systems as well as individual factors connected with attitude and the psychosocial features of individuals (Giza-Poleszczuk 2000: 98–99).

The construction of social capital and authority requires acceptance of the moral standards of a given society and, after all, such values as loyalty, fairness and honesty. Members of society should accept these standards so that trust is a common value for them. It guarantees the stability and effectiveness of operations in economy and socio-politic spheres. As a final result it enables raising the welfare and living standards for all citizens (Giza-Poleszczuk 2000: 98–99).

The authority of a regional governing body versus stimulating activity in local society

In analyses of the social functions of authority, its role in activating people is frequently emphasised. Those who are respected inspire subordinated individuals to act the way they want to (Aleksander 2002: 154). On local level, an authority’s respect is “the most natural, the most ‘bloody’ because of direct interactions” (Jarmoszko 2010: 171). Taking into consideration the importance of the inspiring and activating function of authority it has been deemed that the authority of the local authorities of researched parishes in Podkarpacie is an essential factor of the activation and mobilisation of local society. The interaction of a governing body with citizens as far as the web of social relations is concerned enhances the undertaking of collaborating operations; it also influences the dynamics and direction of the activity of rural society. The thesis concerning the activating and mobilising influence of authority on local community was analysed in order to find the answer to questions concerning the inhabitants’ declaration of taking part in certain operations for the development of the parish.

The range of citizens’ activity fields which respondents answered to included:

- a) a voluntary “whip-round” for the realisation of investments for people,
- b) volunteer work for investments for people,
- c) protest against the construction of harmful waste dumps in the area of a parish,
- d) preparation of a carnival for very important historical anniversaries,
- e) the collection of money for publishing a local yearbook,
- f) a collection for funding the local newspaper.

Readiness for voluntarily joining particular operations is shown in Figure 1.

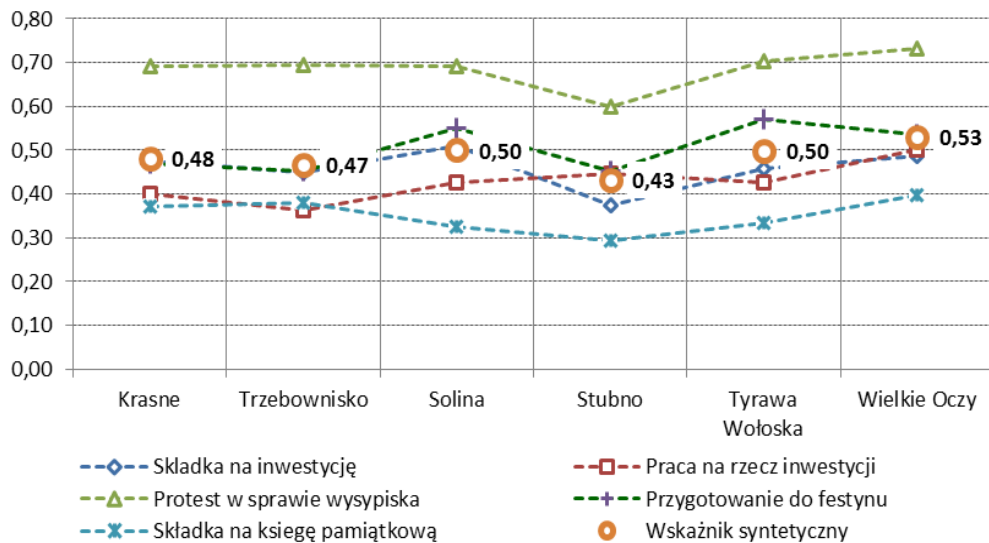


Figure 1 Readiness for voluntarily joining particular operations for the local community

Source: the research

Translation of Captions:

Collection for the investment

Protest against waste

Collection for the yearbook

Work for the investment

Preparing for a festival

Synthetic rate

The level of declared participation in the operations above was diversified throughout the given parishes. Communities which had a lower level of a governing body's authority (Solina, Wielkie Oczy, Tyrawa Wołoska) had people who were more eager to take part in actions. This tendency is clearly illustrated by the situation in Wielkie Oczy—it has the highest level of positive predictions for all operations. The people surveyed believed that almost half of the inhabitants would participate in volunteer work necessary for performing mutual investment. Also, readiness for activity in the contest of parish thriftiness was highly rated—according to over forty percent of all subjects or a great majority of society would take part in such an operation. When it comes to protesting against locating a harmful waste dump, almost seventy-five percent would participate in it. Wielki Oczy parish is not a very rich one, what is more, it has got poor opportunities for development, but almost half of its inhabitants would partake in voluntary collection for investment necessary for society, and thirty percent would pay for publishing a yearbook; finally, nearly ten percent of people would pay a voluntary tax for funding the local police department.

In parishes where local authorities have more authority (Trzebowniko, Krasne, Stubno) the local community was less eager to get involved in operations. The operation with the highest possible number of participants was the protest against the location of contaminated waste. On the other hand, people showed little

willingness to help local operations financially. The collected data indicates that the authority of a governing body has no influence on the activity of society. It seems that in such a case, it is not a really important factor in the activation of society. It turned out that in communities where the level of authority was higher resulted in people's activity being lower. This situation is illustrated in Figure 2, which presents the diversity of commitment to preparing for a local festival.

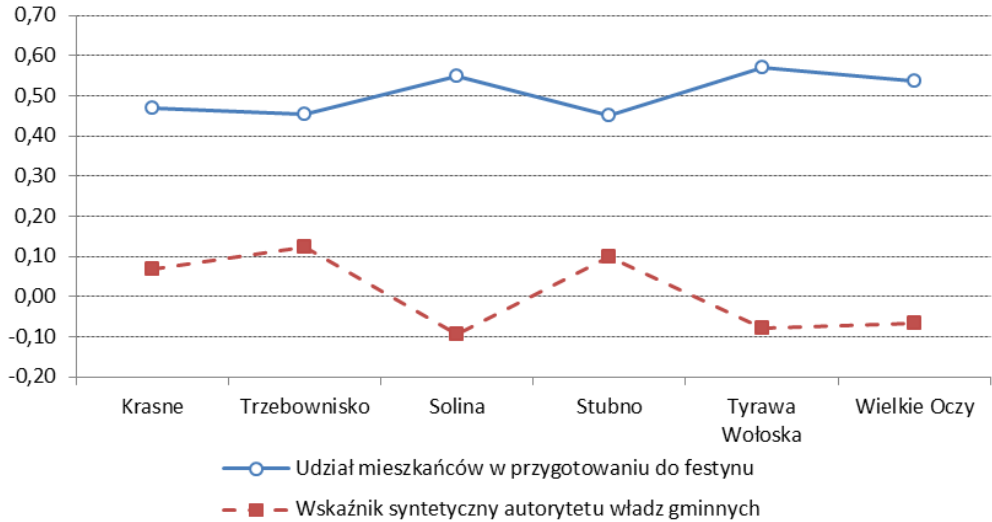


Figure 2 Governing body's authority versus people's engagement in preparing for a festival

Source: The research

Translation of Captions:

People's participation in festival preparation

Synthetic rate of authority of a governing body

It seems that people from parishes respecting local authorities feel they are in some way free from showing their own activity. They prefer to make the governing body responsible for that, probably because of its professionalism and competences. It is probably due to the fact that people succumb to the local authority's power, which eventually leads to the self-limitation of one's own thinking or activity. It may intensify a passive attitude and a sort of laziness which limits people's activity and initiative. R. Cialdini noticed that "the blessing of succumbing to authority is the fact that it is generally profitable, what is more it exempts us from thinking. And when we do not have to think, we do not think. Even though such an attitude directs us to a correct action, it may sometimes misguide us, as we replace thinking with mechanical reactions" (Cialdini 2007: 198).

Web of relationships in the sphere of contacts and social bonds

Social webs arising from relationships and bonds have essential significance for the development of local society. Modern conceptions of development emphasise the fact that one of the basic resources conditioning development of relationships in

society is institutionalised social webs which are created by local organisations, social groups and inhabitants. They enhance society's ability as far as mutual communication, self-organisation and solving local problems are concerned (Lewenstein 2006). Social relations were referred to the process of communication between people of the same status (family, friends, neighbours, co-workers) and people of a different status (ordinary people versus authorities – village heads and councillors) (Figure 3).

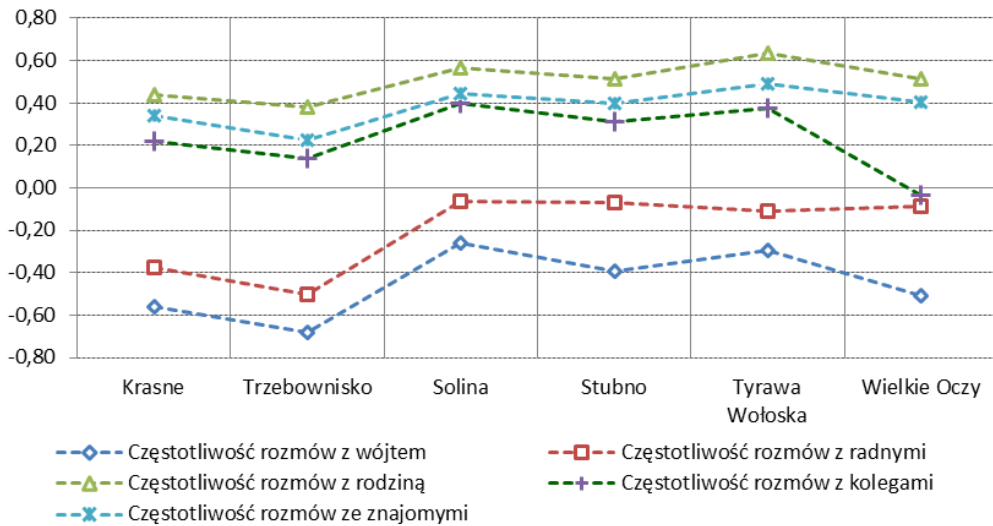


Figure 3 Communication level depending on social bonds

Source: The research.

Translation of Captions:

Frequency of conversations with the village head
 Frequency of conversations with family members
 Frequency of conversations with friends

Frequency of conversations with councillors
 Frequency of conversations with co-workers

The nature of the surveyed contacts applied to conversations about local matters. Generally, the frequency of contacts between people of the same social status was much higher than between people of a different status. Answers to questions about whom they talk to about local matters enable the identification of members of a communication web. A great majority of researched people (approximately sixty-four per cent) pointed out their family members. Friends and neighbours were chosen by sixty-two people, and fifty-one per cent talk with co-workers about matters concerning their parish. These statements show a structure of relationships between the most important “actors” of a communication web. A community based on mutual contacts, meetings and conversations consists of family members, neighbours and friends. Most often, conversations concerning local matters between family members or friends took place in Solina and Tyrawa Wołoska, and least often in Trzebowniko and Krasne. The web of contacts and connections identified in the research is a reflection of the typical Polish structure of relationships within society. Their most important elements consist of: family, friends, and neighbours.

According to B. Lewenstein, “in Polish society there is still a very strong family-friends structure. It is the basis for creating social circles and the distribution of social trust. Especially family, no matter close or distant, is a very important resource for Poles. They use it firstly when it comes to cooperation on various levels of social life” (Lewenstein 2006: 173).

The most frequent relationships with local authority members (village heads or councillors) concerning regional matters took place in Solina (thirty-three per cent). A slightly lower frequency of such contacts took place in Wielkie Oczy and Tyrawa Wołoska—it was approximately thirty per cent. On the other hand, people from Krasne and Trzebowniko very seldom talk with local authorities—it is less than nineteen per cent in Krasne, and in Trzebowniko it was less than eleven per cent. A synthetic image of contacts related to conversations about local matters with closer and further social surrounding is presented in Figure 4.

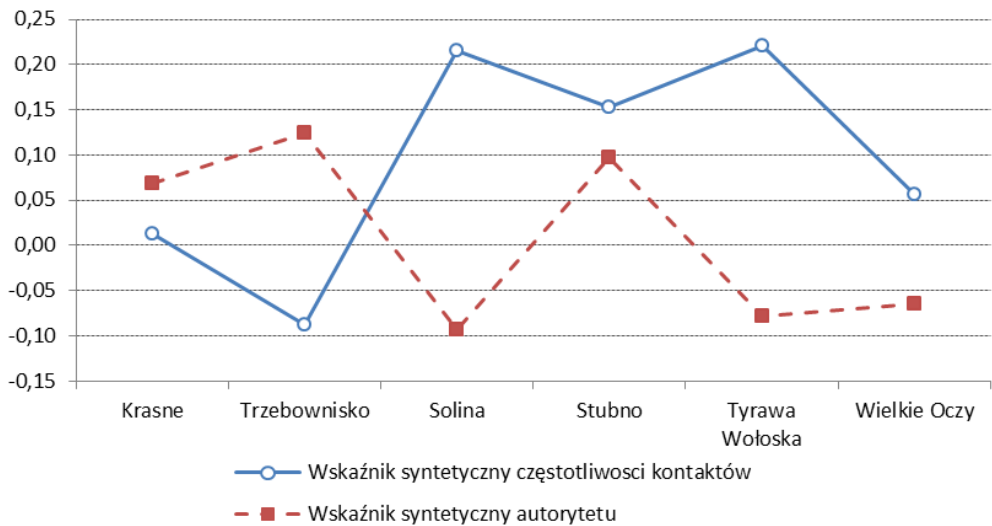


Figure 4 The authority of a local governing body versus the frequency of contacts researched as part of communication webs

Source: The research

Translation of Captions:

Synthetic rate of frequency of contacts

Synthetic rate of authority

The frequency of contacts as part of a communication web turned out to be diversified according to the level of authority of the local governing body. In parishes where local authorities were respected by society the frequency of contacts and conversations between people and members of authority, as well as members of family, neighbours and friends, was less frequent. Such situations took place in Trzebowniko, Krasne and Stubno. In parishes, where a local governing body was not as respected as in the previous ones, the number of contacts with the regional authorities, family members, friends and neighbours was higher. It occurred in

Solina, Tyrawa Wołoska and Wielkie Oczy. It seems that the low level of authority of the local governing body motivates community members to be more interested in local issues. This attention may in a way have a negative or even angst basis. It may result from a low level of trust in authorities whose efficiency and level of competence is not evaluated very well. It has been ascertained that in communities where society do not put trust in local authorities there is more attention drawn to local matters among people. They feel obligated to interest in regional issues, as well as controlling, analysing and commenting on authorities' actions.

The research results do not indicate that the authority of a regional governing body enhances the activity of inhabitants. Instead, the higher level of authority caused less activity as well as less interest in local matters within the researched parishes and concerned not only contacts with authorities, but with family and friends, too.

Conclusions

Authority as an important social resource and source of validating certain operations may have an impact on development activity at a local level. It seems that a crisis in authority within society goes hand in hand with the restitution of authority and a higher practical usefulness at the local society level taking place, for example, in raising the effectiveness of the development processes which those societies participate in.

An analysis of the research results allows two types of parishes to be distinguished. The first one consists of parishes where local authorities were very respected by people, while the second one concerns parishes where the governing body is not respected very much. This division did not fully concur with the division of a high and low development level. It has been deemed that a high level of authority or regional governing body should enhance achieving a high level of development of a given parish. The collected data indicates that such a statement may be correct, as within communities with a high development level there was a high level of authority of the governing body (in Trzebowńsko and Krasne); on the other hand, in less developed parishes (Wielkie Oczy, Tyrawa Wołoska) there was a low authority level of the authorities. However, the impact of authority on a regional governing body turned out to be much more complex. Solina is such an example where people do not respect local authorities very much, however it has developed very well; on the other hand in Stubno, which is one of the worst as far as the level of development is concerned in this region, the local governing body had high level of authority among its inhabitants. Therefore, it seems that it is correct to not treat authority as a typical dependent variable which could be the basis of characterisation giving reasons for the diversification of a parishes' development as a result of the activity of local authorities. Authority is rather an accompanying variable, meaning it acts together with other factors and conditions, such as: location of a parish (distance from the county seat), financial possibilities, management style, the level of qualifications of the members of the governing body, and the intensification of rural society features on: traditional-modern village continuum.

Bibliography

- Aleksander T. (2002), *Geneza i cechy współczesnych autorytetów polskich*, [in:] B. Gołębiowski (ed.), *Autorytety polskie*, Oficyna Wydawnicza „Stopka”, Łomża., ISBN 8385734465 .
- Blau P.M. (2009), *Wymiana i władza w życiu społecznym*, transl. A. Pusty-Zajac, P. Zajac, „Nomos”, Kraków, ISBN 9788376880082.
- Douglas N. (1990), *Institutions, Institutional Change and Economic Performance*, Cambridge University Press, New York, ISBN 9780521397346.
- Cialdini R.B. (2007), *Wywieranie wpływu na ludzi. Teoria i praktyka*, transl. B. Wojciszke, GWP, Gdańsk, ISBN 9788374891011.
- Giza-Poleszczuk A. (2000), *Przestrzeń społeczna*, [in:] A. Giza-Poleszczuk, M. Marody, A. Rychard (eds.), *Strategie i system. Polacy w obliczu zmiany społecznej*, IFiS PAN, Warszawa ISBN 8387632368.
- Jarmoszko S. (2010), *Autorytet. Kontrowersje i aksjomaty*, Akademia Humanistyczna im. Aleksandra Gieysztora, Warsaw, ISBN 9788375490930.
- Lewenstein B. (2006), *Nowe paradygmaty rozwoju układów lokalnych - w stronę obywatelskich wizji społeczności lokalnych*, [in:] J. Kurczewska (ed.), *Oblicza lokalności. Różnorodność miejsc i czasu*, IFiS PAN, Warsaw, ISBN 8373880992.
- Powell W.W., DiMaggio P. J. (eds.) (1991), *The New Institutionalism in Organizational Analysis*, The University of Chicago Press; Chicago, London, ISBN 9780226677095.
- Rychard A. (2000), *Przestrzeń instytucjonalna*, [in:] A. Giza-Poleszczuk, M. Marody, Rychard A. (eds.), *Strategie i system. Polacy w obliczu zmiany systemowej*, IFiS PAN, Warsaw.
- Sztompka P. (1997), *Kulturowe imponderabilia gwałtownych zmian społecznych: zaufanie – lojalność – solidarność*, „Studia Socjologiczne” 4, ISSN 00393371.
- Tuziak B. (2014 during publishing), *Autorytet władz gminnych a rozwój społeczności lokalnych. Studium socjologiczne*, Scholar, Warsaw.

Selected Aspects of a Non-Governmental Organization's Activities through the Example of the St. Brother Albert Aid Society in Sanok

Ewelina Kleszcz-Ciupka, Piotr Frączek

Abstract

The modern world is a place where a lot of social, political and economic changes have occurred. It is a time of great civilization, technical and cultural progress. However, despite many human achievements and changes that affect our quality of life, it has failed to minimise the problems faced by people in the present day. The population living in the twenty-first century experiences a lot of problems in many areas of life. The economic, political, cultural, religious and social problems can be considered as the most serious problems of the modern world. The institutions of social policy are mainly responsible for the implementation of social assistance tasks. In this sense, the third sector acts on its own initiative for specific public interest and with non-profit intent. The services of this sector include various forms of support to different groups of people at risk of social exclusion. The developing sector of non-profit organisations plays an important role in meeting social needs, thanks to the knowledge and guidance on social issues becoming a main partner of local authorities and the state in solving social problems and organizing collective life. It can therefore be assumed that this sector contributes to increasing the effectiveness of social policy.

Key words: homelessness, non-profit organisations, volunteering

Introduction

The modern world is a place where a lot of social, political and economic changes have occurred. It is a time of great civilization, technical and cultural progress. However, despite many human achievements and changes that affect our quality of life, it has failed to minimise the problems faced by people in the present day. The population living in the twenty-first century experiences a lot of problems in many areas of life. The economic, political, cultural, religious and social problems can be considered as the most serious problems of the modern world. The latter play a key role at the present time from the point of view of the quality of human life. They are understood as a matter of negative assessment (something wrong, disturbing, harmful, unwanted, outrageous, shocking), accompanied by change requests and organised social reactions (Rysz-Kowalczyk 2002: 160).

Important issues affecting respect of the person's dignity are closely related to phenomena such as poverty, unemployment, addiction or homelessness.

The primary tool in solving social problems is social assistance, which in the modern and welfare state with a market economy should constitute one of the essential investments of social policy. Nowadays, social welfare is an important part of the social security system and demand for this kind of services is constantly increasing. This is mainly the result of civilization's development which changes the catalogue of social needs and forces us to introduce new services (Szurgacz 1992: 27).

The institutions of social policy are mainly responsible for the implementation of social assistance tasks. Their basic action is assisting individuals and families cope in the difficult situations which they cannot alone overcome with the use of their abilities, powers and their own recourses (Gierszewska 2002: 143).

In addition to the abovementioned entities, an increasingly important role in solving social problems is played by non-governmental organisations, which in accordance with the Public Benefit Activity and Volunteerism Act are legal persons or association not having a legal personality, including non-profit-making foundations and associations (Ustawa z dnia 24 kwietnia 2003) (non-public finance sector units). These entities, often known as non-profit organisations, are also understood as a specific, contemporary form of a social self-organization integrating citizens' groups, characterised by are latively mature social identity, a certain degree of organization, a private nature of initiative, voluntary participation, independence and non-commercial, as well as significant participation by volunteering, and a major role in shaping human attitudes (Halamska 2008: 17). Non-governmental organisations are often concerned with the third, social sector which performs social and civic functions and is created by private entities for the use of the public purposes. In accordance with this classification the first sector is the public, government sector which includes public institutions with a public purpose and based on the creation of law. In contrast, the second sector is created by private entities for private purposes and it is the business sector which is focused on the production of goods and services (Halamska 2008: 15). In this sense, the third sector acts on its own initiative for specific public interest and with non-profit intent. The services of this sector include various forms of support to different groups of people at risk of social exclusion.

In the literature on the subject, great importance to non-governmental organisations in social life is given. They carry out entrusted tasks while at the same time performing a whole range of functions, since one organization can perform a few functions simultaneously. Different typologies of the functions of non-governmental organisations are given by many authors; one of the most interesting is that which is based on the hierarchy of human needs which includes:

- function of affiliation which realizes the human need for belonging to a specific group or community,
- integrative functions based on the need for relationship, combating isolation and building social ties,
- an expressive function which creates the opportunity for self-realization and the development of interests, providing a personal contribution to the development of the nearest local community (Załoska 1998: 36).

The developing sector of non-profit organisations plays an important role in meeting social needs, thanks to the knowledge and guidance on social issues becoming a main partner of local authorities and the state in solving social problems and organizing collective life. It can therefore be assumed that this sector contributes to increasing the effectiveness of social policy.

The aim

The aim of this research was to analyse selected aspects of the activities of non-governmental organisations through the example of the St. Brother Albert Aid Society in Sanok. An attempt has been made to determine the rules and funding sources of the analysed entity, as well as an analysis of support forms offered for dependents.

Despite the fact that research is not comprehensive, it can contribute to increase the level of knowledge about the range and quality of aid activities carried out by the St. Brother Albert Aid Society.

Methods and techniques of research

This article presents the results of empirical research which was carried out in the Sanok district in 2014. The group of 42 homeless men who were residents of the Invalid Homeless House (DIB) was included in the survey. A purposeful selection of bodies was used and one of the criteria was that the respondent must be a current resident of DIB. At the same time, in order to gather necessary empirical material, an analysis of the existing documents (e.g. annual balance sheet of the St. Brother Albert Aid Society, an outturn account and a financial statement) was used as well as an individual interview (partially structured) with the president of the St. Brother Albert Aid Society Sanok Circle – Mrs. Alicja Kocylowska.

The results

The St. Brother Albert Aid Society is a non-governmental organization which carried out tasks in the field of social assistance. It is an independent Catholic charity which has been operating since 1981, and was the first organization to take up assisting the homeless in Poland.

It had been known as the Adam Chmielowski Aid Society until 1989. A principal aim of the society is to assist the homeless and poor people—in the spirit of its patron saint, St. Brother Albert and in accordance with his concept: *(...) food for every hungry person, place for the homeless, and clothing for the naked. If it cannot be much, then a little is enough.*

The tasks which the society has been appointed to carry out are fulfilled through:

- establishing and running shelters and homes of permanent residence,
- social work, legal aid and psychological assistance, religious services,
- operating kitchens, baths, clubrooms, organizing Christmas Eve and Easter breakfasts, camps,
- providing food, clothing, appliances, cleansers, medicines,
- cooperation with local authority, state administrations, the Catholic Church, other non-governmental organisations,
- informational activities, inspiring research,
- staff and volunteer training.

Currently the society operates 86 accommodation establishments for over 3800 people. Among these:

- 43 shelters for men, with more than 2400 beds,
- 16 shelters with 560 beds,
- 10 flats for men – 70 places,
- 7 shelters for women and mothers with children, 200 beds,
- 5 shelters for the elderly and the sick where 200 reside,
- 2 Social Carehomes for 200 persons,
- 1 orphanage with a hostel for older children – 48 beds,
- 1 Nursing Welfare department for 29 persons,
- 1 centre for evicted people.

In addition to accommodation and shelter, the society also offers other forms of assistance in the following areas:

- 16 eateries serving 2600 meals per day,
- 22 places where clothing and food is provided,
- 9 places with heating and 1 clubroom for the homeless,
- 5 freebaths,
- 5 clubrooms for children and 4 for adults, the Albertyński Club,
- 2 Social Integration Clubs,
- 2 Social cooperatives
- 1 Social Integration Centre.

Society facilities are mainly based on the social commitment of members and volunteers as well as allocated funds on the basis of cooperation with local authorities and state administration. The following table presents the revenue and expenditure of the society in 2012.

Table 1 Revenue and expenditure of the St. Brother Albert Aid Society in Poland in 2012

Revenue		Expenditure	
49,119,000 zł including:		46,258,000 zł including:	
From public funds	42.31%	Labour costs	37.20%
Donation from natural or legal persons	7.45%	Food costs	13.39%
Donations in kind	9.41%	Costs of materials, energy, services	26.56%
Payments from beneficiaries	14.54%	Costs of the Main Directorate	0.82%
From the 1 % income tax gift	1.15%	Union project implementation costs	17.32%
Funds for union projects implementation	15.91%	Others	4.71%
Others	9.23		

Source: Personal study on the basis of financial information from the society's website (<http://www.bratalbert.org>).

The figures presented above show that the highest revenue attained by the society is from public funds. However, the largest costs are related to operating and maintaining the individual institutions.

The financial data include all circles which are a fundamental unit of the society. They operate independently and consist of a group of people linked to the Albert concept. Their mission is the establishment and maintenance of assistance centres and fundraising for their activity. At present, the society consists of 64 circles including 17 circles which have a juridical personality. Branches are an initiative of the circles. Their tasks include circle integration, an exchange of experiences, community building, and members and staff forming in the spirit of St. Albert—through meetings, visits, common contemplation days, celebrations and pilgrimages. There are 3 branches: Lesser Poland which associates 7 circles; Subcarpathian—12 circles; and Pomorsko-Kujawski—5 circles.

One of the most important entities which was founded in 1991 is the Sanok Circle of the St. Brother Albert Aid Society. This organization's statutory objectives are based on assistance for the homeless, the poor, the sick and disabled people in the atmosphere of respect for one's own life and other people's work. These assumptions are realized through the operation of the following establishments:

"Dar Serca" – *Gift of the Heart* is a unit which has been in operation since 1992 and provides clothing and a bath. This institution is responsible for providing clothing, small devices, household appliances, furniture for the homeless and those most in need (families, people living alone, children) from Sanok and nearby. The bath is used by those homeless people who do not want to stay in the shelter and who do not have sanitary facilities in their house or flat. The bath is used by 6–8 persons per week. This unit is maintained with money and donations in kind, and once a year 4,000 zł is given by the Sanok Town Council to cover the costs of utilities and chemicals. The entire cost of this unit is about 8,000 zloty and there are no staff costs as the people who work there are volunteers.

The eatery has been in operation since 1991 and providing food is its primary task. The eatery provides about 160 full meals for the poorest residents of the rural and urban district of Sanok. Similar to "Gift of the Heart" it is maintained through food and money donations. In addition, 90,000 zloty is provided by town council authorities after a successful application submitted by the Management Board of Sanok Circle. The annual cost of maintaining the eatery is 180,000 zloty.

The Nursing Welfare Department created in 2009, with 29 beds in single and double rooms, and three-person halls and four-person halls. This department provides services in the field of caring for patients with a limited ability of movement, self-care incapable, not eligible for hospitalization and requiring constant and professional nursing, dietary, continual drug therapy, as well as rehabilitation. This department has signed an agreement with the Subcarpathian branch of the National Health Fund in Rzeszów, under which 81,000 zloty is

transferred to the Sanok Circle's account per month. The monthly total cost of maintaining the unit is approximately 100,000 zloty. Remuneration (1,500 zloty per month) is charged by the Department. It is paid by the residents of the Department, someone from the resident's family or by local government units at the municipal level. This fee is intended to cover the funding of resident's utilities and food.

The Invalid Homeless House – The DIB is a shelter for homeless men, in particular those who are disabled. There are 93 beds in 35 double and three-person rooms. The residents of the DIB are particularly provided with:

- assistance with meeting their basic needs such as: shelter, food, clothing,
- obtaining documents such as identity cards, social insurance, certificates of disability for disabled persons,
- providing nursing and medical care, rehabilitation with treatment and improving one's health,
- helping to return to normalcy through social and occupational activation with the support of a psychologist and a therapist,
- prevention of addiction including cooperation with an anti-alcohol clinic,
- homeless integration with society,
- helping the homeless contact their families,
- motivation and assistance with job searching including a legal job, a seasonal job, and temporary work,
- keeping in touch with persons who have tried to become independent.

In order to secure shelter for homeless people living in Sanok, the society is once a year given 84,000 zloty by the town council. The total annual cost of maintaining the DIB is 185,000 zloty. It is therefore necessary to use the remuneration for staying in the shelter and it is made by residents as 70% of their income. If it is not possible, then Social Welfare Centres (in the region of the last residence of the homeless person) are responsible for that remuneration.

The Sanok Circle, like other circles of the society, relies heavily on the public's generosity. Most of the second-hand clothing and some of the food are mainly from donations. The Circle also organises money collections. At the same time some food collections are organised mainly in the large stores and supermarkets in Sanok. A promotion campaign to donate 1% of your income tax to the society is also conducted. What is more, other funds are derived by organising and publishing competition offers regarding homelessness that are announced, inter alia, by the Subcarpathian Province Governor's Office in Rzeszów. Other funds are obtained from permanent and temporary benefits, members' fees and residents' fees. In order to implement statutory tasks, the Sanok Circle cooperates with:

- local government – municipality in Sanok, social welfare centres, the family support administrative district centre, courts, hospitals, labour offices, registry offices, police, municipal police,
- public administration,

- non-governmental organisations which care about the homeless and those who are socially excluded – CARITAS, Foundation of Health Care for Hospital in Sanok,
- private companies in Sanok and nearby – i.e. “DOMICELA”, “LIDL”, “JADCZYSZYN”.

The following table presents the detailed financial data of the Sanok Circle of the St. Brother Albert Aid Society.

Table 2 The income and costs of Sanok Circle TPBA activity between years 2012–2013 (PLN)

SPECIFICATION	INCOME FROM STATUTORY ACTIVITIES	THE COSTS OF STATUTORY TASKS' IMPLEMENTATION	FINANCIAL RESULT
2012	2,653,807.62	2,441,256.55	212,551.07
2013	3,331,396.61	3,070,332.50	261,064.11
TOTAL	5,985,204.23	5,511,589.05	473,615.18

Source: Personal study on the basis of the outturn account for 2012/2013 in TPBA in Sanok

These figures show that the income from statutory activity Circle Sanok TPBA between the years 2012–2013 amounted to 5,985,204.23 PLN. However, the costs of statutory tasks' implementation of this unit amounted to 5,511,589.05 PLN. Thus, the financial situation of the society in Sanok was good in the presented period. It was possible to save almost 480,000 zloty in funds that could be used in the future.

The cooperation of non-governmental organisations with the local government and the public administration contributes to the complementarity of individual institutions in fulfilling their tasks in the field of social assistance. The Invalid Homeless House, acting on behalf of the homeless who are also disabled, is an excellent example of such cross-sectoral cooperation. The cooperation between the Sanok Circle and social welfare centres allows for meeting the basic needs of people who are vulnerable to marginalization because of their difficult personal situation.

This entity was chosen to be surveyed because of its special nature and the limited number of such establishments in Poland. When the survey was being carried out there were 85 residents aged 41–86 years, while persons aged 50–70 was the dominant group (70% of all). During the survey it was possible to determine the education level of the homeless people. Most people had a vocational education—41 persons, 29 persons with primary education, 15 persons with secondary vocational education. Another important element was having a legal disability. Based on the data from these studies there were 60 disabled persons including 7 persons with a severe level of disability, 34 persons with a moderate level of disability, and 19 persons with a mild level of disability. The following pie-chart shows their place of origin of the homeless people who were surveyed.

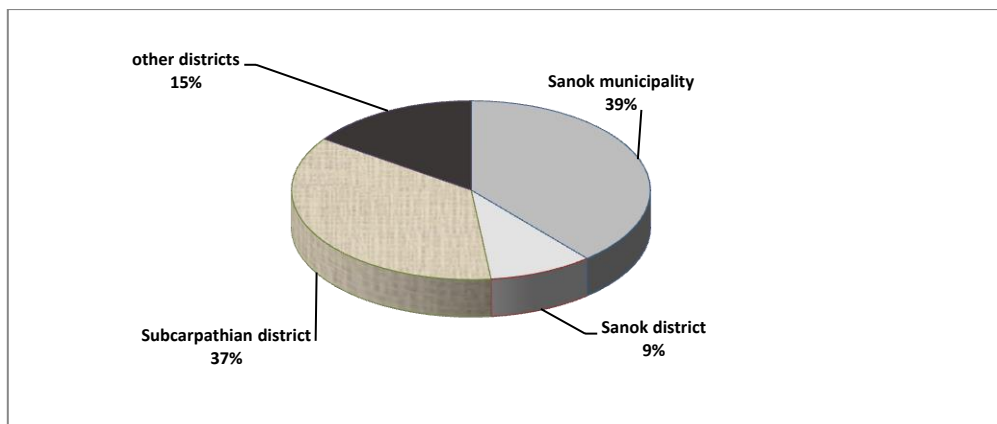


Figure 1 Structure of residents of the DIB in Sanok connected with their place of origin

Source: Personal study on the basis of carried out researches

The empirical material gathered shows that most of the homeless people living in the shelter in Sanok came from the Sanok urban community and the Subcarpathian district.

The survey has also been an attempt to determine the degree of the homeless people's satisfaction related to receiving aid from the Invalid Homeless House. The respondents were asked to say to what extent their expectations about living in the DIB in Sanok were fulfilled.

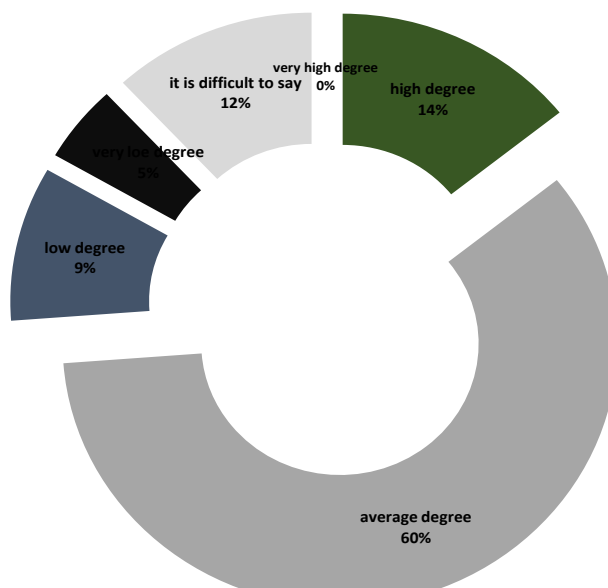


Figure 2 The degree of fulfilling the respondent's expectations about living in the DIB in Sanok

Source: Personal study on the basis of the carried out research

It turned out that the respondents were satisfied with their stay at the DIB to an average extent. None of the respondents claimed that their expectations were fulfilled to a very high extent and only 2 persons (5% of all) were completely disappointed with their stay at the shelter.

The respondents were asked to indicate their degree of satisfaction related to various forms of received aid and support.

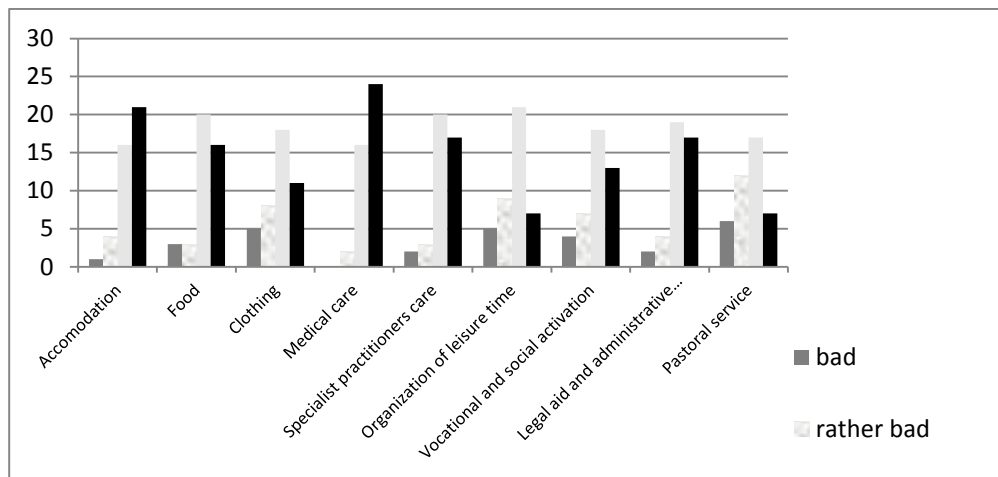


Figure 3 The degree of respondents' satisfaction related to the various forms of received aid and support at the DIB (%)

Source: Own study on the base of carried out researches

The homeless people were the most satisfied with medical care and food conditions. In contrast, they were the least satisfied with pastoral service, the clothing they received and the organization of leisure time.

The results

The aim of this article was to analyse selected aspects of the activities of non-governmental organisations through the example of the St. Brother Albert Aid Society in Sanok. It was also an attempt to define the rules and sources of funding for this entity. The data gathered shows that the society in Sanok is in a good financial situation. Between the years 2012-2013 the revenue obtained under the statutory tasks of this entity was higher than its expenditures, and thus the financial situation allowed it to meet the basic needs of residents of the TPBA. Furthermore, from the results of this survey it was possible to define the rules and funding sources of the individual institutions which are run by the Sanok Circle. With the information obtained it shows that the main and indispensable source of funds is the public's generosity. The important financial sources in the implementation of the statutory tasks are funds from local government as donations and funds derived by organising and publishing competition offers regarding homelessness.

The aim of this article was to present the satisfaction with the forms of support of the homeless people living in the Invalid Homeless House. The homeless people

claimed that staying in the shelter fulfils their expectations only to an average extent. The respondents were most satisfied with medical care and food conditions. In contrast, they were the least satisfied with pastoral service, the clothing they received and the organization of leisure time.

The empirical material gathered also allowed us to see the important cross-sectoral partnership. Only the cooperation between the public sector, the private sector, and the third sector will effectively solve social problems and help to meet the needs of local society.

Bibliography

Gierszewska R. (2002), *Pomoc społeczna*, [in:] B. Rysz-Kowalczyk (ed.), *Leksykon polityki społecznej*, ASPRA-JR, Warsaw, ISBN 8388766325.

Halamska M. (2008), *Wiejskie organizacje pozarządowe. Wprowadzenie*, [in:] M. Halamska (ed.), *Wiejskie organizacje pozarządowe*, Instytut Rozwoju Wsi i Rolnictwa Polskiej Akademii Nauk, Warsaw, ISBN 8389900270.

Rysz-Kowalczyk B. (ed.) (2002), *Leksykon polityki społecznej*, ASPRA-JR, Warsaw, ISBN 8388766325.

Szurgacz H. (1992), *Wstęp do prawa pomocy społecznej*, UWr, Wrocław, ISSN 05244544; ISSN 02396661.

Ustawa z dnia 24 kwietnia 2003 r. o działalności pożytku publicznego i o wolontariacie, 2003, no. 96, position 873.

Załuska M. (1998), *Prawne i organizacyjne ramy działania organizacji pozarządowych*, [in:] M. Załuska, J. Boczoń (eds.), *Organizacje pozarządowe w społeczeństwie obywatelskim*, BPS, Katowice, ISBN 8371641133.

Cross-Sectoral Partnership as a Factor in the Development of Local Communities¹

Anna Kanios

Abstract

The article discusses cross-sectoral partnership as a significant factor in the development of local communities, and describes the processes occurring at the microscale level. Solving the social problems of the modern world requires the collaboration of the authorities with social partners (non-governmental organisations). Partnership has now become an important tool of social policy, particularly in the European Union. In Poland, it has also turned out to be important in the context of the transformation of the political and economic system, and the introduction of EU standards.

Key words: *cross-sectoral partnership, Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, social problems, European Union*

Introduction

The process of social change associated with the development of democracy has given people hope for a better, more rewarding life, and has convinced them that the impossible becomes possible if only an individual can make good use of their inner potential in collaboration with others and with the support of appropriate solutions (Kromolicka 2008: 9).

At the same time, as T. Pilch observes, a lot of responsibility has been shifted onto individuals and local communities as a result of this process of change, laying bare a multitude of individual and group problems (Pilch 1999: 300). According to A. Sobolewski, gone are the days when each particular social or economic problem was tackled by one specialised entity while experts in various fields were often not even aware of each other's existence. In today's society, the efficiency of pro-social activities can be ensured by a holistic, multi-faceted approach. This, however, necessitates collaboration between individuals and organisations with various scopes of activity (Sobolewski et al., 2007: 7)

K. Wódz and J. Wódz claim that solving the social problems of the modern world requires the collaboration of the authorities with social partners (non-governmental organisations, associations, business and media) (Wódz, Wódz 2007: 34)

Sometimes these problems cannot be solved individually to a satisfactory extent. The first local partnerships were established in the Anglo-Saxon countries in the 1980s in order to find ways to ensure a better growth of local communities. At present, local social partnerships are developing in many European countries. More

¹ The content of this paper is partially based on my article entitled *Partnerstwo społeczne szansą na zbudowanie nowej formy współpracy międzysektorowej w obszarze pomocy społecznej – rzeczywistość czy utopia?*, published in „Praca Socjalna” No. 1/2011.

and more of them are established because traditional welfare systems are incapable of solving social problems whose great number and complexity requires innovative approaches (Zybała 2008: 7).

At present, there is no single definition of partnership, which probably results from its multiple aspects and forms. However, in each case it relies on collaboration.

According to the most frequently quoted definition, provided by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, partnership is defined as "a platform of collaboration among various partners who use innovative means and methods to jointly plan, design, introduce and implement, in a systematic and sustainable manner, specific measures and initiatives aimed at developing the local socio-economic environment and building local identity among members of a given community (Sobolewski et al., 2007: 10)

The problem of cross-sectoral co-operation is within the scope of interest of numerous researchers, e.g. Hudson (1987), Kawula (1999), Winiarski (2004), Rymśa (2005), Jarosz (2008), Marzec-Holka (2009), Juros and Biały (2009), Krzyszkowski (2008), Radziejewicz-Winnicki (2008; 2009).

In recent times, partnership has become an important tool of social policy, particularly in the European Union. In Poland, it has also turned out to be important in the context of the transformation of the political and economic system and the introduction of EU standards (Geisler 2008: 7).

According to D. Trawkowska, the efficacy of social assistance measures largely depends on the character and scope of co-operation between public institutions and social organisations. Unfortunately, cross-sectoral co-operation for the benefit of social assistance clients is one of the weakest elements [...] of the social assistance system for individuals and families (Trawkowska 2006: 320).

Currently, the functioning of the social assistance system has to take into account the principles of subsidiarity, partnership and active social policy because the basic condition for the efficient functioning of the state is achieving a lasting relationship between the development and economic condition of a country, on the one hand, and welfare protection of its citizens, on the other.

The concepts of social capital can certainly provide the basis for theoretical considerations on partnership-based co-operation.

The term "social capital" was probably first used in 1916, but it gained popularity in the 1980s after publications by Bourdieu (Bourdieu, Wacquant 2001; Brinkerhoff 2002), Coleman (1988) and Putnam (1995; 2008) (according to Marzec-Holka 2009).

There are three basic approaches to defining social capital: structural – represented by Pierre Bourdieu; functional – by James Coleman; and Robert Putnam's approach based on collective action, collaboration and networks of relationships.

Bourdieu defines capital in the context of two other terms, namely the social field and habitus. He distinguishes the following forms of capital:

- economic capital, i.e. money and material objects that can be used to make products and create services;

- cultural capital consisting of skills, customs, habits, lifestyle;
- symbolic capital comprising symbols used to legitimise the possession of the other forms of capital;
- social capital defined as “the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition” (Bourdieu, Wacquant 2001: 5).

Social capital, as P. Bourdieu understands it, is a private, individual asset. An individual (an actor) can use social capital in different ways, and its potential depends on the field in which an actor functions as well as the actor’s ability to mobilise social capital, which is determined by habitus.

According to J. Coleman, social capital is formed when relationships between individuals change in a way that facilitates action. Obligations towards a given entity are the most important form of social capital. The role of social capital is to serve joint action, not only the individual good. If a given person provides assistance to someone else, he or she has capital in the form of help to be reciprocated in the future. The existence of this capital, as J. Coleman claims, depends on many factors, e.g. the certainty that the help will be reciprocated, the number of entities, and a given individual’s own resources. Another form of capital is represented by information channels, thanks to which an entity in a given social structure may gain access to particularly valuable information (e.g. access to job opportunities facilitated by friends and relatives). Yet another form is the norms of reciprocity and trust, which increase the likelihood of reciprocated relationships between entities. J. Coleman understands social capital as interpersonal co-operation skills within groups and organisations in order to pursue common interests. In his opinion, the concept of social capital rests with the people, their knowledge and skills, and their ability to form groups in order to achieve goals (Przychodzki 2004).

The conceptualisation of social capital, initiated by J. Coleman, is continued by F. Fukuyama whose theory assumes that trust is the essential ingredient of social capital. In his view, trust is “a mechanism based on the assumption that other members of a given community demonstrate honest behaviour and cooperative attitudes based on shared norms”. (Fukuyama 1997: 38-39) Thus, social capital is a skill resulting from the propagation of trust within a society or a part of it. It differs from other forms of human capital in that it is created and distributed by means of various cultural mechanisms such as tradition or religion. The development of social capital depends on the acceptance by members of a given society of certain moral standards such as loyalty, honesty and reliability.

R. Putnam (1995) has a different take on social capital as he believes that the civic attitude in a community has a positive effect on the way institutions operate. Civic attitudes at the regional level lead to voluntarily and consciously undertaken co-operation. According to Putnam, social capital is associated with co-operation facilitating features characterising the way society is organised, namely trust, norms and networks that may increase the efficiency of society and thus facilitate joint action.

In his book *Bowling Alone*, Putnam sought to diagnose the level of social capital in American society, having defined it as ties between individuals – social networks, reciprocity and the resulting trust (Putnam 2008).

In J.M. Brinkerhoff's (Brinkerhoff 2002) concept of partnership, an ideal partnership is defined as a dynamic relationship between various entities, based on mutually agreed objectives pursued thanks to a shared understanding of the most rational division of labour, taking into account the comparative advantage of each partner.

The concept of welfare pluralism, on the other hand, assumes that social benefits should be provided in part by the public sector, in part by the business sector and in part by the voluntary sector, which ensures the possibility of choice as well as efficiency. The proponents of this concept regard diversity as a significant value because it brings additional benefits associated with the possibility of choice. The appearance of the pluralism concept in social policy meant that policies were pursued based on various actors from the public, business and non-governmental sector. This concept is characterised by a departure from social policy conducted exclusively by public institutions and inclusion of non-governmental organisations, international organisations and the beneficiaries themselves. A novelty is that this theory does not question the role of the state in the implementation of social policy; it rather shows the equally important role of the other sectors in the shaping of social well-being. Furthermore, this theory does not indicate the dominant entity (the market, the state, NGOs): they are all on an equal footing (Grewiński 2009: 43).

Partnership-based co-operation in Poland is quite well regulated by law. National regulations concerning partnership are specified in the Constitution of the Republic of Poland (adopted on 2 April 1997), in Article 20, stating that „a social market economy based on freedom of economic activity, private ownership and solidarity, dialogue and collaboration of social partners constitutes the basis of the economic system of the Republic of Poland”. The Act of 20 April 2004 on the Promotion of Employment and Labour Market Institutions also contains a provision concerning local partnerships supporting the labour market. Specifically, it says: “labour market policy implemented by public authorities is based on dialogue and collaboration with social partners, particularly with regard to:

- the activity of employment councils;
- local partnership;
- supplementing and expanding the range of public services by social partners and employment agencies” (Ustawa z 20 kwietnia 2004).

At the level of national legislation, project-based partnerships are subject to the Act on the Principles of Development Policy, dated 6 December 2006, specifically Article 28a that lays down the principles of forming project-based partnerships. It should be emphasised that partnerships may be established only through competitions, within the scope defined by the Managing Authority. The legislative guidelines are set out in detail in the operational programme guidelines, e.g. for the Operational Programme Human Capital, it is a document entitled *The Scope of the Implementation of Partnership Projects Defined by the Managing Authority of the Operational Programme Human Capital*.

The Act on Public Benefit Activity and Volunteer Work of 24 April 2003 (Article 5) specifies the forms and terms of the co-operation of public administration bodies with non-governmental organisations and other entities. The following forms of this co-operation are possible:

- 1) commissioning NGOs and other entities to carry out public tasks;
- 2) mutual notification of all parties concerned about the intended courses of action and areas of co-operation in order to harmonise these actions;
- 3) consulting NGOs and other entities with regard to proposed legislation on issues within the scope of their statutory activity;
- 4) establishing joint teams having an advisory and initiatory role, and consisting of representatives of NGOs and other entities as well as representatives of competent bodies of public administration.

EU documents also mention the involvement of social partners in activities aimed at social security and promotion of social inclusion, particularly at increasing their role in this respect. It is stressed that changes in the area of employment policy should also apply to social partners due to their important role in introducing changes to the labour market (*Strategia Lizbońska* 2002: 14–15).

Strategic Community Guidelines for Cohesion for the years 2007–2013 emphasise the role and significance of partnerships, particularly those established at the local and regional levels, as an important growth factor.

Another document worthy of note is Europe 2020—a Strategy for Intelligent, Sustainable and Inclusive Growth. The Strategy is underpinned by three priorities:

- smart development understood as the development of economy based on knowledge and innovation;
- sustainable development: supporting an effective and environmentally-friendly economy;
- development facilitating social inclusion i.e. supporting an economy with a high employment rate and ensuring economic, social and territorial cohesion.

The EU's regional policy is aimed at reducing disparities in social and economic development between the richest and poorest regions of the EU. The attainment of these goals relies on financing under Structural Funds. The effective and efficient use of these funds largely depends on the observance of the principles underpinning the Community regional policy, i.e. the principle of partnership, solidarity, subsidiarity, effectiveness, sovereignty, and competition and transparency (Głąbicka, Grewiński 2005).

In terms of their scope of functioning, partnerships can be local, regional and international. Based on their legal form, we can distinguish formal, informal and public-private partnerships. Partnership types may vary depending on the parties involved: they may be limited to a specific area of business, or may encompass two or three sectors. Regional project-based partnerships and local three-sector partnerships are examples of mixed partnerships. Depending on the kind of partners, there can be public-private partnerships and public-social partnerships (Hadyński et al. 2006: 15; Partnerstwo Lokalne)

Poland has an opportunity to create a partnership-based model of collaboration between the state and NGOs, where each partner will find their place in activities for the benefit of the society. In order to achieve it, however, we need to become aware of the deficiencies and take measures aimed at removing them.

As P. Frączak and R. Skrzypiec (2006: 23) emphasise there are still many obstacles to the development of broad cross-sectoral co-operation. These obstacles include the treatment of civil society organisations as service providers instead of partners. In the case of cross-sectoral co-operation the state usually performs two functions, partially independent from each other: on the one hand, it becomes one of the partners to co-operation by establishing relations with other sectors, e.g. the non-governmental or business sector; on the other hand, as a lawgiver, the state lays down the terms of this co-operation. The first case can be described as partnership, while in the second case, the actors of societal life are not on an equal footing because the state holds a privileged position. Important barriers to co-operation include focussing on its financial aspects as well as the lack of uniform systems of co-operation based on firm development strategies. Other obstacles include the lack of rules of co-operation matching local needs, inequality of the parties, low level of real competition, difficulties in management, extended decision-making processes, time-consuming procedures, risk of losing autonomy, diluted responsibility, low level of motivation among social workers, poor knowledge and skills, lack of leadership.

Cross-sectoral relationships are impeded by the inequality of the parties: local governments on the one hand and non-governmental organisations on the other. While co-operation with a local government seems to be very important for an NGO (sometimes it is hard to imagine an NGO's survival without the support from the local authorities), local government administration can function and perform its tasks also when it does not cooperate with any organisations (Dudkiewicz, Makowski 2011: 11).

A low level of real competition is a significant problem: local authorities tend to promote the existing organisations based in their municipalities and tender conditions are formulated in a way that favours the „local” organisations.

Other obstacles to building lasting public-social partnership include difficulties in management arising from different organisational cultures of the individual partners, extended (sometimes even protracted) decision-making processes due to the need to consult each important decision, time-consuming procedures, risk of losing autonomy, the responsibility of each partner for the mistakes and obligations of the other partners. The obstacles also exist in people themselves: lack of motivation among local government employees to get involved in such actions, work overload and lack of time, lack of relevant knowledge and skills need to establish real partnership in the local community, and the absence of a leader in the organisation who would take charge of this issue.

According to the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, the most frequent obstacles to the establishment and functioning of local partnerships in Poland are the following:

- 1) Formal and legal barriers:
 - Lack of a legal format for the operation of lasting local social partnerships: the legal format of an association and foundation is not adapted to the unique characteristics of a local partnership;
 - Lack of a precise format of partnership in legislation associated with the functioning of social assistance institutions (social assistance centres including county-level centres) and labour market institutions (employment offices, job centres).
- 2) Cultural and social barriers:
 - Deficit of mutual trust among the Poles;
 - Poor quality of organisational culture in public and civil society organisations. Studies show that many institutions and organisations experience an issue described as poor cognitive flexibility (cognitive dissonance) among some of their representatives. It is manifested in a low level of openness to new views, information or attitudes. Sometimes it can even take the form of avoiding debate. The fact is that when working in partnerships one needs to critically analyse the submitted proposals. Furthermore, an innovative approach to regular tasks and complicated local issues constitutes the essence of partnership.
 - Limited ability to build a group (collective) decision-making system and to implement decisions. Studies show that organisations tend to limit the involvement of their members in decision making. The power to make decisions is often restricted to "insiders", i.e. the inner circle of the leader (Centre for Social Dialogue).

Unfortunately, as studies on social assistance indicate, social workers experience difficulties in their relationship with representatives of local government and central government agencies and non-governmental organisations. Most of the social workers interviewed by the author encountered various kinds of impediments in their dealings with employees of other institutions in their area. The impediments mentioned included excessive bureaucracy, formalised contacts between an institution and other entities, a clear unwillingness to cooperate, lack of procedures governing the co-operation between a social assistance centre and other institutions in a municipality. Co-operation with non-governmental organisations was completely different. The majority of the social workers surveyed who had had experience in co-operation with non-profit organisations did not indicate any difficulties in their dealings with them. What they stressed was that these organisations could not offer much assistance because of their limited funds (Trawkowska 2006: 320–326).

A significant reason for limited cross-sectoral co-operation in the area of social assistance is the lack of joint initiatives, lack of time for co-operation, and a limited number of persons who could initiate joint actions. NGOs and the police are the most active with regard to cross-sectoral co-operation; while healthcare organisations are among the least active. According to M. Komorska, cross-sectoral co-operation in the area of social assistance is impeded by the limited knowledge among social assistance employees with regard to obtaining funds as part of the

partnership as well as the unstable employment situation perceived by social workers. Cross-sectoral co-operation between social assistance institutions with NGOs develops more smoothly as their employees have a greater certainty about the purpose of their activities and the stability of their employment (XIX Convention of the Association of Social Work Schools 2009).

Despite the numerous difficulties associated with the co-operation with other entities, it is worth making the effort to cooperate. Several reasons for building partnerships can be noted:

- 1) No single organisation has sufficient resources and capabilities to solve complex social problems such as unemployment, alcoholism or violence. Such challenges can be tackled only through collaboration with a range of entities specialising in various fields. Co-operation also paves the way for new ideas and a more consistent approach to solving problems of a particular community. More and more often, partnership is regarded as activity which ensures that actions are not duplicated while the gains are maximised.
- 2) Partnership is regarded by the European Union as a means to improve the quality of services and efficacy of actions; therefore it is more likely to receive funding.
- 3) Co-operation is one of the basic tasks of local authorities.

Collaboration between local governments and volunteer organisations is probably among the least appreciated problems in studies devoted to social policy. The matter is all the more important because, under the Act on Local Government, co-operation is one of the basic tasks of local authorities.

According to studies conducted by J. Krzyszkowski (2008: 179) on the attitudes of public and non-governmental sector representatives towards co-operation in the field of social assistance, a number of distinguishing characteristics of these attitudes can be identified. The public sector representatives accepted the participation of non-governmental and private organisations in joint work for the benefit of clients, but under certain conditions. These include the premise that a public sector entity should be the dominant partner because only the representatives of this sector have the expertise and competence to carry out the relevant tasks, and the NGOs should be controlled by the public sector to ensure the high quality of services. Private organisations, on the other hand, should join in the co-operation only if it leads to competition in the services market and, in consequence, raises quality and reduces costs. The leaders of NGOs presented a different view and sought full partnership without losing their autonomy.

The role of partnership is sometimes mistakenly understood as taking over the statutory tasks of local authorities whereas in fact it may only support the work of local authorities. The strength of partnerships lies in the ability to gain a perfect understanding of the circumstances and problems of the local community. For local governments, partnerships are an opportunity to strengthen their ties with NGOs working, for example, for socially excluded groups and individuals. Thus, they can devise a model of action that combines the willing attitude of the authorities and the needs of the neediest members of the local community. Partnerships can also

become a sort of a "governing tool" for local authorities. They can play the role of "centres of research and expert opinions" concerning local affairs, to be used by all the parties concerned (Partnerstwo Lokalne)

The participants of partnerships can be analysed in terms of their strengths and weaknesses. The strengths of the public sector institutions include: the mandate of society, administrative and financial decision-making authority, availability of information sources, creation and enforcement of law. The public sector also has weaknesses such as politicisation, bureaucracy, short-term approach (limited to the current term of office), and corruption. The assets of the voluntary sector include sensitivity to social and community matters, enthusiasm and dedication of NGO members, independence, and expertise. On the downside, it is characterised by financial instability, lack of credibility and professional image. The business sector has funds at its disposal, creates jobs and shows innovation and professionalism, but is regarded as profit-driven, egoistic and characterised by low social sensitivity (Serafin et al. 2005).

The key advantages of partnership include sharing experiences among partners, getting to know each other, improving partners' efficacy through joint action as well as access to other methods of action and a greater pool of resources, knowledge and skills, which enables the generation of more ideas. Partnership effectively constitutes a new entity that is stronger than an individual alone and enables dealing with more complicated tasks. The major disadvantages of partnership include difficulties in management arising from different organisational cultures of the individual partners, extended (sometimes even protracted) decision-making processes due to the need to consult each important decision, and the responsibility of each partner for the mistakes and obligations of the other partners. Furthermore, working in a team requires the adjustment of the personal preferences and working styles of partners; such work is usually time-consuming and may lead to the loss of autonomy.

Conclusion

Nowadays, the entire society is affected by huge changes resulting from globalisation and Poland's accession to the European Union. In view of these changes, manifested, for example, in a greater openness of the local community, the co-operation between entities based inside and outside this community has become particularly important. One of the forms of co-operation is local partnership aimed at bringing together various entities that will work for the development of local communities. However, the implementation and adaptation of the idea of partnership to Polish conditions is not free from difficulties and obstacles of an institutional, legal and mental nature (Krzyszowski, Marks 2006; Juros, Biały, 2009; Kanios 2012).

Bibliography

Bourdieu P., Wacquant L.J.D. (2001), *Zaproszenie do socjologii refleksyjnej*, Oficyna Naukowa, Warsaw, ISBN 8388164333.

- Brinkerhoff J.M. (2002), *Government – nonprofit partnership: a defining Framework*, "Public Administration and Development", no. 1(22), ISSN 02712075.
- Dudkiewicz M., Makowski G. (2011), *Współpraca między organizacjami pozarządowymi i administracją samorządową. Problemy, wyzwania i rekomendacje*, <http://www.isp.org.pl/uploads/filemanager/Program%20Spolesnstwa%20Obywatelskiego/ISPeksperyza1BibPoz.pdf>, date access: 28.08.2013.
- Frączak P., Skrzypiec R. (2006), *Analiza wybranych warunków współpracy administracji publicznej z organizacjami pozarządowymi*, [in:] M. Rymśza, P. Frączak, R. Skrzypiec, Z. Wejman (eds.), *Standardy współpracy administracji publicznej z sektorem pozarządowym. Ekspertyza przygotowana na zlecenie Ministerstwa Pracy i Polityki Społecznej*, MPiPS, Warsaw, ISBN 9788392378266.
- Fukuyama F. (1997), *Zaufanie. Kapitał społeczny a droga do dobrobytu*, PWN, Warsaw - Wrocław, ISBN 8301124881.
- Geisler R. (2008), *Partnerstwo instytucji. Wprowadzenie*, [in:] P. Gogolok (ed.), *Partnerstwo instytucji przeciw wykluczeniu społecznemu – analiza badawcza*, RCEZ - CKUP, Rybnik, ISBN 9788392644040.
- Głębicka K., Grewiński M. (2005), *Polityka spójności społeczno-gospodarczej Unii Europejskiej*, „Elipsa”, Warsaw, ISBN 8371516819.
- Grewiński M. (2009), *Wielosektorowa polityka społeczna. O przeobrażeniach państwa opiekuńczego*, WSP TWP, Warsaw, ISBN 9788361121091.
- Hadyński J., Kozera M., Lipińska I., Mizerska H., Słodowa-Hełpa M. (2006), *Strategie zarządzania współpracą*, AR im. A. Cieszkowskiego, Poznań, ISBN 838988772X.
- Hudson B. (1987), *Collaboration in Social Welfare: A. Framework for Analysis*, "Policy and Politics", vol. 15, no. 1, ISSN 17471346.
- Jarosz E. (2008), *Współdziałanie wielosektorowe – współczesny paradygmat interwencji podejmowanych w środowisku lokalnym wobec rodzin problemowych*, [in:] B. Kromolicka (ed.) *Pedagog społeczny w meandrach środowiska lokalnego*, USz, Szczecin, ISBN 9788392831105.
- Juros A., Biały A. (2009), *Diagnoza w zakresie współpracy instytucji rynku pracy oraz pomocy i integracji społecznej na rzecz rozwoju ekonomii społecznej na Lubelszczyźnie*, www.los.lublin.pl, date access: 4.04.2014.
- Kanios A. (2011), *Partnerstwo społeczne szansą na zbudowanie nowej formy współpracy międzysektorowej w obszarze pomocy społecznej – rzeczywistość czy utopia?* „Praca Socjalna”, no. 1, ISSN 08603480.
- Kanios A. (2012), *Przemiany społeczno-edukacyjne środowisk lokalnych Lubelszczyzny zaangażowanych w polsko-duńska współpracę partnerską*, UMCS, Lublin, ISBN 9788377842058.
- Kawula S. (1999), *Wsparcie społeczne*, [in:] D. Lalak, T. Pilch (eds.), *Elementarne pojęcia pedagogiki społecznej i pracy socjalnej*, „Żak”, Warsaw, ISBN 8388149121.
- Kromolicka B. (2008), *Wprowadzenie*, [in:] B. Kromolicka (ed.), *Pedagog społeczny w meandrach środowiska lokalnego*, USz, Szczecin, ISBN 9788392831105.
- Krzyszowski J. (2008), *Pomoc społeczna. Szkic socjologiczny*, IRSS, Warsaw, ISBN 9788389665065, 9788389665065.
- Krzyszowski J., Marks M. (2006), *Partnerstwo międzysektorowe na rzecz aktywizacji środowiskowej pomocy społecznej. Badania w województwie łódzkim*, [in:] *Twoja wiedza-Twój sukces. Edycja 2005. Edukacja kluczem do przyszłości*, KG OHP, Warsaw ISBN 836039082X.
- Marzec-Holka K. (2009), *Kapitał społeczny jako predyktor konstruowania rzeczywistości w środowisku lokalnym*, [in:] K. Marzec-Holka (ed.), *Kapitał społeczny a nierówności – kumulacja i redystrybucja*, UKW, Bydgoszcz, ISBN 9788370967109.
- Paper delivered at the XIX Convention of the Association of Social Work Schools in Lublin on 20-21 October 2009, entitled: *Praktyka pracy socjalnej w kontekście aktywnej polityki społecznej*. Partnerstwo Lokalne, CPS Dialog, http://www.dialogspoeczny.pl/files/Partnerstwo_wkladkaA3_final%281%29.pdf, date access: 4.04.2014.

- Pilch T. (1999), *Środowisko*, [in:] D. Lalak, T. Pilch (ed.), *Elementarne pojęcia pedagogiki społecznej i pracy socjalnej*, „Żak”, Warsaw, ISBN 8388149121.
- Przychodzki Z. (2004), Znaczenie kapitału społecznego w rozwoju, [in:] A. Jewtuchowicz (ed.) *Wiedza, innowacyjność, przedsiębiorczość a rozwój regionów*, UŁ, Łódź, ISBN 8371717628.
- Putnam R. (1995), *Demokracja w działaniu. Tradycje obywatelskie we współczesnych Włoszech*, Znak, Kraków, ISBN 8370064264.
- Putnam R. (2008), *Samotna gra w kręgle. Upadek i odrodzenie wspólnot lokalnych w Stanach Zjednoczonych*, WAiP, Warsaw, ISBN 9788360807361.
- Radzewicz-Winnicki A. (2008), *Pedagogika społeczna w obliczu realiów codzienności*, WAiP, Warsaw, ISBN 9788360501481.
- Radzewicz-Winnicki A. (2009), *Ideologia a partycypacja społeczna. Rola i znaczenie kapitału społecznego*, [in:] K. Marzec-Holka (ed.) *Kapitał społeczny a nierówności – kumulacja i redystrybucja*, UKW, Bydgoszcz, ISBN 9788370967109.
- Rymsza M. (2005), *Partnerzy służby publicznej? Wyzwania współpracy sektora pozarządowego z administracją publiczną w świetle doświadczeń amerykańskich*, „Trzeci Sektor – Partnerstwo czy Konkurencja”, no. 3, ISSN 17332265.
- Serafin R., Kazior A., Jarzębska A. (2005), *Grupy partnerskie. Od idei do współdziałania. Praktyczny poradnik*, Fundacja Partnerstwo dla Środowiska, Kraków, ISBN 8392215451.
- Sobolewski A., Krzewicka R., Och G., Olszowska-Urban J., Piekutowski J., Podławiak G., Sobolewski T. (2007), *Przez współpracę do sukcesu. Partnerstwo lokalne na rzecz rynku pracy*, MPiPS, Warsaw, ISBN 8360302324.
- Strategia Lizbońska. Droga do sukcesu zjednoczonej Europy* (2002), https://www.slaskie.pl/STRATEGIA/strat_L.pdf, date access: 4.04.2014.
- Trawkowska D. (2006), *Portret współczesnego pracownika socjalnego. Studium socjologiczne*, „Śląsk”, Katowice, ISBN 837164440X.
- Unpublished materials of the Centre for Social Dialogue at the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy: *Dialog społeczny jako platforma terytorialnych paktów aktywizujących rynki pracy*.
- Ustawa o promocji zatrudnienia i instytucjach rynku pracy z 20 kwietnia 2004 roku, 2004, no. 99, position 1001, <http://isap.sejm.gov.pl/DetailsServlet?id=WDU20040991001>, date access: 11.08.2013.
- Winiarski M. (2004), Edukacja środowiskowa – istota, wymiary, aktualne problemy, [in:] S. Kawula (ed.), *Pedagogika społeczna. Dokonania – aktualności – perspektywy*, Adam Marszałek, Toruń, ISBN 8373228675.
- Wódz K., Wódz J. (2007), *Partnerstwo społeczne i kultura dialogu – droga do przezwyciężenia deficytu demokratycznego w UE*, [in:] K. Wódz (ed.), *Negocjowana demokracja, czyli europejskie governance po polsku*, „Scholar”, Warsaw, ISBN 9788373831472.
- Zybała A. (2008), *Siła lokalnego partnerstwa: lepsze zarządzanie, celniejsze diagnozy*, [in:] W. Misztal, A. Zybała (eds.), *Partnerstwo społeczne – model rozwoju Polski*, CPS „Dialog”, Warsaw, ISBN 9788392620358.

Cross-Sectoral Partnership for Solving Social Problems and Promoting Social Work: A Natural Need or a Necessity?

Łukasz Cywiński, Krzysztof Czekaj

Abstract

Various cycles of social development are characterised by various stages of social organisation, disorganisation and reorganisation. Social disorganisation and repeated organisation – that is: reorganisation, is specifically gaining importance and impact in societies affected by continuous social changes. The most thorough analyses focused on all aspects of disorganisation in social life, including social phenomena and problems, were contributed by researchers representing both sexes, originating from or related to Hull House and Jane Addams, Mary E. Richmond, as well as the Chicago school of sociology of the 1920s and 1930s. The current study is primarily focused on cross-sectoral partnership aimed at addressing social problems as well as social work. The first step in determining and addressing social problems in the context of cross-sectoral partnership will be to analyse these notions. Further, we will outline issues related to social research in the context of social policy and social practice. By making reference to the traditions of cross-sectoral cooperation between institutions involved in social care and work, we will contextualise the ways of addressing social problems in Poland, both with regard to the Social Assistance Act as well as in relation to the results of problem studies and resources available for these purposes, within the scope of widely understood social policy. These analyses will provide us with answers to the question stated in the title of the current paper: cross-sectoral partnership is not only a natural and historically-proven need but also a necessity if we adopt a more contemporary perspective with its institutions of social support.

Key words: social problems, social issues, social welfare, cross-sectoral cooperation, social institutions

Introduction

Various cycles of social development are characterised by various stages of social organisation, disorganisation and reorganisation. Social disorganisation and repeated organisation – that is: reorganisation, is specifically gaining importance and impact in societies affected by continuous social changes. The most thorough analyses focused on all aspects of disorganisation in social life, including social phenomena and problems, were contributed by researchers representing both sexes, originating from or related to Hull House and Jane Addams, Mary E. Richmond, as well as the Chicago school of sociology of the 1920s and 1930s. (Czekaj 2007). The current study is primarily focused on cross-sectoral partnership aimed at addressing social problems as well as social work. The first step in determining and addressing social problems in the context of cross-sectoral partnership will be to analyse these notions. Further, we will outline issues related to social research in the context of social policy and social practice. By making reference to the traditions of cross-sectoral cooperation between institutions involved in social care and work, we will contextualise the ways of addressing social problems in Poland, both with regard to

the Social Assistance Act as well as in relation to the results of problem studies and resources available for these purposes, within the scope of widely understood social policy. These analyses will provide us with answers to the question stated in the title of the current paper: cross-sectoral partnership is not only a natural and historically-proven need but also a necessity if we adopt a more contemporary perspective with its institutions of social support.

Social problems: selected definitions and clarifications

In the process of defining the role of cross-sectoral cooperation for the purposes of dealing with social problems and social work it is essential to define, at least in passing, the social problems themselves. Various sources offer various defining approaches.

Krzysztof Frysztacki in his encyclopaedic review of the issue emphasises, while pointing out its interdisciplinary character, the key connection between considerations and studies in this area on the one hand, and the development of sociological thought on the other (Frysztacki 2000: 205–208). While constructing his approach, Frysztacki observes that: "(...) this connection manifests itself at two clearly distinctive levels: a broader one, known as the empirical-conceptual level, and the other one—consisting in a more specifically understood theoretical framework (Frysztacki 2000: 205). K. Frysztacki, like many other researchers—to mention positions proposed by Lucjan Miś (2007) or Andrzej Gaberle (1993), makes reference to the following notions: deviation, (social) pathology, disorganisation, and anomia as constituents of the general understanding of the notion of "social problem".

The complex nature of the dispute which has arisen around the definition of the term as well as approaches and lines of thought concerning this issue is best illustrated by the remark Frysztacki made: "The way we understand social problems is well reflected in the two following definitions. »A problem arises when we come to realise the discrepancy between how things are and how they should be«" (Dentler 1967: 3).

"A social problem means the conditions that groups see as meaningful in a given community and defined as a deviation from certain social standards or a breach of standards which, in the opinion of the members of these groups, should be respected if human life, as well as the order of activities and events which define and solidify this life, are to be preserved" (Dentler 1967: p. 5). Thus, the condition which determines the emergence of a social problem is the state of awareness. The emerging and intensifying feelings of anxiety, fear and protest constitute the mechanism of identifying problems and placing them in a social context (Frysztacki 2000: 205; Dentler 1967).

In sociology, considerations and discussions concerning the identification of social problems are associated with a vast theoretical background thoroughly reviewed by Krzysztof Frysztacki, Lucjan Miś and other Polish sociologists (Kowalak 1999; Giza-Poleszczuk, Marody, Rychard 2000; Czekaj, Gorlach, Leśniak 1999).

For the purpose of this study, one could resort to the definition proposed by Paul B. Horton and Gerard R. Leslie, who state that: "A social problem is an undesirable condition or situation affecting a large number of people in a society, about which something should and can be done through collective action" (Sztumski 2010: 49).

Another important contribution comes from Richard W. Maris, mentioned by the Polish expert and author of *The Sociology of Social Problems*—Krzysztof Frysztacki. Richard W. Maris observes that „Social problems can be defined as general patterns of human behaviour or social conditions that are perceived to be threats to society by a significant number of the population, powerful groups or charismatic individuals, and that could be resolved or remedied" (Frysztacki 2009: 20; Maris 1988: 6–11).

Social problems and phenomena in the urban environment are frequently perceived as social facts in studies on the subject. As Manuel Castells put it: "Each »urban problem« is defined (...) by its place in a conjuncture of a given urban system. This determines both its social significance and how it is dealt with in social practice" (Castells 1982: 278). M. Castells, in his major study of urban problems, offers an extensive review of theoretical tools used in research into social policy (Castells 1982: 273–288). Later studies and applications of social policy in a number of EU countries (Castells 1982: 288–336) clearly support the need for the development and implementation of its comprehensive models as only such models may lead to achieving the full scope of social goals in communes and municipalities. Another observation comes from Janusz Sztumski, according to whom "Social problems are social facts—that is: they exist objectively regardless of study methods and the condition of theory (...). These are facts, which, owing to their very presence, and the resulting consequences for collective life provoke social objection or outrage" (Sztumski 2010: 51).

Stefan Nowak stated that the researcher "can also notice a certain social problem, that is: a discrepancy between what is and what one would like it to be, or—between the actual state of affairs and the one regarded as desirable, even when the problem is not realised by the members of a given community" (Nowak 1985: 29).

This issue is further considered by Adam Rosół, who in his analysis points out the close relationship between social change and the social problem, adding that: "Social problems which occur within a particular organisation of collective life result in attempts at institutional adjustments in order to satisfy needs that arise and, consequently, to modify the existing solutions within the social order" (Rosół 1997: 36–43). The same author made yet another convincing proposition, according to which: "Change transforms previous social problems, yet above all, it creates a number of completely new ones which did not exist before the process of change began. Any intellectual insight into, or definition of the situation, will do nothing to prevent new problems which will emerge within the process of social change that has been launched. In other words: it is impossible to find out, know and fully understand, prior to the change, the essence of social problems generated by this change" (Rosół 1997: 38).

Sociologists vary in their ideas as to the range of phenomena related to social disorganisation, including that of the social problem, yet in most cases, they would accept the descriptive definition proposed by Marian Malikowski, who claims that “fundamental problems of contemporary Poland include: social pathology – organised crime and juvenile delinquency in particular, family pathology as well as black economy; unemployment, poverty, homelessness and related problems of accommodation (a shortage of living premises, which contributes to the intensification of various pathologies); neuroses and mental conditions; certain somatic illnesses; age-related problems; problematic adaptation to new conditions experienced by a large number of people, passivity and helplessness – or at least limited self-resourcefulness and self-support, low level of environmental awareness among the society resulting in the increasing degradation of the natural environment combined with inhumane attitudes to animals; social conflicts and, in particular, a limited ability to solve these” (Malikowski 1997: 9).

One of the central problems linking sociology with social policy is the category of social issue. Jan Danecki observes that “if sociology has been defined as a general study of society, then the distinctive feature of the cognitive perspective of social policy is its focus on social issues and the ways they can be mitigated and solved. This lies at the very core of studies on social policy broadly understood as all activities aimed at removing obstacles impeding the process of improving the quality of life in its various manifestations and dimensions of social coexistence” (Danecki 1998: 23). The very notion of social issue is, however, defined somewhat inconsistently and ambiguously. In view of the current study it is essential to understand the idea of social issue as “a problem of the highest level of severity, which generates critical situations in the lives of individuals and communities, therefore resulting in permanent disturbances in social functioning” (Auleytner, Głabicka 2001: 12). In the European perspective, the notion of social issue resembles that of social marginalisation or social exclusion.

Lucjan Miś, when analysing the problem, remarks that “old encyclopaedias of sociology listed the term: »social problems«, while the most recent publications of this type either ignore the notion or refer to it as »social issues«” (Miś 2007: 19).

Modern American handbooks use these terms interchangeably, when mentioning just the two. James William Coleman and Harold R. Kerbo (2009) claim that “a social problem exists when a *significant* number of people believe that a certain condition is in fact a problem” (Coleman, Kerbo 2009: 2). They also emphasise yet another definition, which specifies that „a social problem exists where there is a sizable difference between the ideals of a society and its actual achievement” (Coleman, Kerbo 2009: 2).

William Kornblum, Joseph Julian, and Carolyn D. Smith define a social problem as “behaviour that departs from established norms and social structures because individual and collective goals are not being achieved; a condition that a significant number of people believe should be remedied through collective action” (Kornblum, Julian, Smith 2010: 541). And finally the definition by D. Stanley Eitzen,

Maxine Baca Zinn and Kelly Eitzen Smith (2014), as they “consider social problems to be:

- 1) societally induced conditions that cause psychological and material suffering for any segment of the population and
- 2) acts and conditions that violate the norms and values found in society. The distribution of power in society is the key to understanding these social problems” (Eitzen, Zinn, Smith 2014: 10, 2-10, 353-367).

This understandably limited selection of definitions of social problems and related issues lays out the context for their proper understanding both within the Polish system of social care as well as outside of it. In the current study these notions will be used interchangeably to denote the meaningful differences between the ideals of a civil society and their reflection in social reality.

From the definitions of social phenomena and problems to social policy and planning

The presented review of social problems, issues and phenomena has already revealed that the authors who defined these notions relied on various theoretical and analytical approaches and considered them in the context of several specific disciplines within the domain of social studies. Hence, if only defining these notions provokes discussions giving rise to various positions, then researching and addressing these problems requires cooperation and common involvement on the part of several disciplines. Research programmes, particularly those investigating social problems and phenomena must confront several important difficulties. As Stefan Nowak put it: “Social situation therefore determines the scope of sociological research in two ways: firstly – by the very existence of social problems to be understood in their broadest sense as conditions requiring if not change, then at least action, in view of a specific system of values and goals; secondly – by its impact on the awareness and system of values represented by the researcher, as a result of which the researcher notices some problems and neglects others” (Nowak 1985: 29).

Studies into social problems and phenomena should be carried out not only in the moments of special importance for the existence of entire local communities but it seems justified to monitor them on a continuous basis. This may offer access to contrastive studies which, in turn, may play a significant role in constructing and implementing documents supporting local development programmes relevant to these social categories.

It is possible to identify at least two major aims of this type of studies. To begin with, one can attempt to define, recognise and compile an inventory of the problems in questions both in the domain of facts (sociography) as well as opinions, attitudes, states of awareness among members of local communities with regard to social issues and phenomena they are exposed to or affected by. The other aim is of a practical nature, as it addresses the natural needs of local authorities (municipalities as well as rural communes) in terms of professional and possibly comprehensive diagnosis of social problems and phenomena. For one thing, these very needs point to a cross-disciplinary approach to the problem, for another – they require cross-sectoral cooperation in creating and implementing programmes and schemes which would address these issues. Every urban municipality or rural commune should

develop two types of strategic documents, these being a strategy for the integrated development of the local municipality (the Local Government and the Country's Spatial Development Act) and a strategy of solving social problems as well as a social policy strategy at the province level. Both types of documents should be supported by detailed research, which, in view of the fact that they are primarily concerned with society, should be based predominantly on sociological research (Czekaj 2007). The knowledge of research results is crucial not only for achieving final success as well as political and economic changes—both planned and implemented, but also out of consideration for social changes, illustrating the extent of transformation which the local community is undergoing (Frysztański 1997; Malikowski, Solecki 1999).

State policy integrates various kinds of specific policies, among which foreign affairs, economy and social policy are of fundamental importance. According to Julian Auleytner, "social policy is the activity of the state, local governments and NGOs which aims to improve the economic situation, offer protection against life-related risks and to provide equal chances for those groups of society which are economically and socially the weakest" (Auleytner 2000: 16). Antoni Rajkiewicz proposes an even more general perspective as he claims that "social policy is the domain of the activities undertaken by the state as well as other official bodies and social forces which is involved in determining the living conditions of the population and interpersonal relations (particularly in the home and working environment) or, to put it differently, social policy is a targeted activity of the state and other entities determining the living conditions of the population and interpersonal relations" (Rajkiewicz, Supińska, Księżopolski 1996: 24).

When analysing the aims of social policy, the majority of researchers agree as to the following lines of action adopted by state and local government structures: "ensuring equal living and working conditions by addressing the needs of people of various ages, providing equal access to civil rights, removing social inequalities, determining social relations, providing means of protection against life-related risks" (Auleytner 2000: 17-18). The goals of social policy in general are also determined by the areas of social policy understood not only as a domain of practical involvement of the state, but also as an academic discipline.

The following are thus regarded as fundamental areas of social policy:

- 1) population and family policy,
- 2) policy concerning employment issues, wages, working conditions and labour protection,
- 3) housing policy,
- 4) healthcare policy,
- 5) educational policy,
- 6) cultural policy,
- 7) policy of social security and social support,
- 8) environmental policy,
- 9) policy of promoting public safety and counteracting broadly understood social disorganisation and pathology,

- 10) the level of organisation of civil society, civic initiatives, NGOs and umbrella organisations (this area was added by K. Czekaj and A. Niesporek to the original typology proposed by Julian Auleytner).

European social policy, built for several decades, is based on a set of fundamental social principles such as: the principle of subsidiarity, the principle of personal freedom, the principle of self-responsibility, and the principle of solidarity. An important dimension of European social policy is its decentralised character. On the one hand we can witness the development of the European Social Union, at the core of which will lay the common social policy. The Union is to be based on the European social framework and is expected to have at its disposal sufficient means to provide social security and to guarantee equal social conditions for all EU citizens (Głąbicka 1998). On the other hand, European social policy is open to various forms of civic self-organisation, which includes building local social policies, important from the point of view of the social problems and issues of local communities. Decentralisation of social policy is an important signpost not only for European social policy, but also for social policies at the national level (Golinowska 2000). This is also reflected in the approach to local social issues, addressed by strategies which, while being firmly grounded in the social policy of the state, rely heavily on local diagnosis as well as local and regional strategies of development. Obviously, they all draw on a variety of approaches and the interdisciplinary cooperation of local government, academic and economic institutions aiming to solve social problems and issues. One of the crucial aims of activating local communities is the desire to provide their members with genuine control over decisions they consider important for them. It is the creation of attitudes based on partnership and participating forms of local self-government. It gives rise to a policy, which at the level of local community is fully consistent with the mechanism of local democracy, constituting an important element of civic society. "We wish to form a civic society in the fullest sense of these words. One has to overcome a number of difficulties on the way and, contrary to the common opinion, this will not be limited to simply building a political organism or system, even though these are the necessary elements of modern democracy. It is precisely at the level of local communities – cities, towns and districts characterised by a sufficient social potential as well as villages, that the habits of social involvement are formed and the awareness that our joint actions can go a long way can emerge. It is here that people organise themselves, be it formally or informally, to jointly achieve a social goal they consider important; it is here that the principle of social reaction to the hardship experienced by people is put into practice. Civic societies are ones that verify their self-government skills at this basic level of the administrative structure – i.e. in municipalities and communities. This is one of the fundamentals of local democracy" (Wódcz 2002: 9).

The bases for actions which emerge at the local level are also locally defined needs and deficits, issues and problems of a social nature. These are not defined externally from an expert's perspective but rather as a result of combining research and social activation. Sociological research has a specific function to perform in this case. "Such sociological investigation is not just a description or a simple diagnosis. More than that, sociological investigation lays the ground for social action. This approach, overtly orientated towards activation, combining academic requirements concerning

research with the awareness of social usefulness in our Polish conditions is particularly necessary" (Wódcz 2002: 9).

One can also observe a shift in the role of expert-sociologist, whose research has become a starting point for the social debate concerning the aims and forms of local social policy. Anthony Giddens, in his study of local policy, states that the expert is becoming one of many, albeit clearly important, elements of this process (Giddens 2001: 106). Both sociological research as well as social strategies based on it should therefore become an important constituent of local forms of civic self-government, that is: the emergence of new forms of collective decision-making at the local level, promoting the development of various relations not only between institutions of the public sector but also between citizens and these institutions (Goss 2001: 11). This research should attempt to support the development of methods and techniques enabling institutions and organisations to cooperate at the local level in order to finally bring into existence and stimulate what is referred to as *self-organising, interorganisational networks* (Rhodes 1997: 15).

The emergence and development of local civic society, alongside various forms of local activity undertaken by NGOs, which entails the development of local social capital, constitute an important element of local social policy development. Professional review and diagnosis of social problems and issues, and the resulting social policy strategy at the level of municipality or commune, are integral elements of the process of social planning. The notion has been investigated by the most prominent figures of Polish sociological thought: Stanisław Ossowski, Jan Szczepański, Jan Turowski, Stefan Nowak, Aleksander Wallis, and Janusz Ziółkowski. For this very reason, social planning, with its plethora of connotations in various social and economic disciplines, results in frequent misconceptions and misunderstandings. The sociological understanding of social planning must be seen in opposition to individual planning and, as Stanisław Ossowski (1968) and Jan Szczepański (1965) noted, requires that it is treated as an element of social order. Janusz Ziółkowski defines the notion as: "all actions aiming at formulating the policy and programmes for social sectors of economy (such as education, healthcare, national insurance, work of territorial communities) as well as the social aspects of material and economic sectors (industry, housing, public transport)" (Ziółkowski 1972: 33). A later definition, proposed by Jan Malanowski, already perceives social planning as a scientific discipline: "Social planning will be the term denoting an area of knowledge which deals with the conscious transformation of the world surrounding us" (Malanowski 1977). This very process constitutes a framework for the whole cross-sectoral idea of solving social problems and issues at the local level both today and in the future, an idea which on the practical level is complemented by its impact through social work.

Tradition of cross-sectoral cooperation of institutions in social assistance and social work

Social work, as an essential instrument of social assistance provided within the framework of social policy, has since its very beginning been naturally geared to addressing social phenomena, problems and issues affecting individuals, groups,

neighbourhoods and communities. The history of social work shows examples of institutions, local governments, governmental and non-governmental organisations as well as social leaders who at the most opportune moment realised the significance of the idea of cross-sectoral cooperation for the outcomes and quality of assistance provided for individuals and families, neighbourhoods and local communities facing crises or other problematic situations. An important contribution to the transformation of American society through social research, cross-sectoral interaction (even though the term itself was not in use at that time) and practical schemes addressing social problems and phenomena came from Jane Addams, Mary E. Richmond and the Chicago school of sociology in the 1920s and 1930s. Relying on their diversified research design, teams headed by Jane Addams and researchers representing the Chicago school of sociology, thanks to adopting a pragmatic approach, diagnosed a vast array of social problems and phenomena emerging in dynamically evolving capitalist cities in the United States, laying the ground for state and municipal programmes addressing these problems and phenomena. However, for a number of reasons mentioned by K. Czekaj in his first monograph on the Chicago school published in the Polish language (Czekaj 2007). Jane Addams and her team were to a larger extent orientated towards practical and cross-sectoral solutions of social problems, compared to the Chicago school of sociology. By introducing the concepts of pragmatism and pacifism into practice she established *Hull House* – a Chicago-based institution providing social assistance, modelled on London's *Toynbee Hall*. Opened to the general public in 1889, *Hull House* was managed by Jane Addams for the next 40 years, during which time she developed model forms of work with distressed individuals and groups, involving all partner bodies and individuals who wished to contribute, therefore laying the foundations for democratic civic society. *Hull House*, being a place where the concept of social work was put into practice in all its contemporary manifestations, was clearly an institution conducting the first systematic sociological studies based in a large urban area, which were broadly used by sociologists representing the Chicago school.

It is an undeniable fact that the first empirical and, what is more, cross-sectoral social studies in the city environment were carried out with the important contribution of the *Hull House* staff. It was the first and clearly not the last example of cross-sectoral cooperation addressing the problems of people in need of social assistance and support in Chicago and the USA. The residential premises of Chicago, located around Halsted Street, were at that time in a dilapidated state and grossly overcrowded, which produced more social hazards. Residential houses built in the 19th century were now being divided into smaller units to provide the owners with maximum income from the new influx of immigrants in desperate need of cheap accommodation. In 1893, the US Department of Labor commissioned research into the living conditions of the city's inhabitants with Jane Addams at *Hull House*. *Hull House* residents, supervised by Jane Addams, conducted the research which was focused on the quality of life and housing in order to prepare necessary input for future reforms. Jane Addams claimed that the proper functioning of community houses was directly connected with scientific research, which was to prepare a social change, understood not only from a sociological perspective but also in the context

of social work and other disciplines of social studies. These results were published in a paper which is currently regarded by a number of authors, regardless of their sex, as a model for further research at the Chicago school. *Hull House* was published in 1895, two years prior to *Suicide*—the first European empirical study in sociology by Emil Durkheim (1897). *Maps and Papers* with a prefatory note by Jane Addams came complete with two maps: a map of the ethnic minorities of Chicago and a six-colour Chicago map of poverty and wages. It was the first, admittedly quite professional and successful, attempt at making a diagnosis of social problems and phenomena in a large American urban settlement for the purposes of social practice seen in its broadest sense. Agnes Sinclair Holbrook in her paper *Map notes and comments* described, among other things, the complete mapping technique. The first map presented a spatial distribution of nationalities of Chicago (Czekaj 2007). The other featured in this historical work showed the wages of residents inhabiting the investigated areas of Chicago. The unit of investigation for the study in question was not an individual, but the family as a primary social group. The publication of the book in 1895 opened up discussion concerning the usefulness of maps as a means of presenting data, facts and opinions. Since that time, mapping has become a hallmark of research publications published by *Hull House*. The series of pioneering studies of this kind also included *The Delinquent Child and the Home*—a study of child and juvenile delinquency in Chicago in the period 1899–1909, conducted by Sophonisba P. Breckinridge and Edith Abbott (Breckinridge, Abbott 1912).

This empirical study focused on children and adolescents at risk of criminality as well as juvenile delinquents of Chicago in the period from 1899 to 1909, and covered a population of 14183 persons representing both sexes (including 2770 girls). Being a monographic study of the problem, the paper also offers a summary of the ten-year period of the first juvenile court based in Cook County, which was established on 1 July 1899. Prior to this date, children and juvenile delinquents were treated and punished as adult offenders. The introduction to the study, written by Julia C. Lathrop, offers a fascinating depiction of the court itself which was a kind of closed system with separate cells for young offenders and floors for detainees in a facility closely resembling detention centres for juvenile offenders appearing in court. In 1912 Lathrop, a resident of *Hull House*, was appointed director of the Federal Children's Bureau (by a vote of 173 to 17 at the Federal Bureau of Investigation). This analysis of socially maladjusted children, carried out with regard to the living environment and local communities, laid down some elements of a programme of changes to be necessarily implemented in order to stimulate human advancement among these groups and promote cultural development. This work is an excellent example of a pragmatic approach combined with social work and social rehabilitation, therefore constituting the best example of not only an interdisciplinary approach to juvenile delinquency, but also to a cross-sectoral cooperation aimed at combating this acute social problem.

The third example of research study orientated towards practical applications undertaken by sociologists of *Hull House* was *Truancy and Non-Attendance in the Chicago Schools*—monograph by E. Abbott and S. Breckinridge published in January 1917 (Abbott, Breckinridge 1917; reprint 1970). The work offers interesting insight into the process of social change with regard to the introduction of compulsory

education for children in the state of Illinois as well as its social context and consequences. The authors present a systematic analysis of the problem which comes after an insightful and detailed review of the legal and educational system as well as educational administration in the process of implementing in-depth educational reform in this US state. After analysing a wealth of materials sourced from a number of public, state, and federal institutions, the authors formulate directives addressing, among other things, legislation concerning a compulsory school age as well as legal protection of children's and adolescents' right to education. One of the directives in question referred to raising the compulsory age of school education while at the same time outlawing the employment of minors under 16 years of age (the statutory limit being 14 years of age). The authors further recommended that the authority to issue documents required to take up employment by a minor be shifted from the level of school to the level of state educational authorities. Finally, the paper lists examples of initiatives undertaken with a view to assisting children subject to compulsory school education not only by supplying free coursebooks for children from lower-income groups, but for all children regardless of their financial status, as well as the provision of free meals to be distributed at schools. Both authors were presented as members of the team of researchers at the University of Chicago and, in particular, as directors of the Institute of Social Science at the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy.

Another goal pursued by Hull House was the protection of children against slave labour in sweatshops as children were often forced to contribute to the meagre wages earned by their parents. Hull House residents both organised and joined trade unions and women's reform groups in order to lobby for state regulations governing or, in fact, prohibiting child labour. Florence Kelly, who joined Hull House in 1891 and waged a systematic campaign against this system of child abuse and child labour, was later appointed the first State Inspector for industrial enterprises in the state of Illinois and the President of the National Consumers' League. The Immigrants' Protective League (IPL) established in 1908 provided newcomers with legal advice on the new and restrictive immigration law. Another HH resident—Doctor Alice Hamilton, investigated “lead exposure and related illnesses in industrial facilities” and contributed to defining the scope of occupational safety and health (in her publication *Exploring the Dangerous Trades. The Autobiography of Alice Hamilton M.D.*).

The residents of Hull House offered regular support for local workers—with their attitude and commitment, as was the case at the time of establishing the Chicago Women's Trade Union League (an organisation calling for the 8-hour working day, fair wages sufficient for decent living, and household support, to name just a few) or when they participated in numerous strikes. Ellen Gates Starr offered advice to waitresses and female workers employed in the lingerie sector, for which she was almost arrested as she was about to join their protest. HH residents advocated equal rights for men and women. In 1912 Jane Addams publically announced her support for Theodore Roosevelt who was running for the US presidency as his party represented all the values associated with progress. As part of her involvement in the fight for women's rights, Addams helped set up the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) in April 1912. During conferences held by HH, as well as on many

other occasions, she appeared as an outspoken advocate of civil rights for the black minority. In 1911 she had already written articles for “The Crises Magazine” which dealt with Afro-American issues. These are only selected examples of the support provided by Hull House residents in the interdisciplinary approach to addressing social problems.

People connected with Hull House were actively engaged in local social policy and reforms. Prior to the outbreak of World War 1 in 1914, during the Progressive Era, HH residents joined other reformers in local, state, national or civil coalitions aiming to improve the living conditions of all American citizens (Czekaj 2013b: 75–103). They proved that solving social problems is directly connected with forming coalitions of all forces and groups demonstrating sensitivity to human suffering and hardship which together, are able to cope with the most complex social issues. Their actions constitute an argument supporting the claim that such activity is indispensable when it comes to the social approach to addressing social problems.

This collection of arguments and examples supporting the role of an interdisciplinary and cross-sectoral approach to solving social problems would certainly not be complete without mentioning another prominent US figure of that period. Diagnosing social problems and phenomena in social assistance with a view to restoring human capital in socially deprived districts and cities, since the very first days of social work was the object of accurate and professional analysis from Mary Richmond, who apart from a wealth of articles and papers, authored three books which remain relevant to this day. *Friendly Visiting among the Poor. A Handbook for Charity Workers* published in 1899, is a handbook with comprehensive advice and practical tips (reprinted several times, in the first year of publication as well as in 1903, 1906, 1907, with the last edition being published in 2010). As a social work teacher, Richmond emphasised the role of social research in practical applications for social workers (Czekaj 2013a: 131–153). The most famous of her works was *Social Diagnosis* published in 1917—a handbook of social problem research, in which interdisciplinary and cross-sectoral cooperation of all social forces in providing help for people facing various problem situations constitutes the basis for intervention and change. Another book worth a mention is *What is Social Case Work? An Introductory Description* dating back to 1922 (Richmond 1922). So far, these works have not been translated into the Polish language, even though the range of contemporary analysis of methodological aspects of diagnosing social problems and phenomena in Poland is fairly limited. Still, the short list includes several works by Anna Kotlarska-Michalska (2003, 1999) and Barbara Szatur-Jaworska (2005).

Social problems in contemporary social care: from a legal act to social practice of their solving in the context of cross-sectoral co-operation

Familiarity with urban social phenomena and social problems is the basis of forming an urban social policy. Defining the social problems of a city or commune is essential for the proper functioning of the city administrative system. This practice is an integral element of planning activities of a majority of EU member states. Social assistance in contemporary Poland is an institution established in 1990 to help individuals and families who found themselves in a difficult situation and are not

able to overcome it by their own means, possibilities and entitlement. A whole range of phenomena, nowadays regarded as social problems that marginalize or lead to marginalization, have been subjected to the new instruments of practical implementation of social policy in Poland, i.e. laws and regulations. They were also dealt with in the new Social Assistance Act of 12 March 2004 and its subsequent amendment of 2011 (Social Assistance Act 2004: 3737-3780). General tasks of the state social assistance system, including those that combat marginalisation, are found in Article 15 which states that social assistance means, in particular:

- “15(4) an analysis and evaluation of phenomena creating a need for welfare benefits;
- 15(5) the execution of tasks following from the recognised social needs; and
- 15(6) developing new forms of social assistance and self-assistance within the identified needs” (Social Assistance Act 2004: 3742).

Recognition of the needs of the community (urban and rural) is the basis of further planning and implementation activities of the local government. The list of social phenomena and social problems which marginalise, or threaten with marginalisation, has been extended and therefore the inhabitants of Poland can apply for assistance from the local government, which the legislator enclosed in: “Article 7. Social assistance is provided to individuals and families in particular because of:

- 1) poverty;
- 2) orphanhood;
- 3) homelessness;
- 4) unemployment;
- 5) disability;
- 6) long-term condition;
- 7) violence in the family;
- 8) need for protection of motherhood or numerous families;
- 9) helplessness in care and educational matters and running a household, especially in single parent or numerous families;
- 10) inability to life adjustment of youth leaving care and educational facilities;
- 11) difficulties in the integration of people with a refugee status;
- 12) difficulties in life adjustment of persons leaving correctional facilities;
- 13) alcoholism or drug addiction;
- 14) random event and crisis situation;
- 15) natural or environmental disaster” (Social Assistance Act 2004: 3739).

All the enumerated social problems and phenomena are to be solved or dealt with by social workers, who even after graduation are not fully prepared to work with people affected by these problems. The tasks a Polish social worker is obliged to perform according to the Social Assistance Act, Article 119 (1) include, in particular:

- 1) social work;
- 2) analysis and evaluation of phenomena which create a need for welfare benefits and qualification of the recipients of those benefits;

- 3) providing information, instruction and aid in solving life situations of people who, thanks to such aid, will be able to solve the problems creating those situations on their own; efficient application of law in the execution of those tasks;
- 4) aid in obtaining, by people in difficult life situations, counseling in matters of solving problems and getting help from proper state and local government institutions and NGOs as well as support in getting help;
- 5) providing aid in accordance with professional ethics;
- 6) stimulating social activity and inspiring self-aid in fulfilling the basic life needs of individuals, families, groups and social communities;
- 7) collaboration with other specialists in countering and limiting social pathology and the effects of negative social phenomena and the alleviation of the results of poverty;
- 8) initiating new forms of aid to individuals and families in difficult life situations and inspiring the creation of institutions providing service to improve the situation of such individuals and families;
- 9) co-participation in inspiring, elaborating, implementing and developing regional and local social welfare programs oriented toward the improvement of the quality of life.

In point 7, the necessity of interdisciplinary and cross-sectoral co-operation was noted as well as the objectives of this co-operation of the social worker. In the process of social work with different categories of people in a problem situation, social workers should work in teams of specialists (which is one of the techniques of working with a group), collaborating with representatives of various state and local government institutions and NGOs (third sector) as well as with single, competent experts, consultants, evaluators and supervisors in cases of need. Currently, teams of specialists led by social workers are only concerned with problems of violence within the so-called "blue cards" procedure. Social workers in Poland very often adjust to the new situation quite well, not only in team work, but also as leaders of such teams. Other social problems and phenomena, indicated in the Act, often require a similar procedure and team treatment, together with the person concerned, and the family circle indirectly involved in those matters. Unfortunately, the procedure of solving social problems in the Polish welfare system does not require nor even recommend directly, which works best, the creation of task teams, which, for example, could work out a support program with the use of all three methods of direct practice in social work. There is no mention of a wider use of evaluation and supervision in the practice of social assistance, either. Therefore, the need for interdisciplinary and cross-sectoral collaboration is written into the act on social assistance, but unfortunately it is hardly ever implemented. On the other hand, in the amendment to the act on social assistance of 18 March 2011, further points concerning cross-sectoral collaboration in solving social problems were introduced. Here, one has in mind those articles which concern not only the preparation of strategies for solving social problems based on diagnoses, but also those which introduce diagnoses of resources for solving the above mentioned

social problems and phenomena. These recommendations are found in Articles 16a and 16b which state:

- “16a (1) The commune, district, and provincial local government prepare an evaluation of social welfare resources based on the analysis of the local economic and demographic situation.
- 16a (2) The resources mentioned in (1) comprise, in particular, infrastructure, manpower, NGOs and financial expenditure on social welfare tasks, irrespective of the entity providing finance or implementation.
- 16a (3) The evaluation mentioned in (1) comprises individuals and families obtaining social welfare, types of their problems and their quantitative distribution. 16a (4) The executive body of a local government unit reports the evaluation mentioned in (1) each year until 30 April to the commune and district councils, and until 30 June to the provincial council (sejmik). The evaluation and recommendations are the basis for budget planning for the following year”.

The act on social assistance introduces diagnoses of resources based on an analysis of the local social and demographic situation, and thus, indirectly, it points to the necessity of their interdisciplinary and cross-sectoral elaboration; however, a direct reference to other than state or local government forms of social assistance and resources for solving social problems is found in (2) infrastructure, manpower, NGOs and financial expenditure on social welfare tasks, irrespective of the entity providing finance or implementation. One has also noticed a need for an analysis of the demographic situation, which delineates the remaining areas of social policy. Thus, in the diagnosis of the resources for solving social problems different types of entities have been identified, which cannot be said of the diagnoses of social problems and phenomena. In the subsequent part of Article 16 of the Act on social assistance, it is stated:

- “16b (1) The commune and district work out a strategy for solving social problems and the provincial local government works out a strategy for social policy.
- 16b (2) The strategy mentioned in (1) comprises, in particular:
 - 1) a diagnosis of the social situation;
 - 2) a projection of changes within the scope of the strategy;
 - 3) a definition of:
 - a) strategic objectives of the projected changes,
 - b) the directions of the necessary actions,
 - c) the way of the implementation of the strategy and its financial framework,
 - d) indicators of the actions execution.”

One has to note that for the first time, local government at the commune, district, and provincial levels have to elaborate both diagnoses of social problems and diagnoses of the resources available for solving them. Unfortunately, the Act on social assistance does not cover all the problems and phenomena of a particular commune, although occasionally one may have such an impression. After all,

a diagnosis of social problems and phenomena is indispensable from the point of view of a team planning a city budget, a group that must take into account the available means not only for solving current social problems but also future prevention of such problems. Thus, of the nine tasks, four are directly or indirectly connected with the broadly understood needs recognition, problem diagnosis and social planning. The above quoted new tasks of the social worker in Poland – an EU member state – restore the proper place for the essential activity of this category of social service workers, i.e. social work in the restoration of human capital and professional practice of social planning. Such a delineation of the tasks of a social worker indicates the direction of a fundamental mental and organizational change in the system of social assistance. The social worker is no longer a mere administrator of welfare benefits but becomes an active entity in defining the local scope of social policy. In this way, the legislator defined the intervention and prevention tasks which have the relevant basis not only for the objective of social work, i.e. a change, but also the work itself as a method of achieving this change. Three basic methods of social work are indicated for the first time not only as obligatory strategies for achieving change among individuals and groups in a problem situation, i.e. dysfunctional human capital, but also as almost the main tool of social workers' intervention (Social Assistance Act 2004: 3742, art. 45).

The strategies for solving social problems and social policy, developed on the basis of a social situation's diagnoses and deeply rooted in demographic pictures of local communities, with a certain base of resources for solving social problems create a new starting point for their interdisciplinary and cross-sectoral solving within a civil society. For this purpose, social research was conducted in Silesian Province in the years 1997–2012 by a research team led by Krzysztof Czekaj, whose results were presented in a number of publications. An important fact is that this research was commissioned by the local government of a number of cities. The diagnostic research of the social problems and phenomena in those cities was based on the resources of institutions of the social policy sector such as Social Welfare Centres, the District Labour Office, addiction treatment centres, assistance centres for the disabled and others, and justice (offences, adult and juvenile crime). The research on both past and new social policy matters takes into account cross-sectoral data which was also put on maps showing the locations and percentage of the social problems and phenomena, thus allowing for a comparison and preparation of directives and proposals for strategies aimed at social policy and solving social problems (Czekaj 2012; Bartoszek, Czekaj, Trakowska 2012; Czekaj, Niesporek, Zawartka-Czekaj 2009, 2006; Czekaj, Zawartka 2005; Czekaj, Niesporek, Zawartka and all 2002). All the research investigations were concluded with programs and social projects implemented by social workers. The effects of social workers' involvement are not only to constitute input for the development of local strategies for solving social problems – that is: segments of social policy, but they also impose on social work staff a new requirement of professional self-education and self-development. Methods of direct practice in social work will play a particularly important role in the preparation and implementation of social schemes addressed to various groups, including the growing population of elderly people, which clearly and unambiguously define the profile of communities inhabiting Polish cities, towns

and villages. In Western countries, education delivered through various forms of social work with groups of people has already been, for a long time, at the core of tried and tested methods of activating these groups, these methods now requiring to be urgently implemented nationwide.

Cross-sectoral partnership: a natural need or a necessity – final considerations

In conclusion, the need and necessity of social diagnosis and a proper analysis of its results have become an obligation not only for a Polish social worker but also for central and local government officials as well as NGO activists and local leaders. The interdisciplinary and cross-sectoral cooperation aimed at addressing social problems has strongly benefited from the recent possibilities and opportunities – especially in the domain of law. However, the process is delayed due to some historical difficulties and vested interests of particular institutions generally classified into the category of social services. For the purposes of reorganisation of the system of social assistance in Poland, it is both needed and necessary to address social problems at the lowest level of local communities and in line with the cross-sectoral approach (Grewiński, Karwacki 2010). The most important task facing Poland is to stop the process of continuous reforms of the social assistance system since what we can currently observe is in fact its disorganisation under the guise of reorganisation. There is an urgent need for integrated cooperation on the part of institutions representing all ten areas of social assistance. There is no alternative to the cross-sectoral cooperation of all social support providers in the process of solving social problems, in the scope of social assistance as well as – at a more general level – all social phenomena and issues. Sectoral division constitutes a threat of seemingly addressed social problems, social units and groups as well as local communities. Further, it remains necessary to justify, reorganise and empower the social service staff sector so that they will give up administering, and start implementing all methods of direct practice in social work with people struggling in problem situations.

Bibliography

- Abbott E., Breckinridge S. (1917, reprint 1970), *Truancy and Non-Attendance in the Chicago Schools. A Study of the Social Aspects of the Compulsory Education and Child Labor Legislation of Illinois*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, New York.
- Addams J. (1907), *Democracy and Peace*, MacMillan, New York.
- Addams J. (1907), *Newer Ideas of Peace*, MacMillan, New York.
- Addams J. (1910, reprint 1973), *Twenty Years at Hull House, With Autobiographical Notes*, University of Illinois Press, New York.
- Addams J. (1911), *A New Conscience and an Ancient Evil*, University of Illinois Press, New York.
- Addams J. (1930), *The Second Twenty Years at Hull-House*, MacMillan, New York.
- Auleytner J. (2000), *Polityka społeczna pomiędzy opiekuńczością a pomocniczością*, WSP TWP, Warsaw, ISBN 8388278002.
- Auleytner J., Głąbicka K. (2001), *Polskie kwestie socjalne na przelomie wieków*, WSP TWP, Warsaw, ISBN 8388278185, 8371514263.
- Booth Ch. (1892-1902), *Life and Labour of the People of London*, vol. I-XVII, MacMillan, London.

- Breckinridge S.P., Abbott E. (1912), *The Delinquent Child and the Home*, Russell Sage Foundation Charities Publication Committee, New York.
- Castells M. (1982), *Kwestia miejska*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8301028041.
- Coleman J.W., Kerbo H.R. (2009), *Social Problems*, Pearson/Prentice Hal, New York – Montreal, ISBN 9780132448451.
- Czekaj K. (1998, reprint 1999), *The Chicago School of Sociology's heritage in Polish sociology*, [in:] L. Tomasi (ed.), *The Tradition of the Chicago School of Sociology*, Ashgate, Aldershot – Sydney, ISBN 1840144645.
- Czekaj K. (2007), *Socjologia szkoły chicagowskiej i jej recepcja w Polsce*, GWSH im. W. Korfantego, Katowice, ISBN 9788388402937.
- Czekaj K. (2013a), *Reformatorki – sufrażystki – liderki: wybrane osobowości amerykańskiej pracy socjalnej*, [in:] A. Michalska, K. Piątek (eds), *Praca socjalna – jej dyskursy, usytuowania i profile*, „Akapit”, Toruń, ISBN 9788363955045, 9788389914620.
- Czekaj K. (2013b), *Wykonać niemożliwe: Jane Addams – „the founding mother” amerykańskiej pracy socjalnej*, [in:] A. Machalska (ed.), *Kobiety w pracy socjalnej*, UAM, Poznań, ISBN 9788323226390.
- Czekaj K., Gorlach K., Leśniak M. (1999), *Labirynty współczesnego społeczeństwa*, Interart, Katowice, ISBN 8370604056 .
- Czekaj K., Mossakowska T., Niesporek A., Zawartka M. (2002), *Gliwice 2001: Kwestie społeczne górnośląskiego miasta u progu XXI wieku*, „Para”, Katowice, ISBN 8391164780.
- Czekaj K., Niesporek A. (1998), *Atlas problemów alkoholowych miasta Katowice 1997 r. Raport badawczy*, Katowice.
- Czekaj K., Niesporek A., Piekarski M., Zawartka M. (2002), *Częstochowa i problemy społeczne jej mieszkańców na przelomie XX i XXI wieku*, „Para”, Katowice, ISBN 8391164772.
- Czekaj K., Niesporek A., Zawartka M. (2001), *Atlas problemów społecznych miasta Siemianowice Śląskie: 1999/2000, t. 1–2: Problemy alkoholowe; bezrobocie; pomoc społeczna; przestępczość kryminalna. Raport badawczy*, Siemianowice Śląskie.
- Czekaj K., Niesporek A., Zawartka-Czekaj M. (2006), *Świętochłowie. Kwestia społeczna – polityka społeczna – planowanie społeczne*, GWSH im. W. Korfantego, Katowice, ISBN 8388402838.
- Czekaj K., Niesporek A., Zawartka-Czekaj M. (2009), *Ruda Śląska. Od problemów społecznych górnośląskiego miasta do polityki miejskiej*, GWSH im. W. Korfantego, Katowice, ISBN 9788360953037.
- Czekaj K., Sztumski J., Zawartka-Czekaj M. (2006), *Atlas problemów społecznych miasta Tarnowskie Góry 2005, t. 1–2: Problemy alkoholowe; bezrobocie; pomoc społeczna; przestępczość kryminalna*, Raport badawczy, Tarnowskie Góry.
- Czekaj K., Zawartka M. (2005), *Częstochowa. Społeczność lokalna w procesie zmian*, GWSH im. W. Korfantego, Katowice, ISBN 838840282X
- Danecki J. (1998), *Uwagi o kwestiach społecznych*, [in:] G. Firlit-Fesnak (ed.), *Kwestie społeczne na przelomie stuleci*, UW, Warsaw, ISBN 8371512473.
- Dentler R. A. (1967), *Major American Social Problems*, Rand McNally and Company, Chicago.
- Eitzen D. S., Zinn M.B., Smith K.E. (2014), *Social Problems*, Pearson, Boston – Tokyo, ISBN 9780205949182.
- Frąckiewicz L. (ed.) (2005), *Zapobieganie wykluczeniu społecznemu*, AE i ROPS, Katowice, ISBN 8372468737.
- Frysztański K. (1997), *Miasta metropolitarne i ich przedmieścia: z problematyki socjologii miasta oraz badań nad rzeczywistością krakowską*, Universitas, Kraków, ISBN 8370529291.

- Frysztański K. (2000), *Problemy społeczne*, [in:] H. Domański (ed.), *Encyklopedia socjologii*, t. 3, Oficyna Naukowa, Warsaw, ISBN 8388164155, 8385505709.
- Frysztański K. (2009), *Socjologia problemów społecznych*, „Scholar”, Warsaw, ISBN 9788373833906.
- Gaberle A. (1993), *Patologia społeczna*, Wydawnictwo Prawnicze, Warsaw, ISBN 8321906346.
- Giddens A. (2001), *Poza lewicą i prawicą: przyszłość polityki radykalnej*, Zysk i S-ka, Poznań, ISBN 8371508506.
- Giza-Poleszczuk A., Marody M., Rychard A. (2000), *Strategie i system. Polacy w obliczu zmiany społecznej*, IFiS PAN, Warsaw, ISBN 8387632368.
- Głąbicka K. (1998), *Polityka społeczna Wspólnot Europejskich*, WSP TWP, Warsaw, ISBN 8387039926.
- Golinowska S. (2000), *Polityka społeczna: koncepcje, instytucje, koszty*, „Poltext”, Warsaw, ISBN 8386890878.
- Goss S. (2001), *Making Local Governance Work. Networks, Relationships and the Management of Change*, Palgrave MacMillan, New York, ISBN 9780333917886.
- Gouldner A., Miller S. (eds.) (1965), *Applied Sociology. Opportunities and Problems*, Free Press, New York.
- Grewiński M., Karwacki A. (2010), *Pluralizm i międzysektorowa współpraca w realizacji usług społecznych*, MCPS, Warsaw, ISBN 9788391810088, 9788391810089.
- Hull-House Maps and Papers (1895, reprint 1970), *By Residents of Hull-House*, Boston.
- Jahoda M., Lazarsfeld P.F., Zeisel H. (2007), *Bezrobotni Marienthalu*, Oficyna Naukowa, Warsaw, ISBN 9788374590402.
- Jałowicki B. (1972), *Miasto i społeczne problemy urbanizacji*, PWN, Warsaw - Kraków.
- Kojder A. (1987), *Techniki oddziaływań – ekspertyzy naukowe – dyrektywy celowościowe (Przyczynek do socjotechniki rozwiązywania problemów społecznych)*, [in:] *Socjologia problemów społecznych. Teorie i rzeczywistość*, Ossolineum, Wrocław, ISBN 8304024551.
- Kornblum W., Julian J., Smith C.D. (2010), *Social Problems*, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, ISBN 9780205832323.
- Kotlarska-Michalska A. (2003), *Zasady budowy strategii rozwiązywania problemów społecznych*, [in:] K. Marzec-Holka (ed.), *Pomoc społeczna-praca socjalna. Teoria i praktyka*, AB im. Kazimierza Wielkiego, Bydgoszcz, ISBN 8370964656.
- Kotlarska-Michalska A. (ed.) (1999), *Diagnozowanie i projektowanie w pracy socjalnej*, UAM, Poznań, ISBN 8386912073.
- Kowalak T. (1999), *Marginalność i marginalizacja społeczna*, „Elipsa”, Warsaw, ISBN 8371512570.
- Kurczewska J. (ed.) (1999), *Zmiana społeczna. Teorie i doświadczenia polskie*, IFiS PAN, Warsaw, ISBN 838763235X.
- Malanowski J. (1977), *Planowanie społeczne – zagadnienia podstawowe*, [in:] *Człowiek w Pracy i w Osiedlu*, „Biuletyn TWWP”, no. 9/10.
- Malikowski M. (1997), *Problemy społeczne w Polsce a rola i zadania socjologii*, [in:] M. Malikowski (ed.), *Problemy społeczne w okresie zmian systemowych w Polsce. Materiały konferencyjne*, „Mana”, Rzeszów, ISBN 8387232157.
- Malikowski M., Solecki S. (1999), *Socjologia miasta. Wybór tekstów*, „Mana”, Rzeszów, ISBN 8387232254.
- Maris R.W. (ed.) (1988), *Social Problems*, The Dorsey Press, Chicago.
- Miś L. (2007). *Problemy społeczne. Teoria, metodologia, badania*, Kraków, ISBN 9788323323495.

- Misiak W. (1982), *System kulturowy miasta uprzemysłowionego*, Ossolineum, Wrocław – Łódź, ISBN 8304011867. 830401867.
- Nowak S (1985), *Metodologia badań społecznych*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8301048522.
- Ossowski S. (1968), *Spoleczne warunki i konsekwencje planowania społecznego*, [in:] *Dzieła*, t. 5, PWN, Warsaw.
- Park R.E., Burgess E.W., McKenzie R.D. (1925, reprint 1967), *The City*, Chicago-London.
- Podgórecki A. (ed.) (1970), *Socjotechnika. Jak oddziaływać skutecznie*, KiW, Warsaw.
- Podgórecki A. (1966), *Zasady socjotechniki*, WP, Warsaw.
- Podgórecki A. (1999), *Wyjaśnianie i rozwiązywanie problemów społecznych. Ku mega socjologii*, [in:] J. Kozielecki (ed.), *Humanistyka przelomu wieków*, „Żak”, Warsaw, ISBN 8386770996.
- Podgórecki A. (ed.) (1968), *Socjotechnika. Praktyczne zastosowania socjologii*, KiW, Warsaw.
- Rajkiewicz A., Supińska J., M. Księżpolski M. (eds.) (1996), *Polityka społeczna*, Interart, Warsaw, ISBN 8370604269.
- Rhodes R.A.W. (1997), *Understanding Governance, Policy Networks, Reflexivity and Accountability*, Open University Press, Buckingham Philadelphia, ISBN 9780335197279.
- Richmond M. (1917), *Social Diagnosis*, Russell Sage Foundation, New York.
- Richmond M. (1922), *What is Social Case Work? An Introductory Description*, Russell Sage Foundation, New York.
- Rosół A. (1997), *Problem społeczny a zmiana społeczna*, [in:] M. Malikowski (ed.), *Problemy społeczne w okresie zmian systemowych w Polsce. Materiały konferencyjne*, „Mana”, Rzeszów, ISBN 8387232157.
- Rybicki P. (1938), *O badaniu socjograficznym Śląska*, „Nasza Księgarnia”, Katowice.
- Rybicki P., (1972), *Spółczesność miejskie*, PWN, Warsaw.
- Shaw C.R., Zorbaugh F.M., McKay H.D., Cottrell L.S. (1929), *Delinquency Areas: A Study of the Geographic Distribution of School Truants, Juvenile Delinquents, and Adult Offenders in Chicago*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- Szatur-Jaworska B. (2005), *Diagnozowanie w polityce społecznej*, IPIS UW, ASPRA-JR, Warsaw, ISBN 8389964430.
- Szczepański J. (1965), *Refleksje nad planowaniem życia społecznego*, „Więś Współczesna”, no. 6, ISSN 05087414.
- Sztumski J. (2010), *Wstęp do metod i technik badań społecznych*, „Śląsk”, Katowice, ISBN 9788371646454.
- Sztumski J., Wódz J. (eds.) (1985), *Wybrane problemy przeobrażeń społecznych Górnego Śląska*, Ossolineum, Wrocław, ISBN 8304020726.
- The Social Assistance Act of 12 March 2004, [in:] *Journal of Laws*, Warsaw 15 April 2004.
- Turowski J. (2002), *Socjografia*, [in:] K. Frieske at al. (eds.), *Encyklopedia socjologii*, t. 4, Oficyna Naukowa, Warsaw, ISBN 8388164619.
- Wódz J. (2002), *Słowo wstępne*, [in:] K. Czekał, T. Mossakowska, A. Niesporek, M. Zawartka, *Gliwice 2001 – kwestie społeczne górnośląskiego miasta u progu XXI wieku*, Katowice, „Para”, ISBN 8391164780.
- Ziółkowski J. (1972), *Socjologia i planowanie społeczne*, PWN, Warsaw.
- Znaniński F. (1984), *Spoleczne role uczonych*, PWN, Warsaw, ISBN 8301048514.

Digital Technology in Social Problem Solving

Pavel Peřat

Abstract

Digital technology and its implementation are vital in a modern information society. If being used conveniently, it can move the economy and society towards a better standard of life for its citizens. It can help in social problem-solving, giving people cheaper access to information resources, services, digital jobs etc. The positive influence of digital technology on economic growth can be considered proven. However, digital technology has to be used in an appropriate manner. The digital skills possessed by people are important and cannot be omitted from social directed services including such fields as e.g. social work and social services. The digital skills of prospective social workers studying social work at a university bachelor's level were tested by the so-called TIGR – Test of Information Literacy. It was found that the average digital skills in the sample of prospective social workers can be compared with the skills of grammar school pupils around the age of 15. Two large, statistically significant, groups of subjects were identified among of social work students – firstly, a group of subjects without functional digital skills and, secondly, another group of subjects that can be characterised as individuals with functional digital skills. One-third of subjects did not prove that basic practical skills, and their scores in the practical B portion of the test was equal to zero. Such findings imply the need for both theoretical and practical training in the digital technology use at the low skill level of social workers, which should help them to provide social services in an ethic and appropriate way.

Key words: social problems, social issues, digital technology, digital skills

Introduction

Digital technology has become an integral part of a modern, technologically advanced information society. Technology has changed the mode by which we handle with information and data, process it and communicate our findings. Digital technology (DT), often called information and communication technology (ICT), can greatly assist in lowering or even removing obstacles preventing people from engaging fully and effectively in the modern and digital society. DT, if used properly, can make life easier – many services becoming available from the comfort of home. They contribute to our standard of life and drive it upwards. Nobody would return to previous non-internet practices, consuming time to accomplish simple tasks of the everyday life like sending a short message via pigeon or even telegram, making bookings and reservations, small banking etc. – today we prefer on-line services, chat, e-mail etc. However, there are still people that cannot benefit from DT because of their lack of interest, skills, opportunities or even social or educational support (Rambousek 2013). They slowly drop to the ground of the digital divide, becoming digitally disadvantaged individuals. There are many questions arising within this issue, e.g. “Is the DT available to socially disadvantaged people?” However, the core question of this paper is as follows: “Are the university students enrolled in study programmes targeting social area ready to use and deploy DT in their future social work practice?”

The Digital Economy and Society Index

In order to describe the state and progress in the area of DT deployment, the Digital Economy and Society Index (DESI) can be used. It is a composite index that

summarizes relevant indicators on Europe’s digital performance and tracks the evolution of EU member states in digital competitiveness. It includes five main areas:

- *Connectivity* – which measures the deployment of broadband infrastructure and its quality. Access to fast broadband-enabled services is a necessary condition for competitiveness.
- *Human Capital* – which measures the skills needed to take advantage of the possibilities offered by a digital society. Such skills range from basic user skills that enable individuals to interact online and consume digital goods and services, to advanced skills that empower the workforce to take advantage of technology for enhanced productivity and economic growth.
- *Use of Internet* – this dimension accounts for the variety of activities performed by citizens already online. Such activities range from consumption of online content (videos, music, games, etc.) to modern communication activities or online shopping and banking.
- *Integration of Digital Technology* – this dimension measures the digitization of businesses and their exploitation of the online sales channel. By adopting digital technology businesses can enhance efficiency, reduce costs and better engage customers, collaborators and business partners. Furthermore, the Internet as a sales outlet offers access to wider markets and potential for growth.
- *Digital Public Services* – which measures the digitization of public services, and focuses in particular on eGovernment and eHealth. Modernisation and digitization of public services, including eHealth, can lead to gains in efficiency for public administration, citizens and businesses alike as well as to the delivery of better services for citizens.

The *DESI 2015* data shows that both the European Union as a whole as well as individual Member States are progressing towards a digital economy and society, see Fig. 1. However, member states are at different levels of development and are progressing at different speeds (DESI 2015).

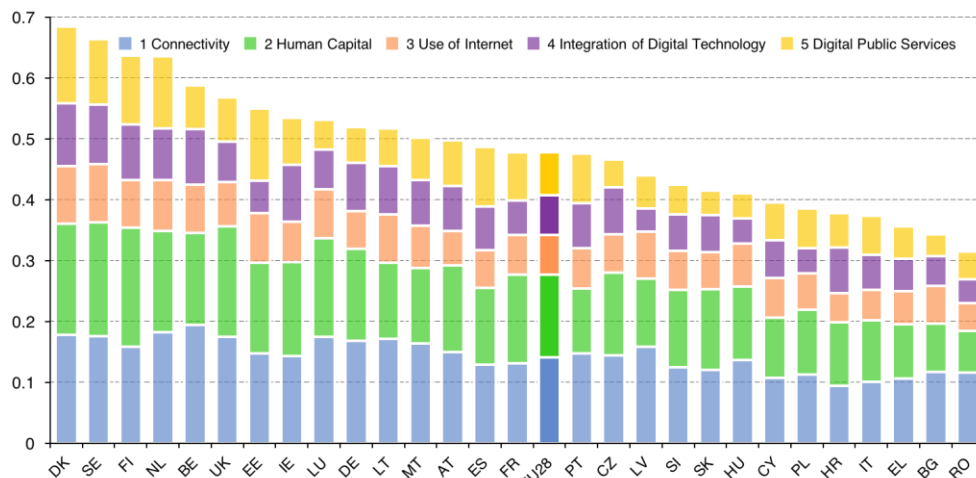


Figure 1: DESI index for EU Member States in year 2014 (DESI 2015), each score belongs to the interval (0,1) with higher values representing better performance

It can be seen that individual member states differ in deployment areas as well. However the proportion in *connectivity* and *use of internet* seems to be similar in different states, the measure of *integration of digital technology* and *digital public services* indicates bigger differences. A simple conclusion can be made: the hard technology is available

and is quite successfully implemented whereas soft-skills diffuse more slowly. We have to target people of all social groups (except IT professionals, probably) when increasing the user skills of a population in the digital technology area.

A strong digital economy is vital for innovation, growth, jobs and both European and national competitiveness. The spread of digital technology has a massive impact on the labour market and the types of skills needed in the economy and in society. The structure of employment is changing, leading to the automation of “routine” tasks and demanding new and different types of jobs; specifically more skilled DT professionals in all sectors of economy. This change is leading to the need for digital skills in nearly all jobs where DT complements existing skills. In the near future 90 % of jobs – including careers such as nursing and medicine – will require some level of digital skills. The field of social work area is no exception to this change. DT changes the way we learn by fostering online communities, by enabling personalised learning experiences, by supporting the development of soft skills such as problem solving, collaboration and creativity, and by making learning fun. It is leading to the need for every citizen to have at least basic digital skills in order to live, work, learn and participate in the modern society (DAFE 2015).

However, there are still weak areas in the field of digital technology dissemination. In 2014, the BBC published a research findings indicating that 21 % of Britain’s population lack the basic digital skills and capabilities required to realise the benefits of the internet. Around a third of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) don’t have a website. If the voluntary, community and social enterprises (VCSEs) are included, this figure rises to 50 %. Just 28 % of VCSEs have the skills to transact online (Government Digital Service 2014). To provide a feedback of the progress, Lloyds bank runs the *UK Business Digital Index* that measures the use of, and attitudes towards, digital technology among small businesses and charities. It was shown that 77 % of SMEs have basic digital skills and about one quarter of SMEs and charities still see digital technology as “irrelevant” to them (LLOYDS BANK 2015).

We believe that digital technology has had a positive influence on socioeconomically disadvantaged groups of people, too. In fact, we do not have much hard data on this issue. There are several reports indicating an urgent need of support to DT use by socioeconomically disadvantaged people. Newman (2010) reported a qualitative study which explored how these groups access and use digital technology in Australia. She concludes that digital technology access and use increases as socio-economic status increases. Low income, low literacy, lack of bridging social capital, being unemployed or in a job which does not involve using digital technologies, and having insecure housing all contribute to restricting access to digital technologies. Ironically, in a society where access to a range of goods, services and societal benefits is achieved by using these technologies, those with restricted digital access because of their existing socio-economic disadvantage are further disadvantaged by virtue of being excluded from the various benefits of access. This may be particularly relevant in the area of health, where those with lower levels of health and higher levels of health need are likely to also be those with lower levels of resources to enable them to participate in the e-health and m-health revolutions.

Digital skills strategies in Europe

The contribution of digital skills and capabilities to social development is considered to be a proven fact by governmental strategies around Europe. The European Parliament Committee on Culture and Education called to incorporate the following suggestion in its resolution as follows:

- The importance of implementing policies and measures promoting “digital literacy” is stressed in order to reduce barriers to social integration and personal development in a lifelong-learning perspective;
- There is highlighted the importance of disadvantaged social groups (such as the unemployed, people with low education and the elderly) having access to digital technologies and ICT innovations as a means of social inclusion and of combating poverty and growing inequalities; urging the Commission and the Member States, therefore, to carry on with specific programmes (such as eInclusion and Assistive Technology) aimed at facilitating access for these groups.

Consequently, a European Parliament resolution called on the Commission to come forward with a proposal for an ambitious digital agenda and action plan enabling Europe to progress towards an open and prosperous digital society offering all citizens economic, social and cultural opportunities. Among others, social issues connected to digital technologies were namely stated in the *Digital Agenda for Europe: 2015.eu* as follows, e.g.:

- The European Parliament insists that digital competences are crucial for an inclusive digital society and that all EU citizens should be empowered and have the incentives to develop the appropriate digital skills; stresses that digital competences could help disadvantaged people (i.e. elderly people and those on low incomes) to be included in society; calls on the Commission and on the Member States to tackle the disparities between the different groups in society in terms of digital literacy and Internet use, the so-called emerging second digital divide; emphasises the essential commitment to reduce digital literacy and competence gaps by half by 2015;
- The EP proposes the launch of a “*Digital literacy and inclusion action plan*” at EU and Member State levels, notably comprising: specific digital literacy training opportunities for unemployed people and groups at risk of exclusion; incentives for private-sector initiatives to provide digital skills training to all employees; a European-wide “*Be smart online!*” initiative to make all students, including those engaged in life-long learning and professional training, familiar with the safe use of ICT and online services; and a common EU-level ICT certification scheme (*Digital Agenda for Europe: 2015.eu*).

Bright ideas are slowly coming into existence. National digital service strategies have been developed, proposed and adopted in individual EU member states. However, they differ in range, speed and success. A *Government Digital Inclusion Strategy* has been adopted in United Kingdom, declaring 10 actions that should be taken to reduce digital exclusion by both the government and partners from the public, private and voluntary sectors. They focus on 4 main kinds of challenges that people face when going on-line:

- Access – the ability to actually go online and connect to the internet,
- Skills – to be able to use the internet,
- Motivation – knowing the reasons why using the internet is a good thing,
- Trust – a fear of crime, or not knowing where to start when going online.

Digital inclusion is about overcoming all of these challenges, not just one. Equally, with so many challenges, government cannot address this alone. The government and its partners already do a lot to help promote digital inclusion. For example, one of the

important partners the government cooperates with is Go ON UK—a cross-sector digital skills charity aiming to empower everyone in the UK to reach his/her digital potential. Yet, this charity is not joined up enough and is not producing impact it needs.

The actions in the *Government Digital Inclusion Strategy* identify and list the barriers that have stopped people from going online until now. Some of them effect social workers directly:

- The UK Government is expected to make digital inclusion part of wider government policy, programmes and digital services, to identify where increasing digital capability will improve policy outcomes and integrate it into relevant programmes. Government will publish information on the digital capabilities people need to use the service, current user capability profiles and the estimated number of offline users it has at present.
- The Government will give all civil servants the digital capabilities to use and improve government services, will identify the digital capability civil servants need to do their jobs and provide services to users, map out what skills they have at present, then provide training where needed to fill in any gaps.
- Deliver a digital inclusion programme to support SMEs and VCSEs—Government and cross-sector partners are expected to join together to build digital and data capabilities across these organisations, partnering with big business to secure pledges of support. Partners will also seek ways to make affordable hardware, software and infrastructure available to SMEs and VCSEs to improve digital access.

However ambitious the goals of the *Digital Inclusion Strategy* are, the on-going results and monitoring data show that the aims are being reached step by step in the UK. Compared to this, a *Digital Strategy* focusing on wider target groups amongst the population of the Czech Republic is not so progressive, nor successful. Basic principles and aims have been declared in the government program. Consequently, a *Digital Strategy in Education until 2020* was developed in the Czech Republic to boost digital education in schools. The main aim declared in the strategy is to develop pupils' digital skills and to prepare them to use digital technology in wide areas of activities in everyday life. The *Digital Strategy in Education 2020* imposed a number of activities / interventions upon the Ministry of Education and groups the effort into seven main directions of intervention, aimed at fulfilling the main objectives of the strategy, e.g:

- Ensure non-discriminatory access to digital learning resources.
- Ensure conditions for the development of digital competencies and computational thinking amongst students and teachers.

Nevertheless, the reported achievements are not satisfying yet. One year after the realisation of the *Strategy*, the Ministry of Education admitted that its deadlines have to be extended in 2/3 of 12 activities and one activity has to be postponed completely. The Ministry of Education did not even manage to occupy the position of the National Coordinator for Strategy for more than one year. The importance of the *Czech Digital Strategy* remains declared only, it is being slowly implemented with nearly no account comparing it to other projects, e.g. the project for inclusive (*nondigital*) education and Roma children integration into mainstream education.

Digital skills in social work

When discussing social problem solving, digital skills in social work cannot be omitted. The issue of technology usage is a complex one. A targeted effort was made

by social work boards around the world, namely in the USA and some other English speaking countries. Ten years ago, the *National Association of Social Workers* together with *Association of Social Work Boards* published *Standards for Technology and Social Work Practice*. The guiding idea of Standards was that the technology has changed social work practice, offering new ways of perform services and obtain information. The challenges that it brings require a special set of skills and knowledge to provide the best performance available. There were ten standards included, with the technological aspect being described best in the following examples:

- “Standard 1. *Ethics and Values: Social workers providing services via the telephone or other electronic means shall act ethically, ensure professional competence, protect clients, and uphold the values of the profession.* Social workers should ensure that services conform to all practice and regulatory standards addressing ethical conduct and protection of the public.
- Standard 4. *Technical Competencies. Social workers shall be responsible for becoming proficient in the technological skills and tools required for competent and ethical practice and for seeking appropriate training and consultation to stay current with emerging technologies.* Numerous technologies are available to social workers to establish, enhance, and deliver services; conduct research; and circulate information. Computer-based software helps social workers track client services and outcomes. Technical systems are increasingly available to support ongoing routines and standard operating procedures vital for agency functioning and efficiency.
- Standard 10. *Continuing Education Social workers shall adhere to the NASW Standards for Continuing Professional Education and follow applicable licensing laws regarding continuing education delivered via electronic means.* Continuing education represents learning opportunities beyond the entry-level degree to enable social workers to increase their skill proficiency and level of knowledge” (NASW 2005).

The contemporary approach to digital technology usage can be found in *Model Regulatory Standards for Technology and Social Work Practice*. Advances in digital and other electronic technologies used to provide information to the public, deliver services, store and access information, and communicate with and about clients, colleagues and others have transformed the nature of social work practice. *Social workers’ use of digital and other technologies has the potential of assisting people in need.* It is important for social workers to enhance clients’ access to digital and other electronic technologies that may assist them, and to have a thorough understanding of the potential benefits and risks associated with the use of this technology (ASWB 2015).

Similar documents stating the principles of the effective, appropriate and ethic use of digital technology can hardly be found in Czech social work theory & practice. Although a few relevant papers can be found published in journals, they are far from any official consistent set of rules / standards or at least recommendations. Although the above cited standards are already 10 years old, the basic principles stated there remain still valid.

Digital skills of the Czech social work students

The digital skills of social workers are the cornerstone condition enabling them to use digital technology meaningfully and effectively. To find out what the E-skills of prospective social workers are, a so-called *Test of Information Literacy*, “TIGR” for short, was used (the acronym TIGR comes from the Czech name Test Informační Gramotnosti). TIGR was developed and realised by the SCIO company (the exact

name is www.scio.cz, s.r.o.). It is an electronic (online) comparative test composed of two parts, both theoretical and practical. This test was chosen because it closely meets the testing requirements in the field of digital technology, it has very high reliability (better than 0.85 in comparative testing), it exists in an online form and for comparative purposes the data and results are available from the testing of pupils in Czech primary and lower secondary schools, as well as from Czech grammar schools from the years 2009 and 2010.

The test instrument TIGR

The first part (Part A) of the TIGR test consists of 50 questions focusing on knowledge about software applications (word processor, spreadsheet, Internet search, operating system, file management and hardware, etc.). The net testing time is set by default at 45 minutes. Assessment of the practical skills of participants carried out by the second part of the test (Part B), namely in the use of a word processor and photo editor. Part B consists of 14 complex items (tasks) with a net solving time of 30 minutes. Test items were designed to allow for the assessment of general knowledge and skills that apply across the entire spectrum of activities and tasks solved when using a computer. The TIGR test tasks had to comply with the so-called Framework Education Programme for Basic Education in the Czech Republic (FEP). The net testing time was extended to 65 minutes for Part A and 50 minutes for Part B due to the assumed low performance of participants.

Part A was comprised of 50 mainly multiple choice items. A maximum of 50 points could be received (one point for each correctly answered question). If a wrong option was chosen, then 1/3 of the point was subtracted and minus 13 points could be received for all answers being wrong without a single correct one. If the pupil missed the item, no points were added nor subtracted. The task in Part B was to create a new document using the text editor, paste text from another text file into it and gradually continue performing other individual tasks. Practice items in spreadsheet followed – pupils were required to sort the data and insert formulas, modify the layout of cells, the number of sheets in a workbook and paste the chart of a certain type afterwards. The last task was to adjust a picture using the lighting option and to copy and paste it into the text file created prior. The assessment of Part B was done semi-manually. Thirty-three ranking criteria were assessed and a maximum of 33 points could be achieved by the participant – for each criterion one point (SCIO.CZ, 2010).

Research sample and testing conditions

The research sample consisted of 48 students in the first year of the combined bachelor degree program Social Work ($N_{SP} = 48$, hereafter referred as social work students). Anonymous test accounts were provided to participants in order to access the server SCIO where the TIGR test was available online. Participants used standard computers in the university computer lab. Testing time for each part adhered to the above-given TIGR specification, additionally a break of about 5–10 minutes was available. The testing was performed during the summer semester of the 2010/11 academic year. The obtained results were compared with the results of 29 students in the first year of the combined master program for primary school teaching ($N_1 = 29$, hereafter referred to as prospective primary school teachers) with a similar age structure. Subsequently, test results were compared once more with the results of grammar schools pupils in the 14–15 year age group (a so-called eight-year grammar school is a variant of the grammar school of the “academic type” in the Czech education scheme), G tercie [year 3 of 8] and G kvarta [year 4 of 8], which were carried out by SCIO with 385 participants in 2010.

Many participants were students in combined degree programs who were already employed – they were doing work corresponding to their personal interests, and many of them had many years of practical experience. Except for the younger ones, only a few had completed any systematic training in the use of digital technology. At best, their digital technology related education had focussed narrowly on user skills in specialized applications, e.g. database programs or social security administration packages. In the case of the comparative sample of students in primary education, their ICT training was completed in Z level courses (Z = basic, základní in Czech) or P level courses (P = advanced, pokročilí) implemented within the *State Information Policy in Education* project (SIPVZ).

During online testing, the responses of participants were saved on the SCIO server and processed – the evaluation of multiple choice items in Part A was automated, the “free response” items from Part A and saved result files from Part B were evaluated manually by the SCIO evaluation staff according to the methodology described above. The resulting values were saved as a table in a spreadsheet calculator, which allowed for the direct processing of primary statistical data. Conclusions of testing were drawn by methods of descriptive statistics and in accordance with the principles of statistical reasoning.

TIGR results of prospective social workers

Basic descriptive statistical quantities were calculated, as shown in Table 1 and Table 2. To describe the results of test groups, the average score \bar{O}_{score} was calculated (the unit is the number of scored points) and the average net success rate $\bar{O}_{\text{net success}}$ (a relative value expressed as a percent). In the tables are presented the minimum and maximum scores observed in the test set. These quantities were chosen to conform the result format with the final reports reported by SCIO (SCIO.CZ, 2010). In both cases were tested pseudo-randomly selected groups of respondents and the data presented in Tables 1 and 2 can be considered as statistical estimates of variables within the statistical margin of errors matching the size of the tested groups.

It was found that in Part A of the TIGR test, students of social work reached the average results comparable with the results of prospective primary teachers and grammar school students G_{kvarata} . Achieved average score \bar{O}_{score} of social work students is within the statistical margin of error comparable to the scores of grammar school students (35, respectively 33.3 points out of the max. 50 possible). There was not found any statistically significant difference between the results of social work students and prospective primary teachers at 5% confidence level ($\alpha = 0.05$), see Table 1.

Table 1: TIGR test results

Test results group	TIGR – section A				TIGR – section B				TIGR
	\bar{O}_{score} A [point]	$\bar{O}_{\text{net success}}$ [%]	min score [point]	max score [point]	\bar{O}_{score} B [point]	$\bar{O}_{\text{net success}}$ [%]	min score [point]	max score [point]	Sum of participants
Social workers	35	70	22,0	47,3	16	50	0	33	48
Primary teachers	33	66	11,7	39,3	20	60	0	32	29
G tercie (SCIO 2010)	29,4	58,5	9,3	48	14,2	42,9	0	33	203
G kvarta (SCIO 2010)	33,3	66,6	10,7	48,7					182

Source: own results and (SCIO.CZ, 2010)

A comparison of results in the practical Part B of the TIGR test was not so clear, because the corresponding data representing groups in different years of study could not be separated from the data presented in the final report for the whole target sample. However, it was possible to determine the number of participants who had earned the minimum and maximum scores in the practical part of the test, see Table 2. The most important finding was that there are two large, statistically significant group of participants in the test group of social work students—a group of participants without functional digital skills and another group of participants that can be characterised as persons with functional digital skills. One-third of participants did not prove basic practical skills and their score in Part B was equal to zero.

Table 2: Participants that earned border scores in Part B of TIGR

Test results group	TIGR – section B						TIGR
	score B = 0 [count]	score B > 30 [count]	score B = 33 [count]	score B = 0 [rel %]	score B > 30 [rel %]	score B = 33 [rel %]	Sum of participants
Social workers	15	9	3	31	19	6	48
Primary teachers	4	3	0	14	10	0	29

Source: own results

In both test groups, there are also significant groups of participants whose B score was more than 30 points (ie. better than 90% of the range). These participants have proven excellent basic practical digital skills in the TIGR test. When discussing this result, it should be noted and emphasized that the considered level of practical skills corresponds to that of lower secondary school (in Czech so-called Nine Year Basic School), i.e. the level that only represents good preconditions for further education in the area of digital technology—it is not sufficient enough for effective and proficient use of ICT in fields requiring tertiary qualification.

The existence of groups without a functional digital literacy implies the need for basic practical ICT education, and training for these students who are not able to solve common problems requiring digital technology use in undergraduate education, nor in practical social work. These students have to pass basic practical training in digital technology use to catch up their classmates. It would be a mistake if they discontinued their undergraduate studies because they are often experienced in social work and already have a great relationship with clients.

Finally, it is necessary to design and implement rules for the use of ICT standards in social work, analyze the key features of digital applications that comply with these rules and prepare social workers with relevant theory and practical examples of compliance with these rules.

Conclusions

It turns out that the ICT literacy of students of combined Bachelor's degree program in Social Work at Faculty of Education, TU of Liberec, detected using the information literacy test TIGR by SCIO company, is comparable with the ICT literacy of fourth grade grammar school students, i.e. respondents ages 14 to 15 years. It was found that there is a large, statistically significant group of social work students without functional ICT literacy.

For students of social work without a functional ICT literacy, it would be desirable to provide a subject in which basic ICT knowledge and skills can be added. Initial ICT knowledge and skills most students of combined study program in social work

do not seem to acquire ICT advancements needed for future practical social work, so as to enable them to apply modern ICT at a level corresponding to technologically and socially advanced countries. It would be very appropriate to keep these facts in mind when designing study programs for social work, which should include subjects which would deepen ICT knowledge and skills beyond the level of learning acquired in lower secondary school. It would be desirable to avoid a situation in which social workers will not be able to use ICT in practical social work just because they do not know how to operate at the relevant level of modern ICT applications which large groups of clients commonly use.

Bibliography

- ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL WORK BOARDS (2015). *Model regulatory standards for technology and social work practice*. <https://www.aswb.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/ASWB-Model-Regulatory-Standards-for-Technology-and-Social-Work-Practice.pdf>, date access: 08.07.2015.
- ČESKÁ ŠKOLA (2016). Kateřina Valachová ke Strategii digitálního vzdělávání do roku 2020. *Česká škola*. <http://www.ceskaskola.cz/2016/02/katerina-valachova-ke-strategii.html>. date access: 10.02.2016.
- DESI (2015), The Digital Economy and Society Index. In *Digital Agenda For Europe. A Europe 2020 Initiative*, <https://ec.europa.eu/digital-agenda/desi>, date access: 04.06.2015.
- DAFE (2015), *Digital Agenda For Europe. A Europe 2020 Initiative*, <https://ec.europa.eu/digital-agenda/en>, date access: 04.06.2015.
- EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT (2015), *REPORT on a new Digital Agenda for Europe: 2015.eu (2009/2225(INI))*, <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//NONSGML+REPORT+A7-2010-0066+0+DOC+PDF+V0//EN>, date access: 08.06.2015.
- GOVERNMENT DIGITAL SERVICE (2014), *Government Digital Inclusion Strategy*, <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/government-digital-inclusion-strategy/government-digital-inclusion-strategy#making-the-strategy-happen>, date access: 08.07.2015.
- LLOYDS BANK (2015), *UK Business Digital Index (2015)*, <http://resources.lloydsbank.com/insight/uk-business-digital-index/>, date access: 08.07.2015.
- NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL WORKERS AND ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL WORK BOARDS (2005). *Standards for Technology and Social Work Practice*. <https://ec.europa.eu/digital-agenda/en>, date access: 04.06.2015.
- NEWMAN, L., BIEDRZYCKI, K., BAUM, F. (2010). Digital Technology Access and Use among Socially and Economically Disadvantaged Groups in South Australia. *The Journal of Community Informatics, North America*, Vol. 6, No. 2, <http://ci-journal.net/index.php/ciej/article/view/639/582>, date access: 10.06.2015.
- OECD (2015), *Students, Computers and Learning: Making the Connection*, PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264239555-en>.
- PEŠAT, P. PEŠATOVÁ, I. (2012): ICT gramotnost studentů sociální práce (TIGR pro budoucí sociální pracovníky). *ACC Journal*, 2012, vol. 18, no. 2, issue B. s. 140–152.
- PEŠAT, P., MEIER, M. (2014). Prostředky informačních a komunikačních technologií ve vzdělávání žáků se speciálními vzdělávacími potřebami. In: LOVÁSZOVÁ, G., ed. *DIDINFO 2014, Sborník 20. ročníka národnej konferencie s medzinárodnou účasťou. 2.–4. apríl 2014, Banská Bystrica*. Univerzita Mateja Bela: Banská Bystrica. s. 118–125. ISBN 978-80-557-0698-6.
- RAMBOUSEK, V., et al. (2013). *Rozvoj informačně technologických kompetencí na základních školách*. Vyd. 1. Praha: České vysoké učení technické v Praze. ISBN 978-80-01-05407-9.
- SCIO.CZ, 2009. Testování informační gramotnosti 2009. Souhrnná zpráva. Praha: www.scio.cz, s.r.o., 2009. 32 s.
- SCIO.CZ, 2010. Testování informační gramotnosti 2010. Souhrnná zpráva. Praha: www.scio.cz, s.r.o., 2010. 37 s..

Local Government as an Actor in Collaborative Governance – Partner or Leader?¹

Agnieszka Pawłowska

Abstract

Collaborative governance (co-governance) is one of the numerous “governance-like” concepts used here for only descriptive rather than explanatory purposes. It is regarded as the organisational setting where territorial (also called „area-based”) partnerships – being, alongside local government, the core issue of the present paper – are located. Area-based partnerships are defined in reference to the LEADER Programme of the European Union, which – since 1991 – has supported the foundation of Local Action Groups (LAGs), being the kind of networks of local (public, private and social) stakeholders and addressed to the endogenous development of local communities. LAGs were the core addressee of the research project Intersectoral Partnership In The Process Of Creation And Implementation Of Local Development Strategies In The Podkarpackie Region, accomplished in 2013 in the Department of Political Science, at the University of Rzeszów. The results of this research with respect to the role of local authorities in area-based partnerships are presented in this paper. Pivotal for the present study is the hypothesis that, while the area-based partnerships provide platforms for cooperation between actors representing different sectors, they remain dominated by local authorities. The author verifies this hypotheses referring to three questions: 1. Who was an architect of the LAGs? 2. What were the reasons for the creation of LAGs? 3. What was the distribution of financial resources for core activities of LAGs? The title concept of collaborative governance will be discussed in the following part of the paper. Subsequently, the partnerships – narrowed to area-based partnerships – will be investigated. I will then move on to the results of the research, which refer to the role of local government in local partnerships, and close the paper with conclusions.

Key words: local government, collaborative governance, European Commission, LEADER

Introduction

Collaborative governance (co-governance) is one of the numerous “governance-like” concepts used here for only descriptive rather than explanatory purposes. It is regarded as the organisational setting where territorial (also called “area-based”) partnerships – being, alongside local government, the core issue of the present paper – are located.

Area-based partnerships are defined in reference to the LEADER Programme² of the European Union, which – since 1991 – has supported the foundation of Local Action

¹ The paper has been prepared as part of research grant no. N N114 250039 financed by the National Science Centre in years 2010-2013.

² The name of the Programme – LEADER – is an abbreviation of its full name in French – *Liaison Entre Actions de Développement de l'Économie Rurale*.

Groups (LAGs), being the kind of networks of local (public, private and social) stakeholders and addressed to the endogenous development of local communities.

LAGs were the core addressee of the research project *Intersectoral Partnership In The Process Of Creation And Implementation Of Local Development Strategies In The Podkarpackie Region*, accomplished in 2013 in the Department of Political Science, at the University of Rzeszów (Pawłowska, Gąsior-Niemiec, Kołomycew 2014 in print)³. The results of this research with respect to the role of local authorities in area-based partnerships are presented in this paper. Pivotal for the present study is the hypothesis that, while the area-based partnerships provide platforms for cooperation between actors representing different sectors, they remain dominated by local authorities. The author verifies this hypotheses referring to three questions:

- 1) Who was an architect of the LAGs?
- 2) What were the reasons for the creation of LAGs?
- 3) What was the distribution of financial resources for core activities of LAGs?

The title concept of *collaborative governance* will be discussed in the following part of the paper. Subsequently, the partnerships – narrowed to area-based partnerships – will be investigated. I will then move on to the results of the research, which refer to the role of local government in local partnerships, and close the paper with conclusions.

Collaborative governance as the context for partnerships

Co-governance refers to the efforts of gathering state and non-state stakeholders “in a collective decision-making process that is formal, consensus-oriented, and deliberative” (Ansell 2012: 499), with the aim of enhancing the common vision of public policy and its further joint implementation. In other words, co-governance is mainly concerned with the process of attaining public objectives through numerous and diversified actors.

Lisa B. Bingham indicates the following features of collaboration in the framework of governance:

- 1) the broadest definition of public and non-public partners;
- 2) the broadest definition of policy process – “not only establishing laws and rules but also practices for management and implementation”;
- 3) using any method, model, or process, “that is deliberative and consensual (...) including but not limited to dialogue, public deliberation, deliberative democracy, public consultation, multi-stakeholder collaboration, collaborative public management, consensus-building, negotiation, and dispute resolution” (Bingham 2011: 387).

Co-governance is widely accepted as an instrument of policy-making for its extensive advantages, mostly due to the involvement of numerous and diverse actors in the early stages of policy-making as well as its future implementation. It is valued for making public policy more responsive to diverse social interests, and for

³ The complete results of the project are presented in the book: A. Pawłowska, A. Gąsior-Niemiec, A. Kołomycew, *Partnerstwa międzysektorowe na obszarach wiejskich. Studium przypadku Lokalnych Grup Działania w województwie podkarpackim*, Scholar, Warszawa 2014 (in print).

what follows—the increased legitimacy of decisions made. Co-governance might generate more innovative policies, as well as accelerate the policy-making process. It is therefore prized as an instrument of solving complex social problems, including social divide, poverty, or unemployment.

On the other hand, co-governance might generate high transactional costs. As Chris Ansell points out, it may be time-consuming and resource-intensive. It can produce „least common denominator agreements“ (Ansell 2012: 500). It can fail either in engaging all stakeholders, and/or in addressing collective interests (focusing activities on self-interests). Last but not least, partners might not keep their commitments, a fact which makes both their credibility and the credibility of the whole policy process unreliable (Bevir 2006: 48-49). Therefore, in spite of numerous advantages, its applicability is limited. Still, co-governance—representing multi-party and multi-sectoral relations based on equal status of stakeholders—seems to be the most apt category to be referred to when discussing partnerships which are the object of further considerations.

Area-based partnerships as coalitions for local development

Partnerships are defined in many ways, which renders their variety. Nevertheless, there seems to be a common agreement as to their following features:

- bringing together a range of interests drawn from more than one sector;
- seeking to develop common aims and a strategy to achieve them;
- sharing risks, resources and skills;
- seeking to achieve mutual benefit and synergy (Hutchinson, Campbell 1988);
- equal status of the stakeholders.

Area-based partnerships are the arrangements of actors anchored in the same, relatively homogenous territory. Those actors are close to each other both in a geographic and symbolic sense. However their staple feature is that they merge actors from different sectors: public, private and social, as well as individuals. Area-based partnerships are additionally characterised by a formal organisational structure and multi-dimensional action programme (Geddes 2014).

In the European Union, area-based partnerships are particularly well developed in rural areas. Unfavourable conditions of economic and social development of those areas remained largely unaltered by the Common Agricultural Policy, which managed to upgrade agricultural production but did little or nothing to prevent such social problems existent in rural communities as: unemployment, out-migration, or unfavourable changes in the social-demographic structure. In transitional states, such as Poland, additional drawbacks, including underdeveloped technical and social infrastructure, which made conditions of living in rural areas much worse than in urban, had to be also addressed.

The failure of the traditional paradigm of development, anchored in EU cohesion policy, forced decision-makers to look for other mechanisms to support the growth of local communities. Previously neglected endogenous resources had been noticed

by European Commission, and their power and utility recognised in the foundation for LEADER Initiative, which was launched in 1991.

Until today, LEADER has had four editions⁴. Its main idea was to establish area-based partnerships, called Local Action Groups (LAG). LAGs' activities were, in general, addressed at the thorough development of rural areas; in particular they were to decide on the allocation of granted financial resources for the implementation of the projects, which were to be located in one of four measures:

- 1) diversification into non-rural activities;
- 2) establishment and development of micro-enterprises;
- 3) village renewal and development;
- 4) small projects (Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development 2007: 284).

Apart from upgrading the standard of living in rural areas, and stimulating local communities to undertake joint actions, the highlight accomplishment of the Programme is the "LEADER approach" characterised by:

- 1) bottom-up elaboration and implementation of strategies;
- 2) local public-private partnerships;
- 3) area-based local development strategies;
- 4) innovation;
- 5) cooperation;
- 6) integrated and multisectoral actions;
- 7) networking (European Commission 2006: 8).

The formation of 338 LAGs currently existing in Poland followed this approach. Furthermore, they were subordinated to the subsequent rules:

- a) targeting rural areas not exceeding 150,000 inhabitants;
- b) adopting a formal structure which turns them into legal persons;
- c) making sure that at least 50% of partners represent the private and civic sectors, including representative groups of farmers, women, young people and their associations.

Methodology of the research

31 out of 338 currently existing in Poland LAGs are located in the Sub-Carpathian region. They were subjected to both quantitative and qualitative research, with the quantitative element being based on a questionnaire distributed among members of LAGs. At the time when the questionnaire was being distributed (March – November 2011), 1557 members of all 31 LAGs were identified. However the membership was (and still is) unevenly distributed among LAGs – the smallest LAG had 20 members; the largest LAG – 107 members; the majority of LAGs had between 40 and 60 members.

⁴ Until 2006 there were three generations of LEADER: LEADER I (1991-1993), LEADER II (1994-1999), and LEADER+ (2000-2006). In the programming period 2007-2013, the LEADER was included in the rural development policy supported under the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development. In Poland, the LEADER has been implemented since the country's accession to the EU in 2004. In 2007-2013 LEADER has constituted the Axis 4 of Rural Development Programme.

The questionnaire consisted of 30 open and closed questions. Among them were those referring to the topic of the role of local government in the LAGs: actors who initiated and participated in the LAGs; the manner of co-opting partners into the LAGs; and decision-making within the LAGs.

Altogether, 518 members from 26 LAGs (84% of the LAGs in the Sub-Carpathian region) completed the questionnaire. They constituted 33% of all identified members of all the LAGs in the region. The SPSS application was used for data processing.

The questionnaire was followed by interviews with members of selected LAGs, as well as with the LAGs offices' workers. In total, 75 persons from 13 LAGs were interviewed. The interviews were held between November 2011 and June 2013.

Local government as an architect of, and stakeholder, in area-based partnerships

Although, according to the co-governance approach, local government is an equal partner in the network of stakeholders of a community's development, its particular role as planner, coordinator and service provider cannot be denied. This role is strongly supported by the expectations of citizens – that local authorities strive to promote the well-being of the community; and national government, which authorize sub-state agendas to perform numerous tasks. Among the latter – local development assigned to communities (*gmina*) and counties (*powiat*). Thus, local authorities are particularly interested in arrangements which might have supported their efforts in pushing local growth upward.

The LEADER Programme created an exceptional opportunity for communities to both gain access to additional resources for the support of the community's growth and share responsibility for local development with other local actors. Although the bottom-up approach of the Programme – meaning broad participation of business and civic actors in area-based partnerships – operated against the supremacy of local authorities in LAGs, the general indifference of private actors and the weakness of social organisations in rural areas ensured local authorities the role of leading partner.

There were also other prerequisites of the dominant position of the local government in creating and managing area-based partnerships:

- 1) local administration has know-how about EU programmes;
- 2) local authorities have better relations with the regional authorities (who act as the LAGs' monitoring institutions) on a daily basis;
- 3) local government has better access than other partners in the LAGs for necessary organisational, personal and financial resources.

The leading role of local authorities in the foundation of LAGs was corroborated by almost three quarters of the respondents who completed the questionnaire in the reported research. They declared that their area-based partnership was established by local authorities. The important position of local authorities in the creation of partnerships was confirmed in the research held across the country, where 44% of respondents indicated local governments as the architects of their LAGs (Knieć 2010: 19).

Local government as the protagonist of numerous area-based partnerships was also voiced by the interviewees. One of them—the mayor of the community being a member of the LAG, and simultaneously considered the instrumental figure in LAG’s creation—described the process of establishing the partnership in the following way:

It happened that I was mayor at that time, and I was at the meeting at the Marshal’s Office. The Marshal approached me and said that afterwards there would be another meeting with LAGs, which at that time were already in existence [LAGs created in the framework of the LEADER+ Programme] and if I was interested I could attend, and I attended (...) Later I had a meeting with mayors of several communities, because I thought that it would be easier to engage local [social] leaders through local authorities, directly I could only engage people from my community (...) and this is how it started.

The important role of local government is also observable in the views on the reasons for the creation of LAGs. Nearly half of the persons surveyed in the reported research highlighted the prerequisite to institutionalise area-based, cross-sectoral cooperation in order to gain access to financial resources offered by the EU as the reason for creating their LAG. This finding is confirmed by Pascal Chevalier and Marie-Claude Maurel, researching LAGs in numerous EU countries, who openly state that “the majority of local officials are convinced that the LEADER Programme is a good business”. According to them, this »godsend« from the EU “can support construction of the infrastructure indispensable to their municipalities” (Chevalier, Maurel 2010: 38).

On the other hand, local government guarantees LAGs financial stability. Communities have the biggest share in LAGs’ membership fees. They also provide space for LAGs’ offices – either cheaply rented or completely free. Last but not least, they have access to financial resources for applying and completing projects performed in the framework of the LEADER Programme. LEADER—as other EU Programmes—is based on the principles of additionality and reimbursement of expenditure after completion of the project. The income of municipalities allows them to allocate part of it to LEADER ventures. This makes local governments’ position favourable in comparison to the beneficiaries from social organisations, which generally have no financial resources of their own. To apply and accomplish projects, NGOs usually resort to bank loans; sometimes they can also count on the support of local governments, which allocate a certain amount of money in their budgets to assist NGOs.

The potential of local governments is also visible in the allocation of the financial resources for four measurements of the LEADER Programme in 2007–2013. For LAGs in Sub-Carpathian region it was as follows:

- 1) diversification into non-rural activities: 11,158,339.51 PLN – 6.31%;
- 2) establishment and development of micro-enterprises: 21,426,717.30 PLN – 12.13%;
- 3) village renewal and development: 106,868,039.71 PLN – 60.48%;
- 4) small projects: 37,255,512.26 PLN – 21.08% (Pawłowska, Gašior-Niemiec, Kołomycew 2014 in print).

While measures 1. and 2. were intended for local farmers and businessmen, and measure 4. for individuals and NGOs; communities—as well as municipal units (such as municipal cultural centres)—could avail themselves of measure 3., which constituted the biggest share of the Programme. The projects financed in this measure were relatively large (up to 500,000 PLN) and usually of an infrastructural character—they addressed the construction of different public facilities and infrastructure dedicated to tourism, sports, culture, recreation; and the improvement of public space, and the renewal of historical buildings and monuments. The allocation of the financial resources of LAGs shows both the preeminent position of local authorities among other partners in LAGs, as well as their reliability as the beneficiary in large projects.

Conclusion

Although the LEADER Programme was intended to develop networks of equal partners, the leading position of local governments was imperative. Their experience and institutional, as well as financial, credibility anointed the local authorities as expected and accepted architects of area-based partnerships. This is all the more so given that this role could barely be performed by social organisations—still building their position as local stakeholders. The balanced impact of members in area-based partnerships was also inhibited by the key responsibility of local authorities for the development of their communities.

On the other hand, if asked about the efficiency of LAGs as a mechanism of local development and the distribution of EU funds, even interviewees representing local authorities rejected the possibility of shifting the projects—hitherto accomplished within the framework of LEADER—to local administration. One of them stated:

(...) let's make it clear, in the communities there are the politics of mayors, and some politico-private relations could be involved (...) whereas outside the municipality [in LAG] it is different, because there is the Council [the authority of LAG responsible for selection of projects], there are frequently several dozen people in there, who are free to decide if the project is in accordance with the strategy [the LAG's strategy] (...) and the mayor or other local decision-maker might not necessarily like it.

There are also signs of a shifting attitude of local authorities towards area-based partnerships. One of our interviewees claimed:

Sometimes I have the feeling that mayors start to perceive [the LAG] as the second 'fore' (...) Cooperation with mayors turns out well, but while in the beginning they were spontaneous, now they look at the LAG with different eye.

The above statements show that quite possibly the role of local governments in the LAGs is changing. This change may proceed from the leader to the equal partner or even a rival actor in the local polity. It also seems that LAGs themselves are becoming increasingly aware of their distinctiveness, as one of the interviewees related:

Our aim is the strategy [the LAG's strategy], which we are responsible for. Therefore there cannot be even one grain of politics here. (...) we show that things can be done differently – we make non-political choices (...) and here it is doubtful

from whom we must learn, this lesson with self-government has already been taken, so it would be proper to learn from the LAG.

The LEADER Programme will proceed in the EU programming period 2014–2020. However, LAGs will find themselves in the new setting of *Community-Led Local Development* (CLLD), which is the new instrument of implementing cohesion policy at the local level. CLLD promotes growth thorough the inclusion of local communities in planning their economic development (European Commission 2011). This new approach might present for area-based partnerships both an opportunity for their further development and a challenge, when it comes to the settlement of new relations with local authorities and members of local community.

Bibliography

- Ansell C. (2012), *Collaborative Governance*, [in:] D. Levi-Faur (ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Governance*, Oxford University Press, Oxford, ISBN 9780199560530.
- Bevir M. (2006), *Key Concepts in Governance*, Sage, London, ISBN 9781412935708.
- Bingham L.B. (2011), *Collaborative Governance*, [in:] M. Bevir (ed.), *The Sage Handbook of Governance*, Sage, London, ISBN 9781446270424.
- Chevalier P., Maurel M.-C. (2010), *Program LEADER w krajach Europy Środkowej*, „Wież i Rolnictwo”, no. 4, ISSN 01371673.
- European Commission (2006), *The LEADER approach: a basic guide*
http://ec.europa.eu/agriculture/publi/fact/leader/2006_en.pdf, date access: 17.02.2014.
- European Commission (2011), *Community-Led Local Development. Cohesion Policy 2014–2020*,
http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/sources/docgener/informat/2014/community_en.pdf, date access: 17.02.2014.
- Geddes M. (1998), *Local partnership: a successful strategy for social cohesion?*, European Research Report 1998, European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, Dublin, <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/publications/htmlfiles/ef9805.htm>, date access: 17.02.2014.
- Hutchinson J., Campbell M. (1998), *Working in Partnership: Lessons from the Literature*, June 1998, Research Brief 63. Department for Education and Employment, London, <https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/RB63.pdf>, date access: 17.02.2014.
- Knieć W. (2010), *Partnerstwa lokalne w Polsce – kondycja, struktura, wyzwania. Raport badawczy*, Fundacja Partnerstwo dla Środowiska, Kraków – Toruń,
http://www.grupypartnerskie.org.pl/media/filemanager/publikacje/badaniepartnerstw_report.pdf, date access: 17.02.2014.
- Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, *Rural Development Programme for 2007–2013*, July 2007, Warsaw.
- Pawłowska A., Gašior-Niemiec A., Kołomycew A. (2014 (in print), *Partnerstwa międzysektorowe na obszarach wiejskich. Studium przypadku Lokalnych Grup Działania w województwie podkarpackim*, Scholar, Warszawa.

Participatory Research Collaboration Between the University and Its Surroundings for the Advancement of Local Development

Beata Witek

Abstract

This chapter is devoted to the presentation of the participatory research application in a collaboration between university and local communities (communes) constituting its immediate surroundings. Establishing this kind of collaboration should benefit in the advancement of the local development process (of endogenous type) using academic knowledge and a principle of equal partnership. Participatory research is included in local studies, which, unlike the expert studies, are based on local communities and include their members in the carrying out of a research process (at different stages of a process, depending on an approach). An approach, belonging to the participatory research, known as Community-Based Participatory Collaborative Research, involving participants of the problem (stakeholders) has been applied on a pilot scale as a formula for university – surroundings collaboration. The aforementioned “surroundings” consist of local communities, operationalised in research practice in terms of “gminas” (NUTS5), with particular emphasis on the representatives of the first (local administration) and third sector (third sector organisations). The chapter is divided into the following parts: in the first part the problem will be formulated along with research questions. It will be complemented by a presentation of possible models of interaction between the university and its surroundings together with an indication of participants of local development problems and the dynamics of the roles performed by them in collaboration. A further part of the study will be devoted to the characteristics of the implemented methods. The next part of the chapter will present current experience in building collaboration between the university and local communities and research results as examples of a contribution of the university to solving local problems.

Key words: *local communities, the university, local development, collaboration*

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the presentation of the participatory research application in a collaboration between university and local communities (communes) constituting its immediate surroundings. Establishing this kind of collaboration should benefit in the advancement of the local development process (of endogenous type) using academic knowledge and a principle of equal partnership. Participatory research is included in local studies, which, unlike the expert studies, are based on local communities and include their members in the carrying out of a research process (at different stages of a process, depending on an approach)¹.

¹ In the case of expert studies, after completion of research implementation the expert leaves the community alone with its problems (cf. Okrasa 2011a).

An approach, belonging to the participatory research, known as *Community-Based Participatory Collaborative Research*², involving participants of the problem (stakeholders) has been applied on a pilot scale as a formula for university – surroundings collaboration. The aforementioned “surroundings” consist of local communities, operationalised in research practice in terms of “gminas” (NUTS5), with particular emphasis on the representatives of the first (local administration) and third sector (third sector organisations).

The chapter is divided into the following parts: in the first part the problem will be formulated along with research questions. It will be complemented by a presentation of possible models of interaction between the university and its surroundings together with an indication of participants of local development problems and the dynamics of the roles performed by them in collaboration.

A further part of the study will be devoted to the characteristics of the implemented methods. The next part of the chapter will present current experience in building collaboration between the university and local communities and research results as examples of a contribution of the university to solving local problems.

The overriding problem and research questions

The subject of the study is a problem for projects undertaken in collaboration with participants of local development problems, which in the most effective manner can contribute to local development. This development can be evaluated from the point of view of two types of indicators: the objective ones (among others, the level of local deprivation³) and subjective ones (a measure of local community well-being). One of such projects is the formula of Research Enhancement of Local Development with the use of participatory research in the collaboration of the university and its surroundings (Okrasa 2013).

The main questions, which contain the implicit overarching thesis of the study (indicating operationalisation directions of the research problem and key concepts and evaluation methods of such projects), include:

- 1) identification of key participants of local development;
- 2) determining possible relationship between the university and local partners;
- 3) effectiveness of participatory research as an instrument of Research Enhancement of Local Development;
- 4) constructing partnership in itself.

Key stakeholders

Potential partners in collaboration which should result in the advancement of the local development process can be representatives of all three sectors [first/public sector, including local government, units of the private/business sector and third sector organisations, both formal (registered in the National Court Register) and informal of grassroots organisations type], members of local community (households representatives) as well as universities and academia (Okrasa 2012b).

² *Community-Based Participatory Collaborative Research* (C-BPCR) is one of many approaches (appearing under various names), included in local participatory research. Thus, in the text, depending on the context, the term *Community-Based Collaborative Action Research* (C-BCAR) will also occur.

³ Measured by the Multidimensional Index of Local Deprivation (Okrasa 2012a:15–59).

The dynamics of roles in actions undertaken by the university representatives (research team) in collaboration with the mentioned units interested in local community development is shown in Figure 1. In the composition of the established research and development cooperative some personnel changes may occur, but it is advisable that the core group is constant (Pavlish, Pharris 2012).

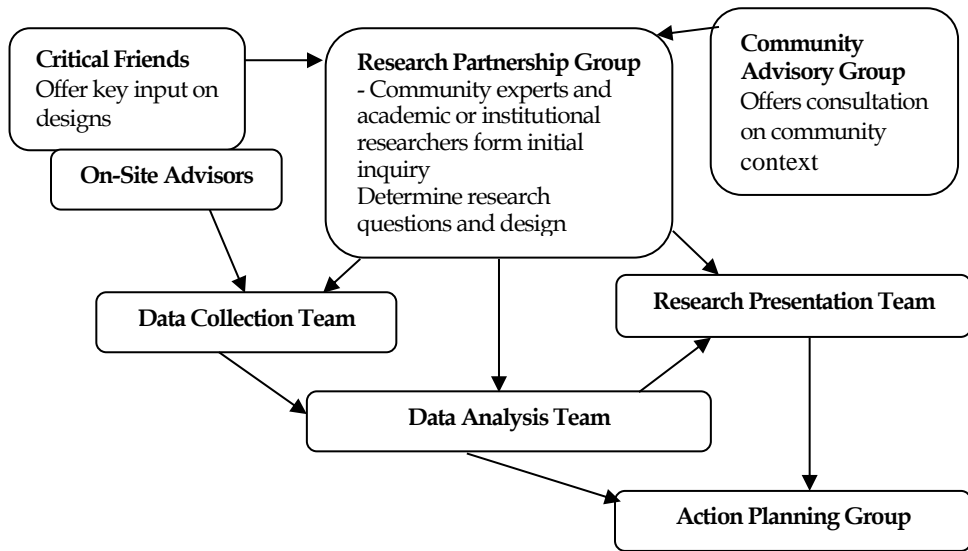


Figure 1: Operational diagram of collaboration – specification of participants

Source: (Pavlish, Pharris 2012:110)

A key role in generating new relationships and stimulating civic engagement (including grassroots activity of local community members) is performed by third sector units.

Intersectoral relationship models

Intersectoral relationships, significant from the point of view of the research questions formulated at the beginning are defined in detail on the basis of formal-legal acts of April 2003 and January 2004 with further amendments (Okrasa 2012a). Typological approach and models of these relationships are, in turn, discussed in literature (Okrasa 2011b: 257–318).

A particularly important factor in the development is the interaction between the university and its immediate surroundings. In this context, it is worth recalling the paradigmatic models of Higher Education Institutions (Higher Education System) (Okrasa 2013): Humboldtowski model, Napoleonic model, Oxbridge model and American model. In the latter model, universities stay active in supporting the local development process (both in the immediate surroundings, running for example a *community college*, as well as in the local communities not belonging to the closest surroundings).

The norm, in the functioning of a university facing “development” change in the context of relationships with its surroundings, is believed to be, (Okrasa 2013: 40–41) among others: an increasing involvement of the university in the use of academic

knowledge (including clusters of innovation, involving students and doctoral students in research implementation, for example, the participatory research described here), collaboration with the surroundings, an introduction of new research formulas and “local” pro-innovation direction⁴. Teaching in the upgraded version would include subjects aimed at generating commitment and pro-social attitudes (Okrasa 2013: 40–41).

Applied methods – characteristics of Community-Based Participatory Research Collaborative approach

An approach, applied on a pilot scale, known as Community-Based Participatory Research Collaborative will be presented as the most appropriate strategy for Research Enhancement of Local Development (Okrasa 2013: 40-14) in the framework of collaboration between universities and representatives of selected communes. Building collaboration in the framework of the so-called research and development cooperatives is connected with trips to selected local communities composing a “nest” toward which the research team, possessing academic knowledge useful for solving an identified local problem (Okrasa 2012b) is heading for. As previously mentioned, the respondents are involved in the research and development process, whose complexity is illustrated in Figure 2:

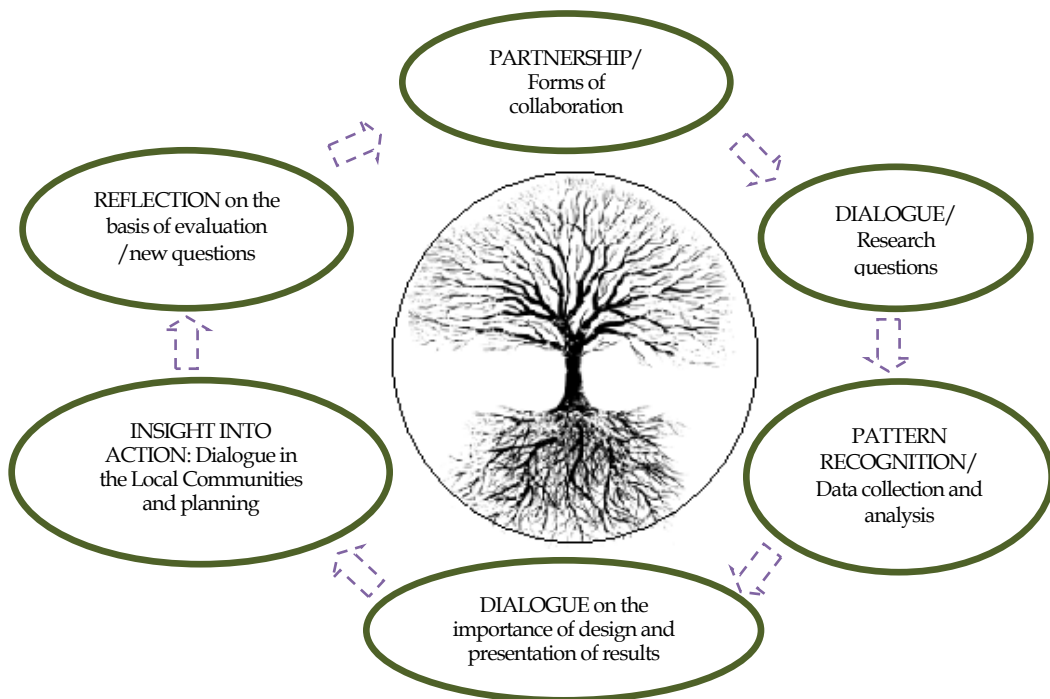


Figure 2: Research and development process in the framework of *Community-Based Collaborative Action Research*

Source: (Pavlish, Pharris 2012)

⁴ Within the meaning of the Lisbon Strategy in terms of “Europe of the regions” and build Innovative Hubs, including cooperation with local third sector organisations based on “ethic of reciprocity”, (cf. Okrasa 2013:40).

In more detail, this type of research can be characterised by several key features, which are largely reflected by Figure 2:

- 1) building a relationship between the community and the research team based on trust;
- 2) involving all co-operators in evaluating inequalities in terms of their importance in the relationship and research process (ensuring equal importance of members);
- 3) incorporation of the community in defining research questions;
- 4) use of academic knowledge in research methods;
- 5) searching and engaging of “key partners”, who can challenge and verify the research process;
- 6) data collection within the framework of partnership;
- 7) involvement of the local community in the goal (Okrasa 2012b: 27).

The discussed type of research is a long-term project that is not limited to the data collection on social reality, but is taking part in its shaping, becoming a part of the life of the local community. Therefore, their determination and implementation requires access to knowledge based on a multi-source database and prior preparation of the research infrastructure – teams and partners (local cooperants), tools and instructions, and the like. This is consistent with the approach postulated in literature⁵.

Previous experience – selected results

Pilot studies, aimed at verifying the applicability of *Community-Based Participatory Collaborative Research/ C-BPCR (feasibility study)* for collaboration between a university and its surroundings for the benefit of the development of local communities were implemented on a small scale at the University of Cardinal Stefan Wyszyński in Warsaw, within the framework of the project “Risk and Local Development – the Role of the Third Sector” (RLD-RTS)⁶ under the leadership of Prof. W. Okrasa. Trained members of a research team had at their disposal the data useful for collaboration, collected in the previous phases of the research⁷. An example of what (input side) the university brings to the Research Enhancement of Local Development is the contribution of research team, identification of capital and local risks levels, communes characteristics, research instruments, etc. (Okrasa 2012b). The C-BPCR approach is based on the exploration with the participation of also different participants of local problems, the so-called well-informed members of the community.

Illustration of the type of information available for the research team that goes into the field may be characteristic of communities using Semantic Differential Scale,

⁵ “The first and most important step in the C-BCAR process is preparing the soil before planting the tree. It may involve some research (...) how big of a hole to dig, what kind of mulch is needed, how much water should be added, whether a fertilizer is necessary and how to prepare the roots for their new environment. This careful tending will bear great fruit in the years to come” (Pavlish, Pharris 2012:146).

⁶ The project financed by a grant from the National Centre for Research and Development, № 11 0004 06

⁷ Participatory research were preceded by three rounds of surveys with local leaders, representatives of the I and III sector and households, as well as reconnaissance and interviews with local informants and the implementation of Focus Groups in selected communes of the Masovian Voivodship (Schematic Description of the Process of Project Implementation and Methodological Map of the Project).

including such dimensions as: Evaluation, Potential, and Activity (EPA). In the Community Profile Card respondents (local “activists”)⁸ evaluated their local commune from the point of view of its homogeneity or heterogeneity, the nature of human relationships, types of threats and the degree of their severity, on different dimensions.

The use of Semantic Differential Scale required the construction of a net of possible features, expressed in terms of opposing adjectives, of which the respondent chose those that best described his or her commune. By using the so-called EPA squares (Okrasa 2012b) it was possible to compare six separate dimensions of the description of the local community, see below:

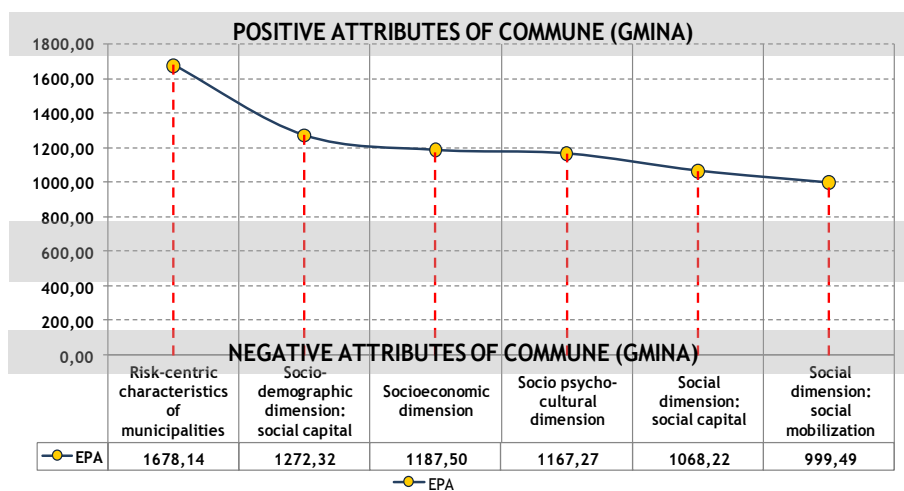


Figure 3: Dimensions of commune representation as a local community using semantic differential scale (dimensions ordered by their total value)

Source: (Marcinkowska 2011)

As can be seen on the diagram, the risk-centric dimension was evaluated as the best one. This means, that the respondents perceive their commune as not in danger of various types of risks or having effective mechanisms to combat them. At the opposite pole is the most interesting dimension, from the point of view of building collaboration between the university and its surroundings, identifying social mobilisation. In the opinion of the respondents, it was the weakest attribute of the commune.

From the point of view of the problem formulated at the beginning, it is worth referring to the Collaboration Quality Index⁹. A combination of a value of

⁸ One of the questionnaires (in addition to the „JAL” questionnaire for local administration units, „J3S” for third sector units and “GD” for proxy respondents from households) implemented under the RLD-RTS project.

⁹ The Index includes dimensions, among others, such as: the existence of basic cooperation infrastructure, financial and non-financial cooperation, satisfaction of third sector organisations with the collaboration with government, etc. (Institute of Public Affairs 2012:12–13).

correlation coefficient between the mentioned index and local deprivation (objective indicator of local development) illustrates the importance of intersectoral relationships in taking up projects for the benefit of local development (Okrasa, Witek 2011c: 288–300). This paper focuses on the second dimension of evaluations – subjective measures, on which are based the evaluations presented below, made by the representatives of local administration in a questionnaire for local administration units (“JAL”), and implemented in the first phase of the RLD-RTS Project. The multi-source database developed in the mentioned project contains two types of information on two vectors of actions for local development. On the one hand – pro-capital actions, generating a particular type of local capital, and on the other hand, measures aimed at reducing local risks (anti-risk)¹⁰.

In the questionnaire for local administration units, the respondents evaluated the individual components of the local capital, defined priorities for administration activities and also evaluated the degree of the risks existing in the commune in various sectors of activity: social, infrastructural, environmental and economic¹¹, see Figure 4.

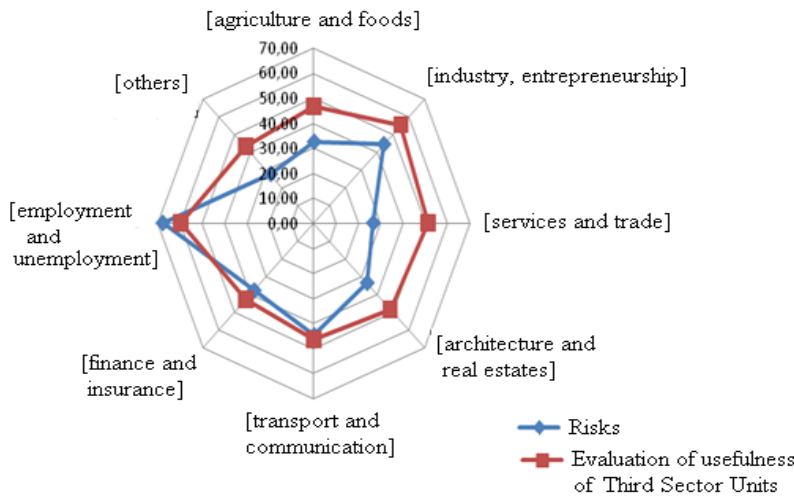




Figure 4: Evaluation of local risks in the economic sphere and the usefulness of third sector units

where:  scale from 1 to 5: 1 = no risk/fear up to 5 = high risk/fear
 scale from 1 to 7: 1 = not useful at all; 4 = neutral evaluation or lack of actions; 7 = very useful

Source: (Okrasa 2011b)

¹⁰ In accordance with the Holistic Model of Description of Local Communities (Okrasa 2011b).

¹¹ Similar evaluations have been made by representatives of third sector units in the questionnaire for third sector units. Respondents were asked, among others, about the possible risks to the commune and to estimate the risk of their occurrence and the potential of the commune in terms of their reduction.

The difference in the size dimensions of the evaluations is not significant due to the preservation of the original levels of scales which were differently scored in the individual questions (inner dotted line on a smaller scale). Risk evaluations and the role of the third sector units in overcoming them, are generally consistent in the economic activity section. The greatest risk and, at the same time, high compliance with the evaluation of the suitability of the third sector units are assigned to employment and unemployment. The largest gap occurs in the field covering services and trade.

Selected results of existing problems estimates, and the usefulness or lack of usefulness of the third sector organisations from the side of representatives of the first sector, are presented for the following dimension – the social one, as follows:

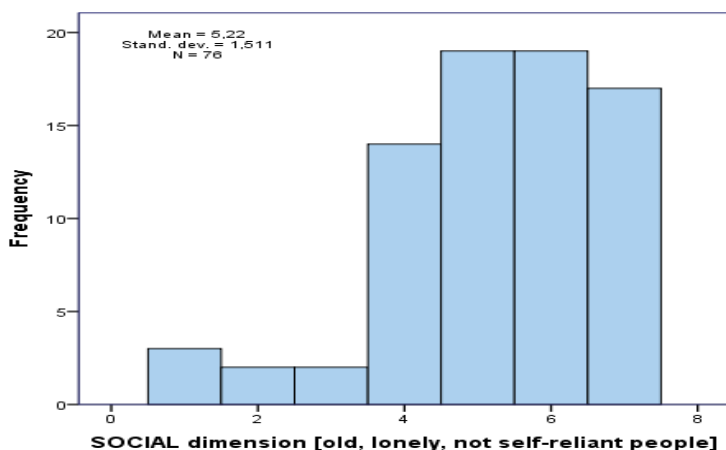


Figure 5: Evaluation of the effects of third sector unit actions by the degree of their usefulness – old, lonely, not self-reliant people.

Scale from 1 to 7, where 1 = not useful at all; 4 = neutral evaluation or lack of actions; 7 = very useful

Source: own calculations

Relatively, the greatest usefulness has been attributed to the third sector in terms of issues such as old, lonely, not self-reliant people or poverty, as well as households requiring social assistance. The most unsuitable, in the opinion of local administration representatives, were actions of third sector units in the social dimension associated with households “difficult for their surroundings”.

Conducting *Community-Based Participatory Collaborative Research* in selected communes of the Masovian Voivodeship (and the district of the capital city of Warsaw), required prior formulation of recommendations and detailed instructions defining the tasks, their execution, and implementation schedule. The operating

diagram of conduct, developed in the RLD-RTS Project following the steps of research conduct (building blocks) (Okrasa)¹² have been identified:

- 1) Identification of the local community (based on the local partners' declaration of willingness to collaborate and the effectiveness of collaboration and completeness of the database from the previous rounds of research).
- 2) Identification of the major Problems, Programme and Partners (formula "3P") to collaborate in selected communes.
- 3) Identification of potential interaction platforms.
- 4) Specification of the problem and its main components (including clarifying the type of risk and capital, the characteristics of the participants of the problem and a description of the program).
- 5) Selection of partners to collaborate with a special focus on third sector organisation representatives and public administration.
- 6) Agreeing on the local community vision (verification of the consistency of evaluations obtained in previous rounds of research).
- 7) Identification of the needs of the chosen partner unit in the collaboration.
- 8) Organising collaboration with selected partners (including the establishment of a timetable, roles, clarification of expectations, etc.).
- 9) Ex-ante or formative evaluation (depending on the existence or non-existence of the program).

The first step of the implementation of pilot studies, in accordance with the operating scheme of procedure, was identifying local communities in three to five out of the twelve "gminas" (or districts) of the Masovian Voivodeship, included in the implementation of previous phases of the research. Finally, as participants in cooperative and development research, representatives of three communities of the Masovian Voivodeship: Raszyn, Rzańnik and Żoliborz, have been identified. In accordance with the dispositions included in the Procedural Instructions, the research team, after becoming acquainted with the characteristics of the communes, developed on the basis of data from, among others, official statistics and personal research in the Project, focused on the identification of: the main problems, programme and the partner to collaborate in selected communes.

As an outcome of a series of meetings in Żoliborz, the problems, according to the main components perceived by the district's residents, have been identified and clarified – types of capital (primarily deficiencies in social and physical capital were indicated) and local risks (demographic and health risks). To participate in the later stages of field research, the program stakeholders addressing the specific problem of the exclusion of the elderly were chosen by the research team. The participants declared their willingness for further collaboration (Zalewska 2013). However, in Rzańnik, thanks to the initial consultation with a well-informed representative of local government, and subsequent conversations with third sector representatives, problem areas became possible to identify (including determination of the predominant type of deficiencies - in this case in terms of social capital) and possible collaboration interfaces with the University. Of the three active third sector

¹² W. Okrasa, Project documentation (internal distribution).

organisations, two expressed their willingness to join the University as a partner in building the capacity to solve local problems (capacity-building) (Zalewska 2013). In Raszyn, thanks to collaboration with a local key informant - a representative of the local administration, a number of issues important for the commune were identified (e.g. lack of residents' involvement in the issues of their local community, deficiencies in physical capital), and the research team saw an opportunity to establish possible collaboration between the University and two of the third sector units (Report of the pilot studies in Raszyn 2012).

Conclusion

Participatory research collaboration between the university and its surroundings may be an effective strategy for local development and, at the same time, a demonstration of the use of academic knowledge in practical solutions to real local problems. Especially that various participants of local development are involved in the implementation of this type of research. Effective collaboration is a combination of approaches: a focus on a programme that exists through active citizenship and building local problem-solving skills (capacity building) by organising the program (in communes not equipped with skills, qualifications, operational infrastructure that allows taking up a problem and implementing the program) (Okrasa 2012b).

Preliminary results of the pilot study seem to confirm the existence of a demand from the local community to cooperate with a university possessing specific knowledge and instruction of a model interaction system within the immediate surroundings. With an indication toward the third sector local organisation as a unit capable of playing a leading role in a collaboration (with the condition of prior information and operational strengthening). In the discussed approach, which is an illustration of the Research Enhancement of Local Development, the university may act as a party supporting the preparation of selected third sector organisations to implement such tasks as initiating and 'moderation' of collaboration.

In conclusion, it is worth noting that there is a need to continue the research on ways to use academic knowledge in collaboration with the university and its surroundings for the benefit of solving development problems. Subject to further analysis may be, among others, the possibilities and limitations of various cooperation formulas with representatives of local communities.

Bibliography

Institute of Public Affairs (2012), *Indeks jakości współpracy. Obraz współpracy między organizacjami pozarządowymi i administracją publiczną*, Warsaw, <http://www.isp.org.pl/uploads/filemanager/Program%20Społeczeństwa%20Obywatelskiego/ISPIJWsuplement.pdf>, date access: 2.05.2014.

Marcinkowska A. (12.02.2011), „Analiza profilowa” społeczności lokalnych (Skala dyferencjału semantycznego), presentation at the symposium: „Ewaluacja i partnerstwo: trzeci sektor w systemie badawczego wspomaganie rozwoju lokalnego”, Warsaw.

Okrasa W. (2011a), *Badania społeczności lokalnych – problemy i metody*, a series of lectures in the Sociology of Management and Local Development specialization, University of Cardinal Stefan Wyszyński, Warsaw.

- Okrasa W. (2011b), *Administracja publiczna i trzeci sektor: modele interakcji międzysektorowej w kontekście rozwoju lokalnego, w świetle danych empirycznych*, „Administracja i Społeczeństwo”, no 5, ISSN 20830831.
- Okrasa W. (2012a), *Relacje międzysektorowe i dystrybucja środków publicznych: zależność wpływu deprivacji lokalnej na alokację zasobów w gminach od charakteru związków pomiędzy organizacjami pozarządowymi i administracją publiczną*, „Administracja i Społeczeństwo. Środki publiczne i władza publiczna”, no. 7, Warsaw, ISSN 20830831.
- Okrasa W. (2012b), *Report from the Project ryzyka i rozwój lokalny – rola sektora trzeciego: analiza socjoekonomiczna i propozycja zestawu narzędzia badawczego wspomaganie rozwoju lokalnego*, Warsaw.
- Okrasa W. (2013), *Wizje akademickiego Mazowsza – wyzwania i kierunki zmian*, Higher School of Social Administration in Warsaw, Warsaw, ISBN 9788362505166.
- Okrasa W., Witek B. (2011c), *The Intersectoral Relationships and the Distribution of Public Support: How the local deprivation affects resource allocation at the community level? [in:] International and Domestic Legal Politics in Conditions of Globalisation: Theoretical and Practical Problems*, Tambow State University named after G.R. Derzhavin, Tambow.
- Pavlish C.P., Pharris M.D. (2012), *Community-Based Collaborative Action Research Nursing Approach*, Jones&Bartlett, Boston, ISBN 9780763771126.
- Report from pilot studies in Raszyn (2012), *Ryzyka i rozwój lokalny – rola sektora trzeciego*, Project documentation, internal distribution, Warsaw.
- Schematic Description of the Process of Project Implementation and Methodological Map of the Project, <http://www.best.uksw.edu.pl/node/8>, date access: 2.05.2014.
- Zalewska O. (11.12.2013), *Problemy organizacji trzeciego sektora w wybranych gminach województwa mazowieckiego*, presentation at the conference: „Rola organizacji trzeciosektorowych w rozwoju lokalnym – z doświadczeń badań socjologicznych nad społecznościami lokalnymi”, Warsaw.

'CARITAS Ukraine' Activity as an Example of Productive Activities of the Third Sector in the Sphere of Social Work

Iryna Myschyshyn

Abstract

The building up of the civil society is impossible without the active participation in the processes of state formation of the third sector. The work of effective organisations is a priority factor which provides the development of the society itself and the social sphere in particular. The activity of the third sector in the sphere of social work is an effective way of giving social services, preventive measures and overcoming of social problems.

The activity of the "Caritas Ukraine" is one of the most successive examples of participation of the third sector in the sphere of social work of Ukraine. This organization provides the wide range of social services which are oriented on different categories of clients and removing of crisis phenomena.

The main tasks, content, forms and methods of the activity of the organization "Caritas Ukraine" are examined in the article. Achievements in the development of the technology of social work of this organization are analyzed.

Key words: *third sector, social work, Caritas Ukraine*

The modern processes of the public society's building up and consolidation of democratic values are impossible without the third sector's activity. Development of the effective activity of the third sector is a logical result and, moreover, an indicator of the progressive society's development. The third sector is a factor, which not only exists as a catalyst or a certain force which provides state's development, but at the same time it is a characteristic criteria of public maturity, society's civilization, the level of public freedoms' consolidation. Some of modern scientists call the organisations of the third sector as a "world conscience".

The third sector is different from the authority and business because of the principles and mechanisms of its existence. The third sector's activity is characterized by its independence, not profitableness, charity, voluntary activity. Self-realization, self-organization and self-management are becoming more and more important factors of stabilization and forward development of any state-social system. The main stimulus of the activity of the organisations of the third sector is not bureaucracy laws or desire of material profit, but voluntariness, freedom of creative work and self-realisation of its participants. "The third sector compensates the primitive dependence of society on two desires (authority, money), generating the action which is inspired by a spirit. With the help of the third sector, the society realizes (together with other things) its desire to things which brings satisfaction almost only on the ethical level" (Луценко 2009).

Today, rapid quantitative and qualitative development of organisations of the third sector caused their differentiations according to different criteria and indices. For

instance, these organisations may be divided into overstate, international, national and local, according to scales of activity or spheres of influence.

Overstate organisations exist in many countries, not being measured by boundaries. Moreover, their activity includes more and more problems connected between themselves: water supply, power supply, supply with products, building of establishments for children, projects of health's protection, programs of communal development, etc. Modern scientists call them "multimandate". Organisations of such type (e.g. catholic services of help - "Oksfam") operate considerable financial resources and have annual budgets similar to the budgetary costs for the help in some countries of West Europe (Дікон, Халс, Стабс 1999: 225).

National not-governmental organisations may be autonomous and interconnected. The example of such world public organisations is Caritas or Red Cross. Many organisations of such a type exist as the groups of pressure in the sphere of people's right, serve as alternative means of the mass media, and work in the sphere of social well-being and social politics.

Local organisations, founded by citizens of this country or by representatives of any community, are oriented on the sources, needs and problems of a regional community more than on the whole country. A lot of such organisations were formed on the basis of independent women's initiations, societies of help, asylums (Дікон, Халс, Стабс 1999: 225).

There are many problems (in the countries with developed commercial economics), connected with unemployment, preparation and pre-preparation of skilled personnel, social adaptation of children, youth, invalids. A part of these problems are solved by national or local organisations of the "third sector". The financing of these organisations is a prestige form of self-assertion of commercial structures in a society. Uniting in their ranks a great number of social-active and amateur society, the organisations of self-help are one of the main elements of the development of society. At the same time, a state in a face of the parliament and the government is also interested in collaboration with organisations of the "third sector". As executors of social work these organisations release a state from the necessity to form own institutions for the giving of social serves.

Not-state organisations have own sources of financing such as the church, international charitable organisations, funds, etc. After all, it is more advantageously for a state to finance social-useful programs of these organisations than to create own social services. Moreover, being more closely to the practice and concrete interests of society, the organisations of the third sector occupy "intermediary" position in the relations between a state and society and often do a social work more qualitative, than state institutions. Stimulating successful functioning of these organisations in the sphere of social work, a state loses a great part of its social functions.

Under difficult social-economical conditions of the Ukrainian state, the development of the sphere of social services and social protection of the nation is becoming very significant and actual. The increase of the amount of social problems and enrichment in forms of their display was caused by the deepening of crisis processes

in the economical sphere of our country. Consequently, the efforts not only of state structures, but also representatives of not-state, not-productive, public organisations or the third sector were directed on the overcoming of the crisis situation.

The problem of the supplying of social guaranties is one of the main directions of the strategic development of the social sphere in Ukraine. Though, in spite of the declaration of the social growth, as the considerable aspect of the state development, the power does not pay proper attention to this sphere. That is why the absence of proper financing, treatment of social politics and organisation of the activity are often observed in this sphere. Under such conditions, participation of the third sector is becoming a factor, which tries to fill the disadvantages of the activity of state institutions and imperfection of the sphere of social protection.

The development of not-state organisations in our country, first of all, is connected with the following factors:

- crisis of centralized state system of social protection;
- corruptibility, low productivity and absence of flexible reacting in the activity of state system of social supply;
- aspiration of people for the realisation of their interests and satisfaction of current needs;
- solidarity of the people who like changes;
- giving services due to the priority needs of a client (Безпалько 2005: 81).

There are nearly 400 not-state, out-of budget, not-productive organisations in Ukraine. Their sphere of activity includes branches of culture, protection of health, education, social help, sport, etc. In spite of the fact, that the main direction of their activity is social protection of unemployed and miserable population, invalids, children, these organisations cannot become yet the basis of social supply in Ukraine, because they do not have enough legal foothold. However, they may play a great role in protection of social rights of certain categories of the population or give these social services and help, which are now absent in state system (Шевчук 2003: 189).

Considering evident advantages of the activity of the third sector, a lot of obstacles are arisen on the way of its development in Ukraine. The main problems of the activity of not-state organisations are:

- their not high amount;
- not enough experience of public job and low level of communication inside the organization, ambition and narrowness of leaders;
- not enough information about the essence and direction of their activity, which lead to the perception of these organisations' activity as a mediator from the state;
- orientation mostly on re-distribution of resources only in favour of the members of the organisation itself;
- not enough collaboration with other public organisations and structures, which act in the social sphere;
- not utilization of reserves of cooperation with state institutions, commercial circles, international not-state organisations (Шевчук 2003: 190).

Development of the third sector in Ukraine depicts proper social-political processes and transformations, which take place in society. As a result, three typical types of unions are formed in the sphere of the third sector.

The first type is the organisations which serve the interests of groupings in power. These different unions, which are addition to big corporations, act under guardianship of big political parties.

The parties initiate and organize special public organisations, which act for their order. These organisations unite qualified workers. Their activity in the sphere of solving the problems differs in its high effectiveness, since they have special experience and competence. These advantages provide them with higher effectiveness in comparing with other representatives of the third sector, which do not have stable financing, specialists and experience of social work under difficult conditions of the rights' field of our country. Quite often these organisations activate particularly their activity during electoral companies, realizing a special mission on the orders of main political parties. Though their activity is motivated by pre-election agitation, political advertisement, desires to increase the rating of the party, but electors may receive some social weal. Besides the last ones have already got used to such work and learned to determine its veritable motivation.

It is obviously that we cannot speak about the independence of similar structures. Their venality brings a big harm, first of all for discrediting the image of the third sector as cheap people capable of deceiving for the sake of money. Such organisations are quite responsible for present level of distrust and disappointing to the public organisations (Луценко 2009).

The second type is organisations, the activity of which is based on getting grants. The main aim of their activity is the supporting of own position, but not certain transformation in society. Such public organisations unite people, who solve the financial problems with the help of donors (or with donors' costs). In 95% cases these are foreign funds or institutions which are ready to give money for certain activity (and do not want to receive it back) in the determined spheres (Луценко 2009).

However, it is worth mentioning, that bureaucratic and technical demands of the international agreements to Ukrainian not-state organisations are rather overestimated. It may be proved but such figures. Nearly 500 Ukrainian organisations use the financing help, given by world donor institutions. It may be compared to other figures—in fact, ten thousand not-state organisations work in Ukraine, while nearly seventy thousands of such organisations are registered (Граєвський 2014).

Such workers are managed by the desire to be more independent in their activity from Ukrainian society. Financial support of foreign financial funds provides a wide field of activity, gives a possibility to solve such problems, on which Ukrainian society does not give money, does not pay enough attention or just ignores them.

The activity of this group of public organisations is characterized by honesty, transparency, system, succession. Such organisations are accountable to their

investors, that is why financial abuse, development of corruption (like in case of distribution of state financing) are impossible here. Participants of such unions are mostly highly qualified specialists, which is a necessary condition of receiving the financial help of large-scale project, and accordingly motivated volunteers. With the help of such public organisations specific or local problems are mostly solved, that is why they do not have extensive resonance and cannot provide radical public changes.

The third category is the organisations and unions, which exist on the enthusiasm and material donations of their members that is why they be called "autonomous". This is very scanty and not quite typical category for Ukraine. But nevertheless it exists. Since it happens quite often that members of autonomous organisations have personal interest in reaching the aim declared by an organisation, a system or an initiative, that is why the readiness to radical actions is typical for them. Chronic shortage of resources for its activity often creates a temptation for the moving from this group into ones mentioned above. The influence of general indifference among the society also quite often joins to it. However, really independent organisations still go on existing. By their own existing, these organisations keep, for the time being, the chances for the Ukrainian society to undergo inner transformations and show the example of applying moral-ethical statements in everyday life (Луценко 2009).

In spite of the general stagnation of social sphere in Ukraine, the samples of progressive experience of the third sector's activity were formed. Among them the activity of the organisation Caritas Ukraine differs in its scale and system.

Caritas (from the Latin *caritas*, meaning mercy, and self-sacrificing unconditional love) is an international network of charitable organisations which includes 165 national chapters. All Caritas chapters are active in developing civil society, fostering solidarity to protect human rights, and developing social policies.

The Mission of Caritas Ukraine is to develop philanthropy and to encourage community participation in charitable work according to Christian moral-ethical teachings.

The Goal of Caritas Ukraine is to develop and implement national programs that secure social assistance and support for the neediest segments of Ukrainian society, regardless of their nationality or religious beliefs.

The first Caritas organisations were established in Ukraine in 1992 after Ukraine declared independence. They were started by local Greek-Catholic communities. These organisations were mainly concerned with distributing humanitarian assistance. However, the needs of society forced Caritas' activity in Ukraine to expand. This led to the formation of the international charitable foundation Caritas Ukraine.

Because of Caritas Ukraine's efforts, the current network of local charitable organisations has developed and expanded; cooperation with foreign partners also continues to grow. In 1999 Caritas Ukraine became a full member of Caritas Internationalis and Caritas Europe.

Caritas Ukraine is a national and unique organisation because of its experience and the scope of their activity. Currently Caritas Ukraine has nearly 20 regional branches, employs almost 1000 professionals and volunteers to work on various projects. In recent years Caritas Ukraine's annual budget has hovered around € one million. During the year 2012 were such expenses: the help to children and youth—€ 506,355.52; protection of health—€ 467,174.20; migration programmes—€ 102,387.82, administrative costs—€ 87,927.22, other statutory activity—€ 60,994.80 (*Карітас України...* 2012: 41).

The main direction of their activity:

- helping children, youth and families in crisis;
- caring for the children of labour migrants;
- rehabilitation and integration of the disabled youth;
- helping to treat children with cancer;
- home care for lonely elderly individuals;
- medical advice on caring for sick person;
- loan out equipment for rehabilitation;
- palliative care;
- prevention and caring for people living with HIV/AIDS;
- lobbying activity;
- repatriation and reintegration of Ukrainian migrants;
- prevention of human trafficking and providing assistance to human trafficking victims;
- distribution of humanitarian aid;
- running soup kitchens;
- helping and supporting prisoners;
- helping those with dependency issues;
- emergency assistance;
- charitable campaigns;
- development of the volunteer movement (*Карітас України*, www.caritas-ua.org).

Let us characterize some directions of their activity more. The help to the crisis children and youth is organized in 5 social centers on outreach activities with youth (Kyiv, Donetsk, Lviv, Khmelnytskyi, Ternopil), 7 social centers on work with children of labour migrants (Ivano-Frankivsk, Kolomyia, Drohobych, Stryi, Boryslav, Brody, Novovolynsk), establishment for education and care of preschool children (Lviv), 2 pilot projects of social flats (Ternopil and Donetsk), and also targeted assistance for needful children, youth and families. For 2012 over 1000 individuals stayed under care of day-time social centers on work with children and youth and received help in coping with own life difficulties; few hundred of people in need got consultation or targeted aid. Moreover, 150 children of preschool age and 65 families who face complicated living circumstances used services of establishment for preschool kids Crisis center "Street children" in Lviv. Children and youth join educational, entertaining, sport, cultural, touristic events in social centers of Caritas and beyond it (*Карітас України...* 2012: 15).

Street work is constantly improving for defining and maintaining ongoing contact with young clients at streets and places of their dwelling, where they feel in safety to receive basic services and advice. Two first projects of Caritas Ukraine have launched their activities. They are directed at rendering social residence under surveillance for youngsters who temporarily have complications with accommodation and social adaptation. For 2012 social flat project seized 10 individuals.

In the frames of activities on rendering assistance to crisis children, youth and families reliable cooperation was established with almost 200 state educational and social structures, medical establishments, law enforcement bodies, employment services, 50 civic organization in Ukraine and 10 foreign charitable foundations (*Карітас України*, www.caritas-ua.org).

Network of centers for challenged youngsters unites 4 specialized social centers in Lviv, Drohobych, Stryi, and Ivano-Frankivsk. Over 100 individuals with special needs, their parents and relatives are seized with centers activities on a daily basis (*Карітас України... 2012: 18*).

People with special needs are assured with education; labor, art and music therapies; trainings on self-service and acquiring social and household skills; meetings with youth from other establishments and centers, leisure, recreation games, involvement in festivals and fairs, participation in summer camps, excursions etc. Parents of challenged individuals are granted with social and psychological follow-up; informational and legal support; on the one hand, work of Caritas centers help to provide physical and psychic rehabilitation, development and self-actualization of people with special needs. On the other hand, it contributes to transformation of consciousness of local communities and society in general regarding disability issues and social integration of such people.

Thanks to support of Ukrainian Catholic Church in Australia, in course of 2012 Caritas Ukraine has rendered aid to nearly 40 poverty-stricken families who faced oncological disease in children.

Project on medical and social care and improvement of living conditions for lonely elderly individuals in their homes operates in 8 cities – Kyiv, Donetsk, Odessa, Lviv, Ivano-Frankivsk, Ternopil, Kolomyia and Boryslav. Over 500 people are under care, in particular, seniors, palliative patients, victims of totalitarian regimes, ostarbeiters, people with HIV/AIDS, their families or care-takers. Informational and consultation centres function at 8 branches of Caritas in Ukraine. Informational and consultation centres function at 8 branches of Caritas in Ukraine. For 2012 over 3000 individuals received informational and consultation services in their homes; more than 5000 people – at Caritas offices, offices, nearly 1800 – by phone. Almost 85 educational thematic trainings (lasted for 3-4 hours) were conducted for volunteers and social workers. In 2012 over 670 individuals got rehabilitation equipment for temporary use and were given consultations on how to use it (*Карітас України... 2012: 23*).

During the last 10 years Caritas Ukraine has been actively working with social problems of Ukrainian migrants. There are programs on repatriation and reintegration of Ukrainian labour migrants being implemented, network of

consultative centers on prevention of human trafficking, assistance for human trafficking victims is rendered, scientific and sociological research of migration process is provided with involvement of external experts, lobbying rights and interests of Ukrainian migrants is done.

Each year, according to own needs, thousands individuals of risk groups or who faced human trafficking receive specific consultations, special follow-ups, psychological help; join group seminars and trainings. In course of preventive measures thematic informational materials are being distributed. Consultative centers on human trafficking prevention organize problem oriented round tables, street initiatives, informational campaigns and artistic competitions; implement modern methodologies of preventive work with school and university youth. For 2012 help in reintegration was rendered to nearly 300 people who faced human trafficking; almost 7000 individuals were seized with consultative services (*Карітас України... 2012: 31*).

At most regional Caritas branches clothing, footwear and other personal items are distributed to hundreds of disadvantaged individuals every week. Additionally the branches offer free meals, medicines, routine services, etc.

Helping inmates involves above thousand people. Inmates are given psychological, legal and financial assistance, spiritual guidance is provided by a priest and inmates are given an opportunity to participate in organized recreational activities.

There is a specialized rehabilitation establishment in Lviv region. It is aimed at providing chargeless assistance for social vulnerable individuals with alcohol and drug addiction, tuberculosis and also HIV-positive. Three types of services are rendered here: consultations, rehabilitation and social re-integration. Almost 60-100 people undergo rehabilitation annually.

Caritas Ukraine's work stands out for the following reasons:

- 1) **Comprehensive and systemic approach** to resolving social problems – they consider all the problems that exist in society, their causes, effects and consequences.
- 2) **Providing social and material assistance to people who have found themselves in crisis situations, including strictly educational and informational assistance.** At the same time Caritas workers in Ukraine use scientifically approved approaches to complete their social work, conduct their own research of problems in the spheres of: domestic health care, migration, unemployment, homelessness, child abandonment, children living on the street and on integrating the disabled into mainstream society.
- 3) **International Experience from the Caritas network** which has an over 120 year history and unites 165 national organisations, several million employees and volunteers. Caritas employees help over 25 million individuals in 200 countries annually. The exchange of experience, joint meetings and open communications with Caritas Ukraine are constant.

- 4) **Partnership with domestic and international, foreign community and charitable organisations, state services and governmental structures.** Our partners include Caritas Germany, Caritas Spain, Caritas Switzerland, Caritas Belgium, Caritas Austria, Caritas France, Caritas Europe, Renovabis, United Nations Development Program, Catholic Near East Welfare Association (CNEWA), Ukrainian Philanthropists Forum, the Carpathian Foundation, the International Renaissance Foundation , the East Europe Foundation and others.
- 5) **A Wide-reaching geographical network of Caritas Ukraine organisations** (nearly 20 regional organisations in various regions of Ukraine), a large number of qualified employees and volunteers, their continued up to date education, their continuous exchange of information and their ability to undergo training at other organisations.
- 6) **Work is carried out with Christian morals and values** regardless of the religion, social status, ethnic background, sex or age of the individual who is asking for help (Чорна 2012: 8).

Having analysed the work of a centre Caritas Kyiv, its head R. Syrotych claims that in spite of essential changes which took place in the social sphere of global positive changes in the sphere of giving social help it did not become true. State's help is still absence, there is not understanding and supporting of the activity of such centers on different levels (e.g. organized, etc.). The level of provision of people is not changed. The culture of participation in charity also did not increase. But on the other hand, the treatment of people towards charity and social work became more positive. People more often realize the necessity to help other people. Due to this, charity is being changed into inner necessity of the person, who does it. It may be claimed about the nucleation (in Ukrainian people) of inner readiness to endow own money to other people. People are more often ready to help, but only with small amounts of money on concrete things of those, who are trusted. Maybe such features affirm only about a primary level of development of the charity in Ukrainian society. Such a belated development of the charity may be explained by different reasons.

Firstly, it concerns historical circumstances. During dozens of years Ukrainian people were estranged from political and public participation. Total centralized control was estimated on personal and social life.

Secondly, economic reasons: the average class is almost absent in Ukraine (due to the latest research of UNO there are nearly 70% people on the verge of poverty and almost 5 million of the Ukrainian are unemployed).

Thirdly, distrust to the work of the charitable organisations, which was formed as a result of many speculations and the opaque work of minute pseudo-charitable projects which function with the aim of PR.

Fourthly, imperfection of the right field and tax system: the absence of proper base for social enterprise, the absence of state mechanisms of financing of social services for the public among charitable funds, taxation of charitable help, etc („Здатність помічати..." 2013).

Popularization of the charity is also a very important aspect of the optimization of social sphere. Charity cannot have advertising character, but it may be popular among the community. The result of charitable activity should become the main stimulus, but not the marking of its participation.

Staff workers as well as volunteers are involved in the activity of Caritas. Besides, the participation of volunteers is a bright index of development of the organization. Once, the largest amount of volunteers was in Ukraine. Nowadays from 2 to 30 volunteers work in every regional Caritas. However, it may be often be episodic or one-time help. The managers of Caritas are convinced that every person has a disposition to good, but no one shows it. Those who are ready to show their deals of charity and good may be involved to Caritas. The most effective way to attract the volunteers is the popularization of institution's work in social networks and in the media-space.

Evolution of the activity of Caritas Ukraine has passed the way from the distribution of pertaining to the humanities help to the creation of complex and successive national programs, which have direct indicators of the effectiveness, elements of the system. Solving of social work with the help of systematic approach is more effective, because it gives an opportunity to help people in complex and at the same time we should not underestimate address help, which is directed on the overcoming of concrete local problems.

Obviously, with the improving of economic position, appearance of political maturity, public culture the social culture will be also changed, moreover, not simply tolerance towards people in crisis situation, but solidarity, activity in solving problems of other people. Not-indifference and public activity are those features, which should distinguish a citizen of modern society („Здатність помічати...” 2013).

The activity of Caritas is one of the most persuasive patterns of mending partnership between a state and the third sector and an example of a successive activity of community in solving problems and overcoming and preventive measures of crisis phenomena. Participation in the organisations of the third sector of charitable direction is not only a way of improving of social sphere, but also a way of formation a space for the developing of public activity, social responsibility, national consciousness, and spiritual values of the citizens.

Bibliography

Безпалько О.В., (2005) *Соціальна робота в громаді [Social work in the community]*, Центр навчальної літератури, Київ, ISBN 9663640995.

Дікон Б., Халс М., Стабс П., (1999), *Глобальна соціальна політика. Міжнародні організації й майбутнє соціального добробуту [Global social policy. International organisations and the future of social well-being]*, Основи, Київ, ISBN 9665001566.

„Здатність помічати людей у біді – показник зрілості суспільства” [Ability to notice people in trouble – index of mature os the society] (2013), „День” [„Day”], 15.11.2013,

www.day.kiev.ua/uk/library/books/marshrut-no1-vipusk-16-rizdviane-divo, date access: 2.04.2014.

Луценко І. (2009), *Чи є незалежний третій сектор в Україні?* [Whether the third sector is independent in Ukraine?], „Українська правда”, [Ukrainian Pravda], 01.07.2009, <http://www.pravda.com.ua/articles/2009/07/1/4060240/>, date access: 5.04.2014.

Граєвський Л. (2014), *Третій сектор» в Україні: де криється проблема? Фонд Демкратичні ініціативи імені Ілька Кучеріва* [“Third sector” in Ukraine: where is the trouble? Ілко Кучерів, Fund of democratic initiations], http://www.dif.org.ua/ua/events/tretii-sektor-v-ukraini-de-krietsja-problema_.htm, date access: 3.04.2014.

Карітас в Україні [Caritas Ukraine], <http://www.caritas-ua.org>, date access: 2.04.2014.

Чорна Н. (ed.) (2012), *Карітас України на службі людям* [Caritas Ukraine on serve for people], Львів.

Карітас України на службі людям: Звіт за 2012 р. [Caritas Ukraine on serve for people: Report for 2012], (2012), Київ.

Шевчук П. (2003), *Соціальна політика* [Social Politics], Світ, Львів, ISBN 9666032539.

Cooperation for the Prevention of Homelessness Using Examples of Selected Countries of the European Union¹

Beata Szluz

Abstract

Partnerships between the various institutions are important for a given entity in the process of engaging stakeholders. They lead to the solution of problems that affect all partners. In the context of partnership, individuals, groups and organisations representing different sectors agree to cooperate. Their aim is the fulfillment of their obligations or to undertake specific tasks, bringing their skills and resources together, incurring the risks and costs, and sharing the benefits resulting from the achievement of common partnership goals and the objectives of individual member organisations. Cross-sectoral partnership consists of representatives of the three sectors. These are usually large partnerships entered into with the aim of implementing national, regional, and even international projects, among others, in terms of social assistance. This article illustrates selected examples of actions taken on behalf of homeless individuals that are implemented by entities representing the various sectors, undertaking to cooperate and implement projects for the benefit of this social category.

Key words: homelessness, social policy, the European Union, partnership

Introduction

Partnerships between various institutions are of vital importance for an entity in the process of stakeholder engagement (Grayson, Hodges 2004: 235). They may lead to solutions to problems that affect all partners. R. Tennyson and L. Wilde (2000: 12) have defined partnership as cross-sectoral alliances within which individuals, groups and organisations representing different sectors agree to cooperate to fulfill an obligation or undertake a specific task, bringing their competences and resources, collectively bearing the risks and costs, as well as sharing the benefits resulting from the achievement of the common objectives of the partnership, and objectives of the individual member organisations.

Cross-sectoral partnership is composed of representatives of three sectors. These are typically large partnerships entered into in order to implement regional, national, and also as well as international projects, among others, in the field of social assistance. An example would be the European Federation of National Organisations Working with the Homeless (FEANTSA), which promotes and allowed the international exchange of knowledge and expertise between entities operating on behalf of homeless people in Europe. Based on the recommendations of FEANTSA, that social

¹ Broader results of the research were presented in a monograph (Szluz 2014).

policy conducted in the context of preventing homelessness brings results, it is necessary to observe the so-called ten approaches/methods:

- 1) *based on evidence*—an understanding of the problem is the “key” in developing appropriate policies;
- 2) *comprehensive*—a method of combating homelessness involving crisis intervention policies and social rehabilitation of the homeless, as well as the prevention of the phenomenon;
- 3) *multidimensional*—cooperation between relevant ministries allows the building of an effective strategy and avoids the negative consequences of their application in various spheres;
- 4) *based on human rights*—access to adequate and sustainable housing is a necessary condition which allows the enjoyment of basic human rights;
- 5) *participation*—the involvement of all entities, i.e. public authorities, service providers and clients, in the implementation of solutions in the field of social policy in relation to homelessness, as well as coordinating activities;
- 6) *statutory*—intended to strengthen the homelessness strategy with legislation which is appropriate in this field;
- 7) *needs*—based on the premise that social policy regarding the problem of homelessness should be developed taking into account the existing needs of individuals, rather than guided by the structural needs of the organisation;
- 8) *from the bottom-up*—relies on developing homelessness policy at the local level within a national or regional strategy framework;
- 9) *pragmatic*—comprised of two elements: realistic goals are needed and possible to achieve, when relevant social problem research is conducted, as well as when a clear and realistic timetable containing short-term and long-term goals is developed;
- 10) *balanced*—creation of a balanced approach for combating homelessness through adequate funding, political commitment at various levels (state, regional and local), as well as conducting an information campaign (FEANTSA 24.10.2010; Szluz 2011a: 20).

In this article are selected examples of action on behalf of homeless individuals, which are implemented by entities representing particular sectors, undertaking to cooperate and implementing ventures for this social category.

The cooperation of entities in counteracting homelessness

The leading role in solving and preventing homelessness is played by Austrian provincial and municipal departments with their social budget, which finances social services, as well as housing for individuals in need of assistance, and supporting undertaken activities. In Austria, municipalities are responsible for the allocation of council housing, which is known as “emergency housing”. An innovative solution is the programme entitled “Four Walls and More”, in which was launched a promotion of alternative accommodation for men and women in uncertain housing situations (BAWO Bundesarbeitsgemeinschaft Wohnungslosenhilfe). All private and public institutions, which are active in terms of assisting the Austrian homeless or those threatened with this problem, have been invited to participate in this project.

In Belgium, specifically in large cities, many NGOs have been established which ensure support and assistance for the homeless. Measures have been taken with the aim of addressing training and employment barriers in this social category; therefore cross-sectoral cooperation, as well as cooperation with training and employment agencies, turned out to be very important. Approximately 44% of entities expanded their cooperation in this field (Lescrauwaet, Menxel, Blow 2007: 17). The Social Assistance Ministry of the Flemish government supports the project for improving services for the homeless, with the aim of establishing cooperation with employment agencies and increasing the number of training courses.

Among the services provided to the homeless in the Czech Republic, they may be specified as performed by: the state, regional or municipal authorities, and NGOs. Cooperation between entities is advisable, but has still not been implemented in full. 2,450 beds are offered to the homeless every night by the SAD organisation. This assistance is directed to only a portion of the people. The majority of individuals seeking assistance in the centres need shelter, food and other basic services. It is necessary to maintain a balance between the provision of such services and the individual's own obligation in caring for themselves. SAD cooperates with all local, national and European authorities, and NGOs. The organisation undertakes cooperation at the European level in the field of social policies, housing policy, and in terms of the exchange of personnel and experience (FEANTSA 29.08.2012).

An attempt to establish a national NGO, which was to act in specific regions of the country, was undertaken by Denmark. In July 2000, the Ministry of Housing and Urban Development, along with the Ministry of Social Affairs, launched a national plan to counter homelessness. Local authorities have the task of: preventing or limiting problems with the payment of rent, which is intended to prevent evictions; providing temporary housing for families who have lost their home; as well as providing an adequate number of facilities for the homeless (FEANTSA 17.08.2012). The regulation determines and includes services provided in a situation of homelessness, however it does not contain a statutory right to housing, nor does it fully satisfy the needs of those individuals who have difficulty in independently obtaining a dwelling. As a result, local social assistance centres and local authorities have wider possibilities in terms of interpreting and developing forms of intervention. Services for disadvantaged groups are almost entirely funded through public funds. NGOs such as SAND, The Danish National Organisation for the Homeless, participate in the provision of these services (FEANTSA 18.08.2012). Regional committees operate at the local level and establish cooperation with local politicians, consulting before making a decision. SAND organises regional meetings for committees, provides information, conducts activities in the field of education, provides training for volunteers and wards, and publishes a bulletin. In addition to the state institutions and NGOs that operate in Denmark, there are many private establishments that operate in the area of social assistance. An example, from which other countries have taken inspiration, is the Kofoed School in Copenhagen (Szluż 2013: 133; Szluż 2011b: 217–218). It is a private institution founded during the economic crisis of 1928. The experience of the founder, who was struggling with the problem of unemployment, contributed to the appearance of the idea of creating

places for activities and educating those individuals who lacked a livelihood or a perspective to make change.

The provision of housing through the public sector is one of the most powerful tools influencing the overall level of pricing in the housing market in Estonia. An alternative form of ensuring such premises is the implementation of projects by NGOs or public-private partnerships. A strategy has been introduced which is aimed at social integration (Estonia's National Action Plan for Social Inclusion). Some rules have been adopted for this Estonian strategy: an integrated approach to reducing poverty and social exclusion—the solutions must offer activities among the policies: economic, educational, work-related, social protection, healthcare, and housing policies. For an individual this means ensuring a coherent system of assistance in accordance with their needs, which involves cooperation between the various institutions, both at the local level as well as national.

In Finland, a novel approach to the problem of homelessness was proposed through the implementation of the “Housing First” model. Its indicated objective is the liquidation of temporary facilities and replacing them with forms of long-term housing. Before the introduction of this programme, the approach to long-term homelessness was dominated by the so-called “Staircase Model” model, known as the ladder model, in which homeless individuals overcame several stages (FEANTSA 24.10.2010: 10, 19). They should use the premises under certain conditions, for example, shelters with low standards, temporary accommodation for specific subgroups, transitional housing; but in order for this they had to have previously solved social and health problems. It was pointed out that one social worker should assume responsibility for two people in supported housing. The new Finnish strategy is connected with the use of a broad spectrum of activities in the field of social work. In the new program, financial responsibility is divided in half between the state and local authorities. An essential element in this process is a strong political commitment supported by financial resources. The program to reduce long-term homelessness is based on a broad partnership agreement.

In November 2009 a strategy to prevent homelessness in France was introduced and became the basis for the “Housing First” solution. It was prepared taking into account the principles of a humanitarian approach and unconditional refuge. Each individual should have access to a crisis facility; unconditional access to this type of facility allows the beneficiary to not be obliged to disclose any personal data. It emphasised the need to provide integrated services in a particular area, i.e. taking action in each department with regard to people threatened with homelessness. It initiated the operation of teams in the field (mobile teams), the operation of an intervention phone line, emergency accommodation, day centres, as well as other services associated with addressing the needs of homeless individuals (FEANTSA 24.10.2010: 4, 7-22). The initiatives are aimed at coordinating services and accommodation.

In Greece, action for the homeless is taken by: local municipal authorities, the Church, and NGOs. It was noted, that the national coordinating organisation may undertake the following actions:

- 1) evaluation of all institutions providing services to the homeless, it will be the criterion for the continuation of funding;
- 2) a division of labour in order to ensure that they are not duplicated by organisations;
- 3) designing, implementing and coordinating research, as well as publishing the results;
- 4) representing the country in European and international fora, at conferences, as well as workshops;
- 5) the establishment and assured operation of a national telephone number for individuals requiring assistance;
- 6) participation in the “National Plan for social inclusion – the prevention of homelessness in Greece” strategy (Stamatis 2012: 14).

A comprehensive program to prepare for an independent life includes, inter alia: cooperation with organisations providing vocational training; creation of a network of local services which includes support for homeless individuals with special needs, e.g. drug addicts, women experiencing violence; improving cooperation between the entities providing assistance; (FEANTSA 2008: 9-10).

Through the introduction of legislation in Spain, all municipalities which have greater than 20,000 residents are obliged to provide social services to the homeless. As a result, new centres were created, as well as an improved quality of service. NGOs in this country play an enormous role in assisting the homeless, specifically those associated with the Church. It is the same in The Netherlands, the fight against homelessness is the task of municipalities, which are responsible for preventing and overcoming the problem. NGOs also offer assistance by undertaking a number of activities, for example, participation in the conducting of research regarding this phenomenon, the operation of centres, and the provision of services. In Slovenia, the municipality should possess housing resources for disadvantaged groups. Ljubljana is the only city that offers housing – their number is limited – designated for families with many children, the disabled, single parents, victims of domestic violence, as well as homeless individuals.

Irish organisations that operate shelters cooperate with other entities in terms of: psychiatric care, supported employment, and the elimination of debt. Noted among the postulates to be implemented by 2016 is the need to develop early preventive intervention activities in social assistance structures, in this the development of indicators that act as an early warning system. Another task that was indicated was the preparation of a strategy of action for the homeless – combining integrated and preventive strategies with the aim of eliminating long-term homelessness (i.e. lasting more than six months), improving coordination of initiatives, and strengthening the involvement of individual entities (Department of the Environment, Heritage and Local Government 2008: 22-26).

In Lithuania, it is not possible to provide effective support for beneficiaries without the cooperation and coordination of initiatives, for a number of reasons: some clients

may use the services of many organisations; small organisations may receive less money from funding due to a lack of skills and capabilities to manage large projects; the more organisations that take part in competitions, the harder it is to receive funding (rather than creating a partnership); diagnosing the problem; without information on the services provided by other organisations, they can not effectively support clients; a lack of the networking and cooperation of NGOs may cause an insufficient representation of their views (Zaronaite 25.08.2012). In 2002, it was emphasised that the relationship between the state and NGOs had not been clarified, that the legal system solutions in this field were not specified, and the rules of financing NGOs from state budget subsidies in both their activities, as well as in ongoing projects (Matonytė, Zdanevičius 2002). In terms of benefiting from the use of structural funds, this constituted a very serious problem in integrating with the EU. Many services which are implemented by NGOs, such as prophylactic programs, canteens, and temporary-stay shelters were not granted permanent funding.

Observers of the homelessness phenomenon in Latvia put forward several proposals aimed at curbing, as well as trying to solve, the problem of homelessness. In terms of the cooperation between entities, it was stressed that it was essential for:

- 1) the involvement of public institutions, NGOs, as well as those operated by the Church, private individuals, as well as volunteers providing social services to the homeless;
- 2) the continuation of activities undertaken concerning the configuration of a uniform information system as well as improving cooperation between local government institutions, in order to prevent evictions;
- 3) the support of international institutions in promoting international cooperation in solving problems: poverty, and homelessness, etc. (Lapina, Skubure 2003: 8-9).

In turn, assisting the homeless in Germany is the task of public administrations, which cooperate in this field with third sector organisations, which also have the right to independently create their own initiatives. Social housing rental agencies are also in operation, undertaking activities oriented at ensuring premises in the private sector to the homeless. Their responsibility is to guarantee building owners, for example, the payment of rent, determining the amount of rent for the housing, and the absence of anti-social behaviour (Gosme, 2008: 11). In federal legislation, it is stated in the Social Assistance Act that cooperation between the public sector and the third sector is intended to complement social assistance entities and lead to their more effective actions. Consequently, the fact that homelessness is treated as a threat to public safety, adequate accommodation for the homeless is at the discretion of municipalities, which are obliged to ensure that the homeless have suitable housing that meets basic social standards. (Taeubner 1993: 1).

New orientation in the field of social policy in Portugal was related to, inter alia: taking initiatives covering a wide range of cross-sectoral cooperation (the entities: public, private, NGOs). Innovative forms of partnership at the local level have been designed and aimed at combating poverty and exclusion and has led to the involvement of various entities, among them, state services, local authorities, non-

profit organisations and citizens' groups in the network, and partnership, which was associated with increased mobilisation, effort, and responsibility.

The Slovak Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Family is the central body responsible for matters relating to social assistance. FEANTSA data shows that there is a lack of strategy for tackling homelessness at the national level. The basic law in terms of social assistance became Act No. 195 in 1998 which clarified the services rendered. Indirectly, it sets out the actions to be taken in favour of homeless individuals. The Act defines the right to safeguard the basic living conditions of homeless individuals; although the entity which is directly responsible for this, can not be explicitly determined (FEANTSA 2004: 10). It highlights three key entities involved in services for homeless individuals: NGOs, district authorities and local authorities.

Church organisations (charities) in Slovenia mainly offer material support; shelters provide facilities which are part of the social assistance centre. NGOs undertake and implement programs for homeless individuals. There is not a distinct separation between organisations that deal with social problems. There are entities which function exclusively to solve the problems of homeless individuals, as well as those whose addressees are several target groups.

Modifications introduced in Sweden with regard to public scrutiny of housing allocation have led to a change in the perception of homelessness, meaning, from a structural problem of housing to an individual one. This has resulted in the development of a local homelessness strategy at the municipal level (Löfstrand 2005). These issues are to be treated as national problems connected with the housing market or the labour market. They are currently assigned as the responsibility of local authorities and social assistance, and can be extended to cooperation with non-profit organisations.

Preventing the problem of homelessness primarily rests with local authorities (public) at the municipal level, which are responsible—on the basis of the Act on Social Services—for supporting those individuals who are incapable of acquiring and possessing a dwelling. Part of the social assistance system is the “secondary housing market”. This segment of the system is comprised of various types of transitional housing, for example, shelters and training or supervised housing.

The National Board of Health and Welfare has called for, based on their own and international experience, the preparation of a strategy to prevent homelessness at both the national and local level, with a view to cross-sectoral partnerships (Ministry of Health and Social Affairs, 2007: 3, 13–14). NGOs play an important role at the local level. The government is trying to encourage these entities to undertake a variety of activities for homeless individuals, for example, in terms of disseminating knowledge and inspiring relevant projects, regulations, and good examples of the implementation of their ideas. This can be achieved in the form of seminars, support for regional initiatives, and making comparisons between the municipalities concerned, for example, in statistics.

The Swedish strategy commonly applies the “housing ladder”. On the one hand, the requirements involved with transitioning to the next rung is constantly increasing,

thus the time needed to obtain one's own dwelling increases. However, on the other hand, examples exist in which consumers' rights as tenants have been strengthened, resulting in achieving a better housing situation. Another option is the "housing first" model (Källmen, Blida), which means that the homeless are offered housing, as well as receiving support.

According to 2007 government resolutions, the aim of the activities were the proposal of reintegrating 3,500 homeless individuals back into the labour market, through partially assuming their houses, their rent, as well as employment costs. The aim of the project, implemented through EU and EFS funding, was development of a network, and the activation and involvement of the entities (Källmen, Blida). Those involved were representatives of local authorities, employers, employment agencies, service providers, prisons, childcare facilities and other social institutions, as well as NGOs. Organised seminars were aimed at initiating and sustaining dialogue, as well as action for social inclusion.

In 2012 a so-called central electronic database was introduced in Hungary and as a result all social services receiving state funding must be represented in the form of detailed data by all users (FEANTSA 17/03/2014). Problems appeared involving the opportunity for registering services, as the homeless in larger Hungarian towns usually benefit from several services in the same day, with respect to emerging needs. Its aim is to develop cooperation between entities.

The British social assistance model differs from the Scandinavian and German models; what is related is the fact that the social insurance market has not taken shape in such a wide range and extent (Wisniewski, 2005: 3–5). Local strategies for assisting the homeless are developed and implemented throughout the country. Materials are prepared in which so-called good practices that have been implemented in the UK are shown. The advantage of the British solution is the combination of state assistance activities and third sector organisations which are operated by churches and religious associations, as well as the flexibility of proposed initiatives. The greater part of aid is based in the British system of conditional benefits which is connected with a verification procedure - if the entity applying for assistance truly needs it.

Until the year 2000, there were no legal regulations regarding prevention and assistance for the homeless in Italy. The implementation of rules for reforming the system of aid commenced in 2000. Four main types of local policies directed toward combating poverty and social exclusion can be identified: systemic actions, initiatives for social inclusion, interventions aimed at strengthening coexistence and strengthening communities. The activities are mostly implemented in partnership with local authorities and the third sector.

Summary

Models for cooperation between entities implementing tasks to assist the homeless are developed in the individual countries of the European Union. FEANTSA, on the basis of its 20 years of experience, has prepared a "tool for the development of

integrated strategies to combat homelessness” (Olech 19.07.2007). These types of strategies are based on the following principles:

- 1) accurate and cyclic diagnoses (a census of homeless individuals at the national, regional, local and individual level;
- 2) are incredibly extensive and comprehensive (including components of crisis intervention, early intervention, prevention, and social integration);
- 3) are multidimensional (they integrate various dimensions associated with homelessness – work, health, housing, social assistance, the judiciary, education and training, etc.);
- 4) are based on the human right of a person to have housing and a decent living;
- 5) relate to the philosophy of participation and responsibility (of all entities – responsible for the formation of social policy, responsible for implementation of this policy, as well as an environment of only people who are experiencing homelessness);
- 6) are associated with lawmaking and the stability of laws (they are independent of current political problems);
- 7) are sustainable and maintainable (they have their own budget, political support, the support of public opinion providing continuity);
- 8) are based on real needs (refer to actual needs and to the quality of life of homeless individuals and people threatened with homelessness; they are monitored cyclically);
- 9) are pragmatic and realistic (have realistic and measurably established goals and results, adequate action, a clear and precise implementation period, and the goals are hierarchical);
- 10) are worked out from the bottom-up (referring to local and regional problems), consider various models of support, focus on delivering services closer to the people, transferring solutions to the highest local level.

An important task therefore, is to establish cooperation between the partners representing the different sectors.

Bibliography:

BAWO Bundesarbeitsgemeinschaft Wohnungslosenhilfe, *Innovation*,

<http://www.bawo.at/de/content/wohnungslosigkeit/definitionen.html>, date access: 19.07.2013.

Department of the Environment, Heritage and Local Government (2008), *The Way Home: A Strategy to Address Adult Homelessness in Ireland 2008–2013*,

<http://www.environ.ie/en/Publications/DevelopmentandHousing/Housing/FileDownload,18192,en.pdf>, date access: 24.09.2014.

Estonia's National Action Plan for Social Inclusion, www.sm.ee, date access: 29.07.2013.

FEANTSA, *Denmark*, <http://www.feantsa.org/code/en/country.asp?ID=4&Page=22>, date access: 17.08.2012.

FEANTSA, *Ending Homelessness: A Handbook for Policy Makers and Social*, Brussels 2010,

www.feantsa.org/files/freshstart/Campaign_2010/background_docs/FEANTSA_handbook_EN_FINAL.pdf, date access: 24.10.2010.

FEANTSA (2004), *Homelessness and Housing Exclusion in the New Member States Draft. Synthesis Report Based on National Reports Submitted to FEANTSA*, (typescript).

FEANTSA (2008), *Housing Solutions for People who are Homeless. Greece – National Report*, (typescript).

FEANTSA, *Hungary: Ombudsman Queries Anomalies in Social Service User Database*, Budapest 2013, <http://www.feantsa.org/spip.php?article2019&lang=en>, date access: 17.03.2014.

FEANTSA, *National Report on Homelessness in the Czech Republic*, March 2004, http://www.feantsa.org/files/enlargement/ngo_czech_republic.pdf, date access: 29.08.2012.

FEANTSA, *SAND – The Danish National Organisation for the Homeless*, <http://www.feantsa.org/code/en/members.asp?ID=107&Page=22&Pays=4>, date access: 18.08.2012.

Gosme L. (2008), *Bezdomność w Unii Europejskiej*, [in:] M. Duda (ed.), *Bezdomność: trudny problem społeczny, „Jedność”*, Kielce, ISBN 9788374429153.

Grayson D., Hodges A. (2004), *Corporate Social Opportunity - Seven Steps to Make a Corporate Social Responsibility Work for Your Business*, Greenleaf Publishing, Sheffield, ISBN 9781874719830.

Källmen H., Blid M., *Evaluation of Housing First in Sweden. A Comparison with the Staircase Model*, European Research Conference Access to Housing for Homeless People in Europe York, 21st September 2012, FEANTSA, http://www.feantsaresearch.org/IMG/pdf/kallmen_blid_ws11_evaluation_of_hf.pdf, date access: 11.02.2014.

Lapina S., Skubure T. (2003), *National Report on Homelessness in Latvia*, FEANTSA, (typescript).

Lescrauwaet D. (editor), Van Menxel G., Blow H. (2007), *Multiple Barriers, Multiple Solutions: Inclusion into and through Employment for People who are Homeless in Europe. National Report Belgium (Flanders) – Annual Theme 2007*, FEANTSA, (typescript).

Löfstrand C. (2005), *Hemlöshetens politik. Local policy och praktik, Égalité*, Malmö, ISBN 9197523143.

Matonytė I., Zdanevičius A. (2002), *Problems of the civil society. Case study: nongovernmental organisations in Kaunas Region*, „Viešosios Politikos Studijos. Public Policy Studies” 2/3, ISBN 9955443138.

Ministry of Health and Social Affairs, *Homelessness. Multiple Faces, Multiple Responsibilities – a Strategy to Combat Homelessness and Exclusion from the Housing Market*, Government Offices of Sweden, Ministry of Health and Social Affairs, Stockholm 2007.

Olech P., *Seminarium. Współpraca i sieciowe współdziałanie w walce z bezdomnością w Oslo – relacja*, www.ngo.pl, date access: 19.07.2007.

Perl Ch., *Austria - National Report 2008. People who are homeless can be housed*, Gefördert aus Mitteln des Bundesministeriums für Soziales und Konsumentenschutz. Der Inhalt des Berichts liegt in vollständiger Verantwortung der BAWO, http://www.bawo.at/fileadmin/user_upload/public/Dokumente/Europa/FEANTSA/Berichte_Studien/Austria_National_Report_08_korr.pdf, date access: 19.07.2013.

Stamatis G.A. (2012), *Homeless in Greece in the Current Financial Crisis. What Perspectives?*, Athens, <http://crisis.med.uoa.gr/elibrary/13.pdf>, date access: 15.05.2014.

Szluz B. (2011a), *Przeciwdziałanie zjawisku bezdomności w Unii Europejskiej*, „Przegląd Europejski” 2(23), ISSN 16412478.

Szluz B. (2011b), *Znaczenie edukacji w przeciwdziałaniu marginalizacji społecznej osób bezdomnych*, [in:] M. Chodkowska, A. Mach (eds.), *Pedagogika wobec zagrożeń marginalizacją jednostek, grup i regionów*, UR, Rzeszów, ISBN 9788373386273.

Szluz B. (2013), *Edukacja a włączenie społeczne na przykładzie osób bezdomnych*, [in:] M. Lukáč (ed.), *Edukácia človeka - problémy a výzvy pre 21. storočie*, Prešovská univerzita, Prešov, ISBN 9788055508252.

Szluz B. (2014), *Zjawisko bezdomności w wybranych krajach Unii Europejskiej*. [*The Phenomenon of Homelessness in Selected European Union Countries*], UR, Rzeszów, ISBN 9788379960750.

Taeubner S. (1993), *Bezdomność w Niemczech. Przyczyny, zjawisko i drogi do przezwyciężenia*, „Głosy Czasu” 3, ISSN 00391492.

Tennyson R., Wilde L. (2000), *The Guiding Hand. Brokering Partnerships for Sustainable Development*, United Nations Department of Public Information, Geneva.

Wiśniewski J. (2005), *Ewolucja szwedzkiego i brytyjskiego modelu polityki społecznej w latach 1993–2003*, ASPRA-JR, Warsaw, ISBN 8389964457.

Zaronaite D., *Prevention Strategies of Homelessness in Lithuania – 2004*,
<http://www.feantsa.org/code/en/country.asp?ID=19&Page=22>, date access: 25.08.2012.

Social Economy Cluster as an Exemplary Implementation of the Idea of Inter-Sectoral Cooperation

Paweł Walawender

Abstract

Over the past several years Poland has been home to growing and developing cluster initiatives involving legal and organizational consolidation of socially-oriented entities in order to increase their competitiveness and innovation. The main participant in the cluster cooperation is the private sector, however, projects of this type are more and more often joined by non-governmental organisations. The article describes cluster initiatives involving social economy entities (SEEs). The resulting social economy clusters can fulfil an important role in enriching existing practices of social cooperatives with new activities and experience providing the effect of synergy. Cluster initiatives based on the concept of social economy are still nascent in Poland, but the most important is the fact that they keep growing and evolve giving the chance to spread the idea of social economy among the public.

Key words: *inter-sectoral cooperation, cluster, social economy, social exclusion*

Introduction

Over the past several years new initiatives have been created and developed in Poland with the aim to consolidate legally and organizationally different operators and organisations in order to increase their competitiveness and innovativeness. Such actions are called clustering or cluster initiatives. The main participant in the cluster cooperation is the private sector, but practice shows that these projects are more and more often joined by non-governmental organisations (NGOs) (cf. Szluz 2010: 257–273). This article develops the issue of creating clusters with specific structure – i.e. those that consolidate social economy entities (SEEs). Clustering is a response to the challenges of the modern labour market where persons classified as people at risk of social exclusion find it more and more difficult to find their way. The resulting social economy clusters can fulfil an important role in enriching existing practices of social cooperatives with new activities and experience providing the effect of synergy.

What is social economy and a cluster?

Before some examples of clustering initiatives in the field of social economy are given, it is essential to introduce two key concepts of social economy and a cluster.

Social economy is one way to determine the economic activity that combines social and economic goals. It is frequently described as social management or social entrepreneurship. The main goal of social economy entities is not to generate profits or accumulation of financial capital. Their resulting income serves primarily the development of economic activity to satisfy mainly social needs (*Co to jest ekonomia społeczna?*).

The very term of social economy appeared and spread as far back as the nineteenth century, mainly in France, and was then applied to those entities engaged in economic activities which had as their main objective not only to maximize profit, but also to achieve specific societal goals (Szopa 2012: 13).

Piotr Sałustowicz indicates the following function of social economy:

- 1) Social economy as a *jobmachine* – the social economy is expected to provide new jobs, particularly targeting marginalized people or those at risk of social marginalization, it is also expected to provide services in terms of vocational training and to enable the transfer to the so-called higher labour market.
- 2) Social economy as as compensation for “the market and the welfare state failures” – this is mainly the look from the social policy perspective, whose responsibility is to provide social services for individuals and groups or local communities, especially there where the private or public sector are not able to meet the growing social needs.
- 3) Social economy as a “producer” of social capital – this is primarily a social inclusion/cohesion policy perspective, but applying also to the ethnic or emancipatory look on the social economy – the task of the social economy is to a “multiply” social capital.
- 4) Social economy as “studies in democratisation” – with the view of democratization, social economy is expected to engage individuals and social groups in the process of political decision making (Sałustowicz 2007: 12).

In order to better understand the concept of social economy, it is worth describing the institutions which are the “core” of this environment – the so-called social enterprises. The most popular and frequently used definition is that formulated by the personnel of the EMES European Research Network (*Co to jest ekonomia społeczna?*). The very term of social economy appeared and spread as far. According to it, a social enterprise means activity with mainly social purposes and whose profits are assumed to be reinvested in these objectives or in the community, rather than to maximize profits or increase the income of the shareholders or owners. The EMES determines social and economic criteria which should be characteristic for the initiatives falling within the definition of social economy.

Table 1: The EMES European Research Network criteria

Economic criteria:	Social criteria:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - relatively continuous and regular activities based on economic instruments; - a high degree of autonomy of institutions in relation to public authorities or other organisations; - bearing the economic risk; - a minimum level of paid workers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - an explicit aim to benefit the community; - an initiative launched by a group of citizens; - a specific system of management, as democratic as possible; - a highly participative management and operations; - a limited profit distribution.

This set of criteria defines an ideal social enterprise. Therefore, the projects included in this sector are not required to meet all the criteria, but most of them.

Social enterprises can perform very different functions. There are five basic functions that are listed on the biggest portal on social economy in Poland (www.ekonomiaspoleczna.pl):

- Social inclusion and activity in the labour market.
- Providing public services:
 - a) Social services:
 - educational services;
 - activities in the field of broadly understood social services, providing care;
 - activities in the field of broadly understood health care.
 - b) Technical services may concern e.g. the maintenance of green areas and other clean-up work related to public property.
- Mutual services. These can be both the projects within the market area and the the competitive ones, precisely because of their mutual character, for example mutual insurance, health and care services, telephone cooperatives, etc.
- Services on the open market.
- Providing public goods and the development of local communities. Trade and production (*Co to jest ekonomia społeczna?*).

The second key concepts in the article is the concept of a cluster or clustering. Today, there are a number of different definitions of cluster available in reference literature. The author of the concept is M. Porter who defines a cluster as a “geographical proximate group of interconnected companies, specialized providers, expertise in a particular industry and associated institutions (as e.g. universities, standards bodies and industry associations) in a particular field, linked by commonalities and externalities. What is more, clusters are structured around a critical mass (an indispensable number of companies and other institutions that create the effect of agglomeration and have extraordinary competitive success in certain fields of activity); they are a striking feature of virtually every national economy, regional, state, and even metropolitan, mainly in developed countries” (Porter 2001: 246–248).

Most commonly, the clusters are not defined as memberships but as mutual relationships of entities. A characteristic feature of a cluster is the concurrence of mutual competition and cooperation. Competition forces continuous progress, innovation and improving efficiency. Whereas partnership allows connecting potentials and competencies of a number of companies and other entities (like universities, government, business environment institutions), and consequently the implementation of projects that would not be feasible for an individual company, especially a smaller one (Koszarek 2011: 9).

Poland still does not have a comprehensive legal regulation relating to the legal system of clusters. Thus, legal solutions that would regulate issues related for instance to a comprehensive definition of a cluster, the essence and purpose for its creation, its systemic position, spheres of activities or the process of the cluster solution are still missing. However, the Polish Ministry of Economy provided a

definition of the cluster on its website and it reads that a cluster is *a spatial and sectorial concentration of organisations dedicated to economic development or innovations, and at least ten enterprises engaged in economic activity in one or more neighbouring regions competing and cooperating in the same or related sectors, and linked by the extensive network of formal and informal relations, with at least half of the entities within the cluster being the entrepreneurs.* (Ministerstwo Gospodarki).

The subject literature provides various definitions allowing for determination of common characteristics distinguishing a cluster from other forms of organization of production. These are: spatial concentration – interactivity – network linkages – a common trajectory of development – competitiveness and co-operation (Portal Innowacji).

Examples of social economy clusters in Poland

Cluster initiatives began to emerge in Poland at the beginning of 21st century. One of the oldest clusters is a furniture cluster created in Góra Kalawaria Zebrzydowska and a wickerwork cluster (in Rudnik-Leżajsk). A significant development of clusters in Poland can be observed in years 2006–2009 (Hołub-Iwan 2012: 23).

Presented below are four examples of promising cluster projects created mainly by non-governmental organisations dedicated to the implementation of socio-economic objectives.

The Cluster of Social Enterprises

The idea of creating a cluster emerged during a meeting of the social cooperatives in Krzyżowa in 2013, organised by “Merkury” Foundation and Lower Silesia Federation of Non-governmental Organisations (Klaster Przedsiębiorstw Społecznych). The idea to launch a joint action matured for six months so that the cooperatives could finally meet in August 2014 for the first founding workshop of the Cluster of Social Entrepreneurs which developed the objectives and principles of coordination. After three workshops during the founding meeting 13 organisations signed on 18th October a consortium agreement to set up the Cluster of Social Entrepreneurs.

The strategic goal of the Cluster is to use as much as possible the strengths of individual members of the Cluster and to counter their weaknesses. The operational goals include:

- to gain new markets for individual members;
- initiate exchange of services and products between the members;
- increase the members' capacity through joint implementation of tasks for public benefit purposes;
- increase the members' capacity through joint sourcing of funds for their development;
- increase the members' capacity through joint implementation of public procurement;
- members' products promotion both in Poland and abroad;
- mutual promotion of the members' products/services;

- the Cluster promotion in the environment of social cooperatives (local governments, “traditional” business);
- reduce operating costs of the members through joint purchasing of services;
- integrate the cluster members;
- initiate transnational contacts;
- create strong position and recognizable cluster brand;
- stimulate the growth of competitiveness of enterprises, present and future members of the Cluster, by giving them access to counseling services and training (Klaster Przedsiębiorstw Społecznych).

The Social Economy Cluster in Cieszyn

In 2007 in Cieszyn, the Entrepreneurship Development Foundation “Być Razem” was established to run a social enterprise, support social cooperatives, companies dedicated to projects of social nature, associations and other forms of activity working on the principle of solidarity, mutuality and cooperation (Chmiel). The foundation became the leader of the project “W stronę klastra – promocja ekonomii społecznej” (“Towards the cluster – promoting social economy”) implemented under the Civic Initiatives Fund Operational Programme. The project involved 12 entities from three sectors: public administration, business and social economy. It culminated in signing a cooperation agreement, which was based on partnership and cooperation of the three sectors - government, business and NGOs. In the preface to the agreement on the creation of the cluster in Cieszyn, it was indicated that the parties to the agreement recognize the inter-sectoral cooperation as an effective way of solving social problem. They aim at working in partnership for the benefit of local community, participants in the agreement, the socially excluded, as well as for the development of „socially responsible business”. The cluster is expected to bring benefits to all its participants. Unlike other models of functioning of social economy entities, it is supposed to compete with commercial companies providing high quality services and offering innovative products. Their advantage is reasonable price skilfully combined with the SEEs mission. In the future the cluster also intends to raise special funds so as to become the entrepreneurship incubator in the field of social economy and the grant giving organization.

The following organisations participated in the creation of the social economy cluster in Cieszyn (Chmiel):

- *1st sector (public administration)* – the District Labour Office in Cieszyn, the Municipal Social Welfare Centre in Cieszyn, the Silesian Palace of Art and Enterprise in Cieszyn.
- *2nd sector (entrepreneurs)* – “Creator” Laura Majboroda-Andrukiewicz's Studio of Education, the Company AMR – Stal Mariusz Rudziński, the Company RAST Tomasz Cholewik, Renata Weber's Tailor's Workshop Styling and Design, Open2be Michał Paluch, the company Unitem Sp. z o.o, Karol Jagucki.
- *3rd sector (non-governmental organisations)* – “Być Razem” Entrepreneurship Development Foundation (the project leader), “Być Razem” Mutual Aid Association, “Strefa Szara” Audiovisual Culture Foundation, “Serfenta”

Association, "Więź" Health Protection Association in Cieszyn, "Nowy Horyzont" Social Cooperative.

The Social Economy Cluster in Pomerania

The beginnings of the Social Economy Cluster in Pomerania should be traced to the projects "Na Fali" and "Projekt Agenda Bezdomności" implemented in years 2005–2008 under the EQUAL Community Initiative. It was then that the complex system of social and professional reintegration of the homeless and threatened with homelessness was developed and tested (Ośrodek Wsparcia Ekonomii Społecznej). At that time Gdańsk is the place where the Center for Social and Professional Reintegration (later transformed into the Center for Social Inclusion) is set up. An important event was the Gdańsk Social Economy Conference in June 2008. It was organized by the RC Foundation, and provided a summary of a several years' research of the best models of activities within the social economy framework in Poland. It was attended by the President Lech Walesa, the Prime Minister Tadeusz Mazowiecki and professor Leszek Balcerowicz whose presence added splendour to the presentation of the document entitled Social Economy Manifesto outlining the key assumptions of the concept of social economy in Poland. The year 2009 marked the beginning of a proper consolidation of entities operating in the field of social economy. It is then that the Social Entrepreneurship Incubator and the Network of Support for Social Economy are formed, along with the Academy of Social Economics. The year 2011 marks the beginnings of the Gdansk Model of Social Economy – a collection of directions, solutions and tools that can be used to support the development of the social economy in Gdansk. In April 2013 there is formed the Centre for Social Economy Support (Ośrodek Wsparcia Ekonomii Społecznej – OWES) also called "Dobra Robota". This centre has led to the creation of at least 50 different types of social enterprises. "Dobra Robota" also provides the support for local governments in implementing Local Models of Social Economy. The Social Economy Cluster was founded in November 2014. Its coordinator is the Regional Information and Support Centre for Non-Governmental Organisations (Ośrodek Wsparcia Ekonomii Społecznej).

Lokomotywa – The Social Economy Cluster in Podkarpackie Voivodeship (PEKS)

The initiator of the project is the Institute for Social Economy in Rzeszów – a foundation established by entities representing non-governmental sector (Podkarpacki Bank Żywności, B-4 Association) and the market (the company BD Center Sp. z o. o.). The cluster operates on the basis of an agreement signed in 2014. It was formed for an indefinite period and it is mainly active in Podkarpackie Voivodeship (Instytut Ekonomii Społecznej).

Currently, the cluster is formed by fourteen entities representing all three sectors of socio-economic activity. It consists of scholars, public administration units, entrepreneurs, including social cooperatives providing services and NGOs. The agreement on the establishment of the PKES was signed by (Instytut Ekonomii Społecznej):

- the Institute of Social Economy from Rzeszów
- the University of Rzeszów,
- Foundation of Solving Social Problems Societatis,

- Bergamotka Social Cooperative from Dębica,
- CHATKA MAŁOLATKA Social Cooperative from Krównik,
- FENIKS Social Cooperative from Łąka,
- ORTO-SPORT Social Cooperative from Rzeszów,
- Polifonia Project Social Cooperative from Rzeszów,
- Rezydencja pod Platanem Social Cooperative from Zarzecze,
- Siedlisko Social Cooperative from Sokołowo Małopolskie,
- Stawiamy Ślady Social Cooperative from Łańcut,
- SYNERGIA Social Cooperative from Rzeszów,
- The commune of Strzyżów and
- the company 4HC Sp. z o. o. from Rzeszów.

The diversity of organisations and institutions forming a cluster provides a holistic view of the social economy sector in the Podkarpackie Voivodeship. It enables multi-dimensional approach to solving the identified problems and facilitates the creation of inter-sectoral partnerships. The main objectives of the initiative is to promote and support social entrepreneurship, implementation of innovative solutions in the sector of social economy and creating a positive image of the sector. The founding belief of the Cluster is that we can achieve more working together than by acting alone (Salwińska).

The members of the cluster want to share their experiences, to support one another in making their services more professional, and in sourcing of funds for their activities. The initiative is also meant to contribute to the establishment of lasting and effective relationships between local authorities, organizational units, business environment institutions, NGOs and social economy organisations (Salwińska).

Conclusion

The cluster initiatives presented in this article are an attempt to create a formal ground of cooperation between social economy, public administration and business entities. The idea of the social economy entities cooperating with businesses and public administration when selling products and services not only leads to reducing fixed costs, the economic development of individual social enterprises, and thus to the increase of competitiveness, but it also generates added value which is undoubtedly the increase in public trust in a given area (Kujawsko-Pańskie Centrum Ekonomii Społecznej). The status of the cluster that is, a memorandum of cooperation of many entities, including the university, gives preference in applying for the funding from the Structural Funds (Ośrodek Wsparcia Ekonomii Społecznej). Owing to the cluster, great and small economic projects can achieve much more through the network of interacting enterprises, service providers, academic institutions, and producers focused on the same area than if they had to work themselves. Such clusters can create the effects of a rolling snowball. As for the creation of a cluster consisting of social economy entities, it is essential that an external institution dedicated to SEEs gets involved in it. This is dictated by the specifics of SEEs, whose activities cannot be compared with those of companies operating within clusters but for a few cases. Therefore, entrusting the role of coordinator of the cluster to such entity as the NGO having experience in working

with SEEs, ensures an effective operation of the cluster without any additional involvement of people working regularly in social enterprises (Słodownik, Charkowska-Giedrys, Dobkowski 2013: 45). This occurs in the cases described above.

Bibliography

Chmiel J., *Cieszyński klaster – droga do trojsektorowego partnerstwa*,

<http://www.wspolnota.org.pl/aktualnosci/aktualnosc/cieszynski-klaster-droga-do-trojsektorowego-partnerstwa/>, date access: 5.05.2014.

Co to jest ekonomia społeczna?, <http://www.ekonomiaspoleczna.pl/x/433225>, date access: 5.05.2014.

Hołub-Iwan J. (ed.). (2012), *Benchmarking klastrów w Polsce – edycja 2012. Raport ogólny*, Polska Agencja Rozwoju Przedsiębiorczości, Warszawa, ISBN 9788376331515.

Instytut Ekonomii Społecznej, <http://www.ies-rzeszow.pl/pkes/>, date access: 5.05.2014

Klaster Przedsiębiorstw Społecznych, <http://www.kupujspolecznie.pl/klaster/5>, date access: 5.05.2014.

Koszarek M. (ed.) (2011), *Inicjatywy klastrowe: skuteczne działanie i strategiczny rozwój*, Polska Agencja Rozwoju Przedsiębiorczości, Warszawa, ISBN 9788376331768.

Kujawsko-Pałuckie Centrum Ekonomii Społecznej,

<http://www.old.kpces.byd.pl/index.php?id=529&submenu=44>, date access: 5.05.2014.

Ministerstwo Gospodarki, *Koncepcja klastra*, <http://www.mg.gov.pl/node/11784>, date access: 5.5.2014.

Ośrodek Wsparcia Ekonomii Społecznej, <http://dobrarobota.org/>, date access: 5.05.2014.

Portal Innowacji,

http://www.pi.gov.pl/parp/chapter_96055.asp?soid=F7B02F71548C419C99DF4BD6CE9A412A, date access: 5.05.2014.

Porter M.E. (2001), *Porter o konkurencji*, PWE, Warszawa, ISBN 8220812879, 832081287-9.

Salwińska B., *Podkarpacki Klaster Ekonomii Społecznej – Lokomotywa ruszył pełną parą*,

<http://www.ekonomiaspoleczna.pl/wiadomosc/1282386.html>, date access: 5.05.2014.

Salustowicz P. (2007), *Pojęcie, koncepcje i funkcje ekonomii społecznej*, „*Ekonomia społeczna. Teksty*” 2, Fundacja Inicjatyw Społeczno-Ekonomicznych, Warszawa.

Słodownik E., Charkowska-Giedrys K., Dobkowski R. (2013), *Wstępna analiza warunków umożliwiających powstanie inicjatyw klastrowych w obszarze ekonomii społecznej na terenie działania Ośrodka Wsparcia Ekonomii Społecznej w Olsztynie*, Olsztyn,

<http://www.wamacoop.olsztyn.pl/index.php/materiay-do-pobrania>, date access: 5.05.2014.

Szluz B. (2010), *Aktywizująca praca socjalna*, [in:] J. Stala (ed.), *Socjalizacja – wyzwania współczesności*, Biblos, Tarnów, ISBN 9788373329409.

Szopa B. (2012), *Teorie ekonomiczne a ekonomia społeczna*, [in:] M. Fraczek, J. Hausner, S. Mazur (eds.), *Wokół ekonomii społecznej*, Małopolska Szkoła Administracji Publicznej, Uniwersytet Ekonomiczny w Krakowie, Kraków, ISBN 9788389410221.

Summary in English

The monograph *Interdisciplinary approach in social problem solving* covers a wide range of social issues. Simultaneously, it emphasizes the need for interdisciplinary cooperation in solving various social problems of the contemporary society. The authors adopted concepts of modern approach towards social problems which arise from interaction of the individuals and the society in the broadest sense. Different factors are discussed such as families, government, churches, municipalities, NGOs, educational institutions etc. Their role in the social pathologies prevention is described, including the current burning issue of social exclusion.

The spectrum of discussed social problems is very broad and includes both traditional themes such as poverty, unemployment, homelessness, alcoholism and delinquency, violence against groups of people, penitentiary and after-penitentiary care, support for disadvantaged youth and seniors and migration and immigration, as well as the new problems emerging in the modern information society e.g. due to the so-called digital disadvantage and divide. Each factor fulfils its specific and irreplaceable role within the social system, therefore the individual papers are intertwined by the mutual necessity of close cooperation between subjects that provide the social support and assistance. They complement and reinforce each other, what is effectively possible only in an atmosphere of close cooperation at the municipal, regional and national level. Solving individual problems is set in the conceptual framework of long-term national social strategies. Universities develop a theoretical background and provide an open-minded and independent research to give a reliable theoretical basis and research data to all cooperating parties. These characteristics create their unique role—as researching and educational institutions therefore, could not be omitted. The authors also addressed the potential risks arising from inadequate or improper coordination of the various partner organisations. Recommended solutions are embedded into national social frameworks which partly differ both historically and culturally. Nevertheless, an issue of the international cooperation within the member states of the European Union was newly added as a complexity and a difficulty in solving particular social problems, as it has already exceeded the capabilities of individual states. Foreign experiences have become a valuable source for inspiration and international cooperation in the social sphere, creating new opportunities and space to search for better solutions in the provision of social support and prevention of social problems.

The monograph entitled *Interdisciplinary approach in social problem solving* originated thanks to the collaboration of key institutions involved in its preparation, namely the *Jan Evangelista Purkyně University in Usti nad Labem*, *University of Rzeszow*, *Jan Grodek Higher Vocational School in Sanok*, *Polish Society for Social Policy* and *The Foundation for Solving Social Problems "Societatis"*. The book is dedicated to the memory of *prof. PhDr. Anna Tokárová, CSc.*, for her contribution to the development of social pedagogy and social work.

Souhrn v češtině

Monografie *Mezioborový přístup k řešení sociálních problémů* pokrývá širokou škálu sociálních témat a současně akcentuje potřebu mezioborové spolupráce při řešení různých sociálních problémů současné společnosti. Autoři staví na moderních přístupech pojetí sociálních problémů jako důsledků interakce jedince a společnosti v nejširším slova smyslu. Zabývají se jednotlivými činiteli – rodinou, státem, církví, obcemi, nevládními neziskovými organizacemi, vzdělávacími institucemi aj. a jejich rolí při prevenci různých sociálně patologických jevů včetně aktuální palčivé problematiky sociálního vyloučení.

Spektrum diskutovaných sociálních problémů je velmi široké a zahrnuje jak tradiční témata chudoby, nezaměstnanosti, bezdomovectví, alkoholismu a delikvence, násilí proti skupinám obyvatel, penitenciární a postpenitenciární péče, péče o znevýhodněné skupiny mládeže i seniorů, migrace a imigrace, tak i problémy nové, vznikající v moderní informační společnosti např. v důsledku tzv. digitálního znevýhodnění. Jednotlivými příspěvky prolíná nezbytnost vzájemné úzké spolupráce subjektů poskytujících sociální podporu a asistenci, neboť každý z činitelů plní v sociálním systému svou specifickou a nezastupitelnou roli. Vzájemně se doplňují a posilují, což je možné jen v atmosféře úzké spolupráce jak na komunální a regionální, tak i na národní úrovni. Řešení jednotlivých problémů je zasazeno do koncepčního rámce dlouhodobých národních sociálních strategií. Není opomínuta ani role univerzit jakožto výzkumných a vzdělávacích institucí, které rozvíjejí teoretická hlediska a realizují objektivní a nezávislá výzkumná šetření s cílem poskytnout seriózní teoretická východiska i výzkumná data všem spolupracujícím subjektům. Autoři se zabývají také možnými riziky vyplývajícími z nedostatečné či nevhodné koordinace jednotlivých spolupracujících organizací. Uváděná řešení jsou zasazena do národních společenských a sociálních rámců, které se částečně liší historicky i kulturně. Nově zde přibýlo téma mezinárodní spolupráce v rámci členských států Evropské unie, neboť složitost a náročnost řešení jednotlivých sociálních problémů již přesahuje možnosti jednotlivých států. Zahraniční zkušenosti se stávají cenným zdrojem inspirací a mezinárodní spolupráce v sociální oblasti vytváří nové příležitosti a prostor pro hledání lepších řešení při poskytování sociální podpory a prevenci sociálních problémů.

Monografie s názvem *Mezioborový přístup k řešení sociálních problémů* vznikla ve spolupráci klíčových institucí, které se podílely na její přípravě, jmenovitě *Univerzity Jana Evangelisty Purkyně v Ústí nad Labem*, *Řešovské univerzity*, *Vyšší odborné školy Jana Grodka v Sanoku*, *Polské společnosti pro sociální politiku* a *Nadace Societatis*. Kniha je věnována památce *prof. PhDr. Anny Tokárové, CSc.*, za její přínos k rozvoji oborů sociální pedagogiky a sociální práce.

Podsumowanie w języku polskim

Monografia *Interdyscyplinarne podejście w rozwiązywaniu problemów społecznych* obejmuje szeroki zakres zagadnień społecznych, jednocześnie podkreślając potrzebę interdyscyplinarnej współpracy w rozwiązywaniu różnych problemów współczesnego społeczeństwa. Autorzy prezentują koncepcje nowoczesnego podejścia do problemów społecznych, które wynikają z wzajemnego oddziaływania jednostek oraz społeczeństwa. W książce ukazano różne czynniki, takie jak: rodzina, rząd, Kościół, gmina, organizacje pozarządowe, instytucje edukacyjne itp. Zobrazowano także ich rolę w zapobieganiu patologiom społecznym, w tym przeciwdziałaniu kwestii wykluczenia społecznego.

Spektrum poruszanych problemów społecznych jest bardzo szerokie i obejmuje zarówno tematy tradycyjne (ubóstwo, bezrobocie, bezdomność, alkoholizm oraz przestępczość, przemoc wobec ludzi, więzienie i opieka postpenitencjarna, wsparcie dla młodzieży i seniorów w trudnej sytuacji oraz w trakcie migracji) jak również nowe problemy pojawiające się we współczesnym społeczeństwie informacyjnym, takie jak np. cyfrowe wykluczenie. Każdy czynnik spełnia swoją specyficzną i niezastąpioną rolę w systemie społecznym, a poszczególne podmioty są ze sobą powiązane poprzez wzajemną konieczność ścisłej współpracy między instytucjami, które zajmują się udzielaniem pomocy oraz dostarczaniem społecznego wsparcia. Są one komplementarne i wzajemnie powiązane, co jest możliwe tylko w atmosferze ścisłej współpracy w środowisku lokalnym, regionalnym, a także na szczeblu krajowym. Rozwiązywanie indywidualnych problemów jest możliwe w tzw. długoterminowych krajowych strategiach przeciwdziałania problemom społecznym. Uniwersytety zajmują się opracowywaniem teorii oraz dostarczaniem swoim współpracownikom niezależnych wyników badań w celu stworzenia wiarygodnych podstaw teoretycznych oraz badawczych. To wszystko składa się na ich istotną rolę w społeczeństwie jako instytucji badawczych oraz edukacyjnych, co również nie uszło uwadze autorów. Dzieło wskazuje także potencjalne zagrożenia wynikające z niedostatecznej lub niewłaściwej koordynacji różnych organizacji partnerskich. Rozwiązania zalecanemożna odnaleźć w krajowych strategiach społecznych, które częściowo różnią się zarówno historycznie, jak i kulturowo. Zwrócono także uwagę na kwestię złożoności i problematyczności rozwiązywania konkretnych konfliktów społecznych w kontekście współpracy międzynarodowej w państwach członkowskich Unii Europejskiej, ponieważ zdarza się, że przekraczają one możliwości poszczególnych państw. Doświadczenia zagraniczne stały się cennym źródłem inspiracji i współpracy międzynarodowej w sferze społecznej, podsuwając tym samym nowe pomysły w poszukiwaniu lepszych rozwiązań w zakresie świadczenia pomocy społecznej i profilaktyki problemów społecznych.

Monografia *Interdyscyplinarne podejście w rozwiązywaniu problemów społecznych* powstała dzięki współpracy najważniejszych instytucji zaangażowanych w jej przygotowanie, a mianowicie: Uniwersytetu Jana Evangelisty Purkyně v Ústí nad Labem, Uniwersytetu Rzeszowskiego, Państwowej Wyższej Szkoły Zawodowej im. Jana Grodka w Sanoku, Polskiego Towarzystwa Polityki Społecznej i Fundacji Rozwiązywania Problemów Społecznych „Societatis”. Książka poświęcona jest pamięci prof. PhDr. Anny Tokárovej, CSc., z wyrazami uznania za wkład w rozwój pedagogiki społecznej i pracy socjalnej.

Note on the Authors

- Andrzejewska–Cioch Anna, PhD. *John Paul II Catholic University of Lublin (Poland), Faculty of Theology, Institute of Family Sciences and Social Work, department of Social Integration of Persons with Disabilities.*
- Bojanowska Elżbieta, PhD. *Cardinal Stefan Wyszyński University in Warsaw (Poland), Faculty of Historical and Social Sciences, Institute of Sociology, Department of Social Gerontology.*
- Cywiński Łukasz, MA. *Higher School of Labour Safety Management in Katowice (Poland).*
- Czekaj Krzysztof, PhD., Associate Professor. *Pedagogical University of Cracow (Poland), Faculty of Humanities, Institute of Philosophy and Sociology, Department of Applied Sociology and Social Disorganization.*
- Frączek Piotr, PhD. *J. Grodek Higher Vocational School in Sanok (Poland), Department of Social Work.*
- Kamiński Tadeusz, PhD., Associate Professor. *Cardinal Stefan Wyszyński University in Warsaw (Poland), Dean of the Faculty of Historical and Social Sciences, The Institute of Political Science, Department of Economic and Social Policy.*
- Kanios Anna, PhD., Associate Professor. *Maria Curie–Skłodowska University in Lublin (Poland), Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology, Department of Adult Education.*
- Kawińska Martyna, PhD. *Cardinal Stefan Wyszyński University in Warsaw (Poland), Faculty of Historical and Social Sciences, Institute of Sociology, Department of Social Gerontology.*
- Kleszcz–Ciupka Ewelina, MA. *J. Grodek Higher Vocational School in Sanok (Poland), Department of Social Work.*
- Komorska Marta, PhD. *Maria Curie–Skłodowska University in Lublin (Poland), Institute of Sociology, Department of Sociology of Medicine and Family.*
- Koral Jarosław, PhD., Professor. *Cardinal Stefan Wyszyński University in Warsaw (Poland), Faculty of Historical and Social Sciences, Institute of Sociology, Department of Sociology of Work and Organisations.*
- Krasiejko Izabela, PhD., Associate Professor. *Jan Długosz University in Częstochowa (Poland), Faculty of Pedagogy, Institute of Pedagogy, Department of Social Work and Public Health.*
- Kruk Marzena, PhD. *Maria Curie–Skłodowska University in Lublin (Poland), Institute of Sociology, Department of General Sociology and Migration Research.*
- Mirewska Elżbieta, MA. *Pedagogical University of Cracow (Poland), Faculty of Pedagogy, Institute of Social Work, Department of Ethics of Social Work and Social Policy.*
- Misiąg Malwina, MA. *University of Rzeszow (Poland), Faculty of Sociology and History, Institute of Sociology.*

- Myszczyzyn Irena, PhD. *Ivan Franko National University of Lviv (Ukraine), Department of General and Social Pedagogy.*
- Ornacka Katarzyna, PhD. *Jagiellonian University (Poland), Institute of Sociology, Department of Applied Sociology and Social Work.*
- Pawłowska Agnieszka, PhD., Associate Professor. *University of Rzeszow (Poland), Faculty of Sociology and History, The Institute of Political Science, Department of Public Administration and Social Policy.*
- Pešat Pavel, Ph.D. *Jan Evangelista Purkyne University in Ústí nad Labem (Czech Republic), Faculty of Education, Department of Pre-primary and Primary Education.*
- Przesławski Tomasz, PhD. *Warsaw University (Poland); Faculty of Applied Sciences and Resocialization, Institute of Social Prevention and Resocialization, Department of Law and Penitentiary Policy.*
- Szluz Beata, PhD., Associate Professor, Vice-Dean for Sciences. *University of Rzeszow (Poland), Faculty of Sociology and History, Institute of Sociology, Department of Sociology of Social Problems.*
- Tuziak Bożena, PhD. *University of Rzeszow (Poland), Faculty of Sociology and History, Institute of Sociology, Department of Sociology of Territorial and Virtual Collectivities.*
- Urbańska Magda, PhD. *University of Rzeszow (Poland), Faculty of Pedagogy, Department of Family Sciences.*
- Walawender Paweł, PhD. *Pedagogical University of Cracow (Poland), Faculty of Humanities, Institute of Philosophy and Sociology, Department of Social Research Methodology.*
- Witek Beata, MA. *Cardinal Stefan Wyszyński University in Warsaw (Poland), Faculty of Historical and Social Sciences, Institute of Sociology, Department of Research and Evaluation Methods; Central Statistical Office in Warsaw.*
- Wojaczek Krystian, PhD., Professor. *Opole University (Poland), Faculty of Theology, Institute of Family Sciences, Department of Pastoral Care and Prevention Families Dysfunctions.*
- Zeller Lidia, MA. *Child and Family Support Association FOR FAMILY in Częstochowa (Poland).*
- Żukiewicz Arkadiusz, PhD., Associate Professor. *University of Lodz (Poland), Faculty of Educational Sciences, Department of Social Pedagogy.*
- Żuraw Katarzyna, MA. *Jagiellonian University (Poland), Institute of Sociology.*

Index

A

adolescents, 20, 22, 30, 111, 115, 172, 173
adoption, 17, 25, 26, 27, 28, 30, 31, 122
alcohol, 11, 12, 14, 17, 30, 98, 103, 105, 107,
147, 219
alcoholism, 11, 12

B

business, 51

C

Caritas, 13, 19, 212
Catholic Church, 13, 16, 18, 19, 23, 29, 49,
69, 144, 218
cluster, 52, 234
collaborative governance, 193
community centre, 12

D

delinquency, 11, 12, 14, 166, 172, 242
deprivation, 11, 97, 202, 207, 211
digital technology, 183, 184, 185, 187, 188,
190, 191
domestic violence, 27, 102, 103, 105, 106,
107, 109, 227
dysfunction, 27

E

elderly care, 58
equality, 59, 78
European Union, 49, 59, 75, 78, 102, 152,
153, 159, 160, 184, 193, 195, 223, 230,
233, 242

F

family life, 11, 67, 68, 71, 79, 81, 82, 83, 114,
123
family support, 17, 66, 120, 126
family violence, 102
foster care, 17, 23, 28, 30, 126, 129, 130
foster family, 30, 32

H

homeless, 13, 14, 17, 19, 122, 144, 223, 230
human rights, 13, 216, 224

Ch

charity, 10, 14, 16, 18, 20, 21, 22, 144, 187,
212, 220, 221
children, 12, 26, 68, 77, 93, 123, 172, 217
Christian, 9, 13, 14, 53, 69, 216, 220

I

internet, 97, 98, 183, 184, 185, 186
intersectoral cooperation, 93, 94, 95, 99,
117

L

local government, 35, 49, 86, 95, 125, 147,
157, 168, 193
local partnership, 48, 93, 152, 193

M

marriage, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 79,
80
migrants, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 217, 218

N

network organisation, 49, 50
non-governmental organisation, 19, 37, 86,
94, 102, 121, 143, 152, 234

P

parents, 25, 67, 75, 97, 123
parish, 9, 10, 11, 12, 14, 19, 20, 97, 133, 135,
136, 138, 140
penitentiary, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 242
poverty, 11

R

refugee, 86, 175

S

school, 11, 22, 53, 66, 69, 93, 96
social assistance, 16, 33, 142, 153, 164, 223
social development, 26, 53, 95, 163, 185,
195
social economy, 48, 52, 53, 54, 234, 235,
236, 237, 238, 239, 240
social exclusion, 17, 33, 34, 36, 43, 48, 59,
80, 93, 96, 98, 99, 123, 126, 142, 143, 166,
226, 230, 234, 242
social integration, 17, 36, 45, 55, 126, 132,
186, 218, 226, 231
social welfare, 21, 25, 28, 30, 52, 53, 71, 126,
128, 129, 147, 161, 178, 238
special needs, 123, 218, 227
suicide, 111

T

therapy, 12, 14, 17, 21, 27, 29, 30, 31, 67, 69,
124, 146

U

unemployment, 10, 11, 14, 41, 81, 118, 123,
126, 142, 159, 166, 175, 195, 208, 213,
219, 225, 242

V

voluntary, 37, 38, 48, 55, 94, 121, 135, 136,
143, 155, 160, 185, 186, 212

Y

youth, 93, 217

Title of Book: Interdisciplinary Approach in Social Problem Solving
Editors: Ilona Pešatová, Beata Szluz, Paweł Walawender
Scientific Editor: doc. PhDr. Jiří Škoda, Ph.D.
Publisher: Faculty of Education, J. E. Purkyne University
in Ústí nad Labem
Location: Ústí nad Labem
Year of Publication: 2015
Print Run: 200
Pages: 249
Print: J. E. Purkyne University in Ústí nad Labem
ISBN: 978-80-7414-986-3 (Print)
ISBN: 978-80-7414-987-0 (Online)
DOI: 10.21062/ujep/1.2016/k/978-80-7414-987-0