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***Professor Honorificum*** of Warsaw Management University





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**Ivana Butoracová Šindleryová**

VŠMP ISM Slovakia v Prešove

## ***Regional, Legislative and Marketing Aspects of Education Need and Life Standard Quality within SMEs of the East-Slovakia Region***

**Key words:** *East-Slovakia Region, legislative, education*

### **Summary**

*The aim of the study was to describe the labor market within Slovak region in relation to its social condition and level of life-standard. We have set four main hypotheses within the target group of 300 respondents. Due to the results gained from research, the solution to the difference and increasing gap inbetween the offer and the demand on the labor market might be set by support to the courses and qualification training from the government. It is necessary to provide the labor with quality and effectiveness provided and guaranteed by the local or national authorities. The local government agencies should provide the market with the Keyoffer of education courses responding to the need of the employers.*

## **Introduction**

Integration of qualified and disqualified employers on the labor market is a serious problem of the present time not only in the transformed economies. This problem is being discussed in these days mainly because of lack of qualified workers on the European market and the proclamation of the European efforts to eliminate the social gaps and interregional differences. Unemployment has a lot of influence on the economic and social aspects of one's life. The target group of this research was defined as the inhabitants of Presov region and the employees of local small and medium businesses. The authors have studied their life quality and importance of education need in relation to their employment status and promotion of education from the top management.

## **Aim of Study**

The aim of study is to theoretically characterize the labor market and all the challenges and newest trends it has gone through and to analyze the legislative background of the employment policy as well as discrimination trends within the Slovak republic in order to present available solutions. The labor market is directly related to education, which promotion from the public or private sector is very necessary [Adamišin, 2005, s. 22]. Education, qualification and qualified workers are the basic elements of employment grow and increase of the workers' life standard and life quality. The unemployment might meet anyone. However, we must realize especially legislative and ethical aspects of various forms of discrimination as well as the importance of promotion of the necessity of long-life education for the publics. Analytical part of the study tries to outline the way the people perceive unemployment in relation to chosen parameters and the emphasis they put on the importance of promotion of education by the appropriate means and tools of marketing support.

## **Material and Methods**

The labor market policy of the Slovak republic is one of the most important production factors. The demand is set by companies and the work offer depends on the marginal costs of households. The labor market defines the rate of labor offer and labor demand amount. Work demand is the amount of labor forces that are the companies and state



willing to buy for the given price – the wages. It depends on the demand on the goods and services produced by the work [Bačuvčík, 2006]. The labor offer is the amount of labor forces that are the households willing to sell at the given price. This amount involves the amount of work-able inhabitants. The labor market is influenced by many external impacts from the state or unions. The unions play an important role by solving the wages questions, they present the other side of employers fighting for the rights of employees.

### **Legislative Aspects of Labor Market**

Various countries and various periods of time do declare a great difference among wages range. The amount of wages depends on profession, qualification, worker's skills, work productivity, length of praxis, etc. The economic level of the countries is important as well. There will always be some differences in wages scales. However they can not be based on the sex, religion, nationality, etc. The discrimination is not allowed in any labor relationship. The differences are usually set by the continual demand and offer on the labor market. The market should be directed to such an equal model of wages gaps in which the total demand on any category of labor force would be equal to the demand on it. That is the only way the general equilibrium without could be set. The employer is compulsory to provide the employee with the minimum wages if not agreed differently within the collective agreement. The minimum wages within the Slovak republic is 1,941 EUR per hour which makes 337,70 EUR per month.

### **European Declaration of Financial Support**

European Committee declared the decision identifying the list of regions approved to benefit from its financial support regarding the list of budgeted calculations defined for all of the regions in the Slovak republic for the period of 2007-2013. In comparison with the pre-accession period of 2004-2006, the country was granted a great possibility to benefit from co-assistance of the Union. The amount of financial allocations claims the great potential of economic and social growth of the country if being able to use them effectively and more responsibly than in the period of pre-accession. As might be seen in the previous research results of the

author [Litavcová – Butoracová Šindleryová, 2009], the main importance was put on the development and education within the structural changes in the back-warded industrial areas in the country of author's interest – Slovakia.

Current program framework was the first framework period for the Slovak republic to use the EU financial support through the whole period on the basis of the National Strategic Reference Framework, which was processed in cooperation with the legislative coordination form the European side. Instead of four structural funds, the Slovak republic has been granted only two of them for the seventh framework program: European Regional Development Fund and European Social Fund providing including the Cohesion fund total amount of 308 mld. EUR, which presents 36% of total European budget. There are also several differences between 6th and 7th Framework Programs policies considering the objectives and tools of regional policy of the European Union. The objectives for 2007-2013 are Convergency, Regional Competition and **Employment**.

### **Labor Market as Determinant of Education Development**

Though the economic costs of the unemployment seem to be very high, the financial expression is not appropriate to the human, social and psychological changes that would the periods of long lasting unemployment bring to a man. The modern economy is always based on the qualified labor forces and the level of education support for the employees presents the movement force of society development. The market economy can progress only in the democratic society that means that consumers of education can decide freely about the education type and content that they are able to gain in order to be active on the labor market. The quality of education process must always grow [Širá, 2007]. The unemployment statistics declare that the amount of unemployed is mainly influenced by the unqualified labor forces. Therefore the education legislative tools devoted to further education and personal development are directed mainly to that group. The investments into the education are not as high as the investments needed for the rise of employment. The education legislative precautions can not provide the labor market with free job positions, but the researches have shown that these precautions might provide the unemployed with a better chance of employment. In the end,

this would support the changes on the labor market and that might eliminate the negative consequences of long-lasting unemployment.

### **Qualification and Requalification**

Qualification is a category based on the historical development of work share process. It is predicted not only by the production-technical and economic-organizational conditions, but also by various social and sociable indicators. Qualification is the general ability to do any work activity that is required in the time and space. Qualification defines the social requirements on the personality of an employee and it defines the amount of theoretical knowledge, life and work experiences, skills, habits, general survey, intellectual maturity, moral characters and personal abilities. A qualified employee is the one that has gained the knowledge, habits, attitudes and methods of work required for the profession.

The main objective of the company education is to create the conditions for effective fulfillment of the company goals by the creation of permanent formation of work labor [Rákoš, 2006]. The organization education should be devoted to the area of qualification praxis by the activities such as adaptation, orientation, re-qualification, etc. Especially the requalification plays an important role within the restructuring economies because of the necessity of labor force adaptation to the new economic environment and its changes. The requalification can be seen as an organized process of gaining new knowledge, skills and habits that are necessary for the profession different from that previous one performed by a worker. It is a special form of education providing the continual education within the profession area. It is also a solution to the problem of structural unemployment.

The Role of Universities in Setting Up the System of Education of Labor Market

- The analysis of the regional labor market and its development.
- The analysis of the structure of the educational needs, demand in the educational market.
- Increasing of frequency and quality analyses making of a degree of satisfaction of rational student needs and his/her total satisfaction with his/her institution.
- Increasing of the offer attractiveness of the university for highest

quality students of secondary schools from the population years as candidates of study of a certain college and university.

- Successive transformation of the higher educational institution into high degree of sensitivity, into so-called “high sensitive organization of services”.

- To upgrade the level of reactions of the university institution for imperfections and problems found in satisfaction analysis.

- Increasing interest and high attractiveness for high quality researchers and pedagogical personalities in the institution.

- Increasing of the institution attractiveness as a thoroughgoing employer.

- Increasing of internal communication in the framework of the university.

- More out-of-budget money, including grants.

- Optimisation of fields of study structure and specializations.

- Quality increasing of all university activities.

- Goodwill increasing and prestige of the university comparing nowadays state.

- Attitude change of the students, pedagogical and non-pedagogical employees of the university concerning university matters.

- Employee identification with the university aims.

- Creating of good cooperation climate of collaboration with state and municipal authorities.

- Improving of atmosphere and working conditions in the university by setting non-problem funding of the university (from budget and out-of-budget sources).

- Change of top-candidates-perception of the university – from the position of substitutive solution to the position of their first choice – by candidates, parents of students, secondary school teachers.

- Strengthening and increasing of market position of the university in our region comparing to other public schools or newly established universities.

- Presenting of investment importance to universities (former graduates, companies, organizations, funds, foreign funds, etc). [Štefko – Frankovský – Bačik, 2007: 80].

### **Economic and Other Aspects of Long-Life Education**

The primary influence of education of a man may be secondary seen by performance of his or her potential skills gained by education. These skills often have economic character [Porvazník – Birknerová, 2009: 14]. Science researches proved that the economic impact of education might be seen as increase in creation of value added, rise of labor fund, rise of work productivity, evaluation of education on the level of production sources from technological and informational point of view, implementation of education skills into the IT sector, improvement of quality outputs of reproduction process.

However, there are many other than economic impacts of education. These are based on the human function of education based on the human rights and freedom. Some of uneconomic aspects of education are: development of human potential (formation of a man as the highest creator of the values by developing his or her physical and psychical skills), creation of knowledge “storage” which would be passed to other generations by a man, creation of social-cultural society defined by cultural changes and formation of political and social status of a man.

The unemployment increase and passivity of the SMEs within the Slovak republic would be caused by three main factors:

1. General re-distribution of work positions related to transformation leading to the net lost of positions. We should expect the time gap between the elimination of old and unnecessary work professions and the income of those new ones. This gap would be caused by both slow and difficult structure of administration and fear from wide-spread structural reforms.
2. The existence of strong differences between the existing source of labor force and the needs of the market economy. However, this disharmony must lead to an obvious solution – creation of work positions that would require qualification different from that being offered by workers in the geographical area of their existence.
3. The minimum wages are not attractive for the labor force looking for a job which would even strengthen the requirements on the social system.

The Union would like to solve this problem by proclamation of a new version of Lisbon strategy and providing the countries of Europe by the support of structural funds. The liberals often talk about the prohibition of social support within the national law of the countries.

### **Research Methodology**

On the basis of described theoretical terms and analysis of the situation within the Slovak labor market the authors have set hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: We suppose that the employed and unemployed would have different attitude to their chance of fighting against unemployment.

Hypothesis 2: We suppose that the unemployment would directly influence the quality of life of the employee.

Hypothesis 3: We suppose that there would be differences among the respondents depending on the fact if they have already participated in requalification courses.

Hypothesis 4: We suppose that the employees would consider the importance of education differently in relation to its promotion and support from the organization top management.

Hypothesis 5: We suppose that the employees would react differently to the promotion of education and re-qualification importance for their personal development.

The research target group was defined by 300 respondents of which 150 employed and 150 unemployed. Both groups were divided half to half women to men at the age of 25 to 35. All respondents live in Presov region and the choice of unemployed respondents was performed at the Local Agency of Ministry of Labor, Social Affairs and Family of the Slovak republic. All employed respondents work in Presov small and medium businesses at the moment. We have used the method of a questionnaire because of its simplicity and easy accessibility. The questionnaire involved 18 questions which were scaled and opened. The data were processed by the statistics program STATISTICA by methods of percent evaluation, analysis of diversity, Pearson correlation, T-test.

### **Results and Discussion**

The unemployed and unqualified claim a very negative attitude to the possibility of re-employment and they mainly refuse the education need. That we have supposed as the employed and unemployed being qualified

do understand the need of education differently. A very important fact was that the labor force employed besides the area of their qualification is interested in the requalification courses. On the other hand, labor force employed within the sector of their education does not show any interest in the re-education. The group of university graduates showed the highest interest in further education and re-qualification importance. We might say that the people are influenced by the opinion of the top management and the promotion and communication from the top management of the company is seen as a kind of “order” so the promotion from the top management does support the interest for education. On the basis of our research we have proved our statement that the attitude to the qualification is different in various groups of labor force and the support from the top management or the opinion leader would help to attract the employees.

The current labor market is not able to offer the work possibilities to qualified and unqualified workers equally and it can not offer the same wages for the same work position. The reform of education system would be necessary in order to provide the graduates with such education that would be helpful in their working life. The government should eliminate the creation and existence of those education branches that do not reflect the need of the labor market. However, we should not forget that not all the people are able to finish the university education and therefore the country should support the professional branches and handcrafts.

In relation to basic education reform, there is an obvious need of improvement of languages knowledge and IT skills. This need is closely related to the globalization trends and strong and quick progress of the research and science areas. The European market does offer a lot of possibilities for those who are prepared. In order to integrate into European society, we should destroy the language barriers.

The support from the top management is necessary. The top management is often seen as the opinion leader in the companies and people are used to follow such an opinion. If the marketing support would be given to the education chance then the interest of the employees would surely grow. If talking about the unemployed, the leader would be the main actor of the region or any person respected and honored.

A solution to the difference between the offer and the demand on the labor market would be eliminated by support to the courses and trainings from the government. It is necessary to provide them with quality and effectiveness. The local government agencies should provide the market with the offer of education courses responding to the need of the employers.

There are a lot of new methods of education within the companies eliminating the fluctuation of the workers. Some of them are brainstorming, coaching, assessment centers, outdoor training, etc. It is important to attract the employee and make him or her feel important by participating on the education process. These methods guarantee the development of the human capital in an organization.

The main problem is also seen as regional differences. There are great differences in wages scale and job offer among the regions [Tej, 2007]. The East Slovakia is sadly famous for the brain drain and the departure of the skilled and talented people because of their inappropriate evaluation. A lot of them leave to the capital or even further, to the EU states where they would be given an appropriate wages and job offers. However, the problem of the poorest regions should be seen in the insufficient infrastructure and low economic activity. The income of investors should be welcomed and fought for.

### **Conclusion**

The unemployment presents an important and serious social-economic problem which has to be managed by the government in order to make the market economy effective. The labor market is just market itself. There surely is demand and offer within the market based on the labor force available and active in the country and the amount of positions offered by the companies and public sector. The promotion and support from the business leaders and the main regional actors is the first intention for the employees to be interested in the education and qualification courses. However, there is a strong social gap in opinions and attitudes among the employed and the unemployed. The labor market of our country should be accessible for everyone and the government is responsible for providing that.



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**Artur Brudnicki**

ISM Slovakia

***Les caractéristiques du marketing de la bancaire en Pologne dans le contexte de la crise économique. Les stratégies du marketing des banques d'entreprises, les modèles d'opération, marketing de services financiers***

***The characteristics of marketing strategies in Polish banking sector in the context of the financial crisis. The marketing strategies & business models for corporate banking business. The marketing of the financial services***

**Key words:** *Brand management, banking, financial services marketing, banking marketing, advertising campaign, image, corporate banking, ATL, brand communication, marketing B2B.*

### **Summary**

*The article concerns the specifics of communicating the image of the retail and corporate bank to the market. It also shows the general characteristics of marketing activities in the banking market, with particular emphasis on the separateness of corporate banking market - both marketing and product. The specificity of marketing activities in this market stems from three areas - financial services marketing, banking marketing and the crucial - the specifics of business in the institutional market. Characteristics takes into account the impact of the current financial crisis as the main factor affecting the strategies of banks on the Polish market.*

Les caractéristiques du marketing de la bancaire d'entreprise en Pologne dans le contexte de la crise économique. Les stratégies du marketing des banques, les modèles d'opération, marketing de services financiers.

À la fin d'Octobre 2008, l'économie mondiale a été secouée par les nouvelles de l'effondrement du système financier mondial. La crise financière actuelle est la plus importante depuis la Grande Dépression dans les années trente du siècle dernier. Les raisons de ceci sont vus, entre autres, en actions crédits sans restriction dans le secteur bancaire, à la fois sur le marché de détail, d'investissement et institutionnel. Dans le sillage de l'information de la crise économique s'est commencé une avalanche de résultats économiques de ce message. À son tour, la détérioration des indicateurs économiques, une perte de confiance dans les banques, la baisse des prix des valeurs mobilières et les changements dynamiques des taux de change - a contribué à la forte dévaluation des instruments financiers. Crédit est devenu plus cher, les actions crédits ont été interrompues, la dépréciation totale de la valeur des contrats d'option et une baisse importante de la valeur des sociétés cotées.

Dans ce contexte d'affaires, les banques opèrent dans le monde entier. Sans aucun doute, l'image de ces organisations a été affectée significativement. Les banques comme des institutions de la confiance du public ont perdu la confiance, qui est nécessaire pour le fonctionnement de ce marché. Les banques prennent des mesures correctives, principalement la restructuration. Une partie importante de ces stratégies de crise, en plus de l'optimisation des coûts, devrait être déterminer les efforts de

marketing visant de reconstruire l'image de la banque et d'informer le marché sur la solidité financière et la résistance aux tendances mondiales. Et dans le sillage de cette - une redéfinition importante des groupes cibles et leurs besoins affectant la modification de la communication de l'image et du produit sur le marché bancaire.

Le but de cet article est de définir les spécificités des activités de marketing dans le marché de la banque de financement au creux de la crise économique en montrant la pertinence de la communication de l'image de marque de la banque. Élément du mix promotionnel sur ce marché le plus affectant la sensibilisation et promotion de l'image de la marque est la publicité. L'Analyse de cet outil est donc au cœur de la présente étude. La publicité utilisée de manière intégrée avec des actions directes (BTL) contribue de manière significative à la réussite de la communication de la marque.

En tenant compte la spécificité du marketing bancaire sur le marché institutionnel, il semble que la communication ATL ne soit pas l'élément important du mix promotionnel sur ce marché. En effet, des campagnes des marques d'entreprise sont diffusées dans les médias beaucoup moins fréquemment et ont moins d'intensité que dans les marchés de détail. Grâce au marché limité les medias utilisés pour les campagnes sont plus fines et sélectifs, et des activités publicitaires sont complétées par une gamme d'activités qui sont plus directes et relationnelles. Le besoin de communication de masse sur le marché est dicté par la spécificité de la banque en tant qu'institution de la confiance du public. De plus une banque, comme chaque entreprise, a besoin de faire connaître leur marque et leur image souhaitée, et ceci est réalisé le plus efficacement par des activités d'ATL.

### **Le caractéristique de marketing du marché bancaire en Pologne**

Le marché de la banque de financement en Pologne existe parallèlement avec le marché de la banque de détail. La majorité des banques polonaises sont les banques de détail universelles, qui n'oublent pas, cependant, de groupe très rentable de clients institutionnels. La distinction entre les clients de détail et aux entreprises est le critère de base pour la segmentation dans le secteur bancaire. Le client (destinataire de services) différencie les activités de commercialisation des produits, et parfois même les marques des banques – d'où les différents modèles

d'affaires des banques. La plupart des banques en Pologne sont des banques universelles qui dirigent son offre à la fois aux clients d'institutionnels et de détail. Cependant la plupart des banques ne choisissent pas de spécialisation clair dans ce contexte et elles peuvent être divisées entre celles qui fournissent principalement des services aux clients de détail et la bancaire de l'entreprise ne représente qu'une partie marginale du business, ainsi que celles dans lesquelles cette relation est inversée. L'Universalisme reste visible dans l'offre de produits de base, il est difficile de trouver une banque, dans laquelle l'activité de base sont les plus simples produits d'acquisition de masse, comme le compte courant. Les grandes banques universelles utilisent donc des stratégies sélectives, en concentrant son offre sur des groupes de clients ou ces catégories de produits (secteurs) qui génèrent le plus de profit, tout en préservant l'offre globale des produits simples (moins cher) conférant un caractère universel de la banque. Par exemple, BRE Bank SA opère sur le marché de la banque de financement et son universalité reste sous la marque de mBank, fournissant des simples, pas cher et modernes (en ligne) services bancaires pour les particuliers. Pour les clients individuels plus exigeants et micro BRE Bank offre des produits de MultiBank, alors qu'il soi-même soutient les entreprises du secteur des PME, les grandes entreprises et les sociétés. Un autre exemple serait une banque Pekao SA, qui est un chef de file dans le secteur bancaire hypothécaire ou Getin Banque principalement comme une banque de voiture (financement de l'achat de véhicules automobiles). La spécialisation informelle des banques (comme Pekao et Getin) dépend des tendances économiques et du marché, ce qui signifie que dans l'avenir cette caractérisation est susceptible d'être mis à jour.

Le modèle le plus populaire sur le marché bancaire est la marque mère de la banque (banque de détail en général) pour les autres entreprises/banques spécialisées – le nom et le logo de la banque principale ours toutes les entreprises. En Pologne modèle monolithique est caractéristique de la dite banques «neuf», qui ont été sélectionnées à partir de la structure de la monobanque NBP (banque centrale polonaise) après la chute du communisme en Pologne. Il est principalement PKO, Pekao, BRE, BZ WBK, BGZ etc. Ledit modèle, dans sa forme négative caractérise les plus grandes banques en Pologne, les plus grandes sociétés cotées à la Bourse de Varsovie, n'est pas à jour et même s'il crée aussi une forte

autonomie des entreprises individuelles il n'est pas propice à la synergie dans le groupe. Il semble que les entreprises individuelles aient été créées dans une manière aléatoire et incompatible avec la marque – mère. Au monde c'est une modèle d'affaires le plus populaire entre des institutions financières, le critère de base de la réussite est la cohérence - logos , slogans, CI , etc. comme ING , Citi , UBS. Le deuxième plus cher, mais plus prestigieux modèle d'affaires est un modèle de multi-marques indépendantes, individuelles, sans lien. Un exemple pourrait être Getin Holding, dont une partie est constituée de Getin Banque , Noble Bank, Dom Bank, Open Finance etc. Un autre exemple serait le Groupe de la Banque BRE, qui fonctionne sur le principe de deux ledit modèles – le marque mère et marques séparées (dédiées), le composé modèle consiste de la marque ombrelle: BRE Bank SA (propriétaire de la Banque du Groupe ), BRE Leasing, BRE Hipoteczny, BRE Locum, Dom Inwestycyjny BRE Banku SA, BRE Asset Management, BRE Wealth Management SA. Dans le cadre du modèle fait partie distincte du groupe BRE comprend: mBank, Multi-Bank, Aspiro, Ceri, Polfactor et la société autrichienne acquis par BRE Bank - Intermarket Bank AG (la plus grande banque autrichienne affacturage).

Sur le marché des services bancaires aux entreprises en Pologne, nous pouvons distinguer les 10 joueurs les plus importants: PKO BP, Pekao SA, BRE Bank SA, Raiffeisen , Citi Handlowy, ING Bank Slaski, Bank BGZ, BZ WBK. En outre, on peut indiquer les banque qui soutient des micro et petites entreprises: MultiBank, mBank, Getin Bank, Millennium. En raison de la concurrence accrue, ainsi que les exigences de la clientèle d'entreprises, les banques se concurrencent dans la fourniture de services bancaires innovants. Le cœur de l'innovation, cependant, se concentre sur les services supplémentaires, non-financières, telles que la communication avec la banque. Il est maintenant beaucoup moins d'importantes innovations dans le marché des services financiers. Dans le cadre de la normalisation des services bancaires (clients PME), une forte concurrence et un haut degré de complexité des produits bancaires aux entreprises (grandes entreprises) très importants dans ce marché sont la commercialisation des banques et construit image d'une marque.

La base de produit sur le marché sont des solutions des systèmes modernes en-ligne, paiement et de règlement, la manipulation commerce extérieur, l'investissement et les opérations de financement actuelles.

Très important est aussi la gestion des excédents financière et des risques financiers de leurs clients, ce qui peut donner à l'entreprise une source supplémentaire de profit hors exploitation.

### **Marketing de services financiers pour les entreprises**

En termes quantitatifs, la banque de financement est une part de marché beaucoup plus petit que les services financiers de détail. Le marché des entreprises en Pologne est de 3 636 000 entités, mais chacune des entités juridiques en Pologne doit avoir un compte d'affaires à la banque, de sorte que chaque entité est en fait un client de la banque. Donc c'est un marché où il n'existe pas de demande potentielle. Du point de vue de la banque, il est un aspect à la fois positif et négatif. Positif parce que les règlements prévoient des banques auprès des entreprises, négative car l'assurance d'un marché génère une grande concurrence. La grande majorité des entreprises utilisent les services de plusieurs banques - il s'implique à la fois avec la nécessité de la diversification de la répartition du capital pour la sécurité (placement de l'excédent) et les conditions de concurrence dans le financement des entreprises (prêts). Habituellement, cependant, une entreprise est associée très fort à des banques et il est difficile de déplacer les services d'une banque à l'autre. Un exemple peut être des prêts qui lient la société avec la banque jusqu'à ce que le prêt est remboursé, aussi par la nécessité d'avoir des comptes courants et de comptabilité pour le décaissement du prêt, les banques offrent habituellement des produits supplémentaires et des instruments financiers. A cet égard la coopération avec la banque est une décision stratégique pour l'entreprise. Dans le cas des branches polonaises de sociétés internationales est aussi une recommandation de haut en bas du siège de la coopération avec la banque qui opère le client à l'échelle mondial (les clients *crossborder*).

Le marché cible des entreprises est très diverse et complexe. Les entreprises ont des besoins différents en fonction de la taille du marché dans lequel ils opèrent, la coopération internationale, la situation financière, d'investissement et de développement etc. Ils diffèrent à la fin les gens qui les dirigent à la fois dans le contexte des caractéristiques psychographiques et le niveau de compétence et de l'éducation (pas seulement financière, mais aussi de gestion), la propension au risque etc. Il est donc très difficile la segmentation du marché en fonction de critères



autres que financiers. Création donc le dit panier de caractéristiques (*insights*) qui aurait caractérisé et isolé des segments est extrêmement difficile. Par conséquent, il est difficile de créer une communication efficace, tels que la planification de campagnes publicitaires.

Il est donc un marché très difficile de mener des activités de marketing efficace par les banques. La plus grande difficulté est juste des capacités cognitives très limitées du groupe cible. Pas de possibilité de la création d'une segmentation non-financière du marché, entraîne des difficultés à atteindre de nouveaux clients de la banque, et il faut se rappeler que, à la tête de toute entreprise est une personne qui perçoit la marque de la banque dans un sens, même inconsciemment, détail.

Par conséquent, étant donné l'importance de la marque sur ce marché, ceci conduit directement à la question de l'images des banques. Les banques universelles créent dans l'esprit des clients la connaissance de la marque et de son image à travers des campagnes de produits de détail, il est un modèle le plus populaire et rentable. L'Offre pour les entreprises est communiqué beaucoup moins et la base de cette communication est plutôt le produit. Il n'y a aucune importance de niveau de complexité des produits – les produits présentés sont simples et de base, en laissant l'employé de banque à présenter des produits complexes directement au client. Ainsi, l'image de la banque construite à travers des campagnes de masse de produits de détail a un impact direct sur la propension des achats des services bancaires par des entreprises. Le défi est tout avant que les banques spécialisées dans les services aux entreprises. Le meilleur exemple peut-être le BRE Bank, qui fonctionne selon le modèle des marques individuelles – la bancaire de détail mBank et MultiBank, la bancaire aux entreprises - BRE Bank (la seule banque d'affaires en Pologne au sens strict). Les vastes campagnes sur le marche de détail n'ont pas d'influence sur l'image, la notoriété ou l'acquisition de clients de BRE Bank. À son tour, la communication de masse de BRE Bank soi-même, en raison d'un public restreint n'est pas rentable. Cela ne signifie pas qu'il n'y en a pas.

Tant la banque de détail et des entreprises doit communiquer en masse au marché en raison de la nature de l'entreprise, la banque en tant qu'institution de la confiance du public par la présence dans les médias de masse donne au client un signal qui est en bonne situation financière, qui est le garant de la sécurité, en coopération avec la banque. Cette

thèse confirment les résultats de l'étude de marché bancaire fait par GfK Polonia «Le Marché bancaire pour les entreprises 2008»:

*«Le fait que la banque n'est pas visible décourage de nombreuses entreprises à profiter de ses services. Le manque de publicité et de points de vente est associée à une petite dynamique bancaires et le manque d'intérêt pour les nouveaux clients. La présence dans les médias de masse les répondants se traduisent par la taille de la banque et un vaste réseau de succursales associé avec la grande dynamique de l'entreprise».*

Les campagnes publicitaires sont donc un outil essentiel pour la sensibilisation de la marque et de son image. Ils sont essentiels à la banque pour qu'elle soit connue parmi les clients – qu'elle soit envisagée par eux. Indépendamment de la façon dont les banques des entreprises sont en train de construire la conscience de l'image de marque – individuellement ou par l'activité dans le marché de détail – chacun d'eux mène également une action directe, relationnelle, plus individualisée. L'activité relationnelle des banques suppose que, dans le business ce qui est le plus important, ce soit le contact personnel avec des clients. Cela se manifeste à la fois par les activités des événements de la banque, la commandite d'événements culturels par la banque, factuelle, scientifique, mais aussi par le type de distribution des services – par le banquier, le conseiller. Très important est aussi la visualisation de branches bancaires où les clients sont soutenus. Chacun des susmentionné outils du marketing affecte la construction de l'image de la banque.

### **Les stratégies de marketing des banques**

La stratégie de marketing est le résultat direct de la stratégie de l'entreprise qui est mise en œuvre dans le cadre de leur activité. Elle aide à réaliser ses objectifs, tout en reflétant les éléments contenus dans la mission, qui est guidé par la société [P.Kotler, *Marketing*]. La stratégie de marketing est donc fonctionnel par rapport à la stratégie de l'entreprise. Généralement elle montre à l'entreprise comment et quoi faire dans le domaine du service du marché à des conditions données pour atteindre la satisfaction maximale du client.

Le défi, à partir duquel se commence la conception des stratégies, ou plus – la gestion d'un entreprise de services – est de concevoir une offre de produits attractive. Il faut qu'elle réponde efficacement aux attentes des clients. Les gestionnaires doivent être absolument sûr des attributs

avec lesquels leur marque peut réussir dans le marché. Les clients peuvent profiter de la marque de la banque pour certaines fonctionnalités ne faisant pas nécessairement le cœur du produit. Les incitations peuvent être des heures prolongées de l'ouverture des branches, la proximité de l'installation, un éventail plus large de services ou de baisse des prix. Par Frances X. Frei « (...) *La stratégie est un choix de ce que l'organisation ne fera pas. Dans le domaine des services, la société décide de ce qu'elle ne doit pas faire bien. Pour créer une gamme de services (et donc les services bancaires) donnant une garantie de succès, les dirigeants d'entreprise doivent déterminer lequel de ses attributs devrait finalement devenir son point le plus fort, et quels auront un niveau inférieur* ». [Frei, 2008 : 82]. Cette déclaration semble très pertinente dans le contexte du marché bancaire. Comme il a été indiqué précédemment, chaque banque choisit le domaine dans lequel elle se spécialise "en négligeant" à la fois d'autres secteurs d'activité. Un exemple du monde peut être Commerce Bank, une des banques les plus dynamiques aux États-Unis. Bien que les éléments de base de l'offre (comme les taux d'intérêt sur les dépôts et les conditions des prêts) sont les moins attrayants sur le marché, il génère augmentation rare dans la base de clientèle de détail. Commerce met l'accent sur les clients qui dépendent de régler les questions dans une branche à proximité. La commodité du client est la caractéristique principale de la marque Commerce Bank. En deuxième place est une attitude joyeuse à la clientèle - tout le monde peut être sûr qu'ils seraient bien soutenus par un employé de la banque. Dans ce domaine la banque est le leader absolu sur le marché américain, et en termes d'attributs qui ont moins d'intérêt pour les clients de Commerce Bank - comme le prix et une large gamme de produits - la banque donne volontiers l'avant-garde de la concurrence. Un exemple similaire du marché polonais peut être mBank.

La stratégie de marketing est directement dépendante du modèle d'affaires adopté par la banque. La Banque universelle, qui utilise une marque pour tous les domaines de la banque agit de facto comme une seule entité - une banque offrant des produits différents, pour différents groupes de clients. Le modèle des marques individuelles crée des entités distinctes pour les différents groupes de clients - indépendamment du fait qu'ils soient des entités juridiques distinctes, ou seule des marques opérants dans le groupe, comme BRE Bank, Getin Holding.

La sélection d'une des stratégies mentionnées ci-dessus génère d'énormes différences dans les activités de marketing des banques à l'avenir:

1. Aspect du coût de chaque modèle: garder une marque par rapport à plusieurs marques; formation de plusieurs départements de marketing, services de l'entreprise, etc; des coûts beaucoup plus élevés d'activités de marketing pour le deuxième modèle.

2. Aspect de la communication: pour le premier modèle on utilise une seule communication cohérente de marketing pour tous les secteurs d'activité; dans le cas du second modèle – des plusieurs communications distinctes.

3. Aspect de la gestion de la marque: une seule marque réduit significativement des coûts de commercialisation, augmente la couverture médiatique et la fréquence de la communication, construit l'universalisme et la taille de la banque; la modèle de marques individuelles augmente considérablement le coût des opérations en relation aux effets, mais elle permet de régler le style de communication à un plus selectives groupes cibles, elle communique l'individualisme – par exemple une banque pour les entrepreneurs, private banking etc. Avec plusieurs marques opérant dans le marché – par exemple MultiBank mBank – on réduit le risque de concurrence, par exemple un client qui, pour une raison quelconque, n'est pas convaincu a MultiBank peut considère mBank, donc quelque soit la marque qu'il choisit, il devient enfin un client de la Group BRE.

4. Aspect de produit: le modèle des plusieurs marques individuelles permet la spécialisation de la banque, qui augmente le crédibilité en tant qu'expert, pionnier etc, par exemple, BRE Bank, Noble Bank, mBank. Cela se traduit directement donc a potentiellement plus puissante l'image de la banque – à condition que la communication soit cohérente et à long terme d'une intensité suffisante.

L'expertise de la banque dans le domaine particulier est un fait pour chaque banque universelle sur le marché polonais. Il n'est pas nécessaire de construire une nouvelle marque pour qu'on soit considéré comme un spécialiste tel que la banque hypothécaire, ou la banque de financement. Ni Millennium Bank, ni Raiffeisen ne sont pas le hypothéquer ou banque pour des entreprises, et tels sont leurs images. C'est, bien sûr, grâce à la communication que lesdites banques utilisent. In ne faut pas oublier

cependant que la stratégie évolue avec l'évolution du marché. Les spécialisations des banques décrits, dans un proche avenir, ne seront probablement pas à jour.

En formulant une stratégie de marketing la banque sélectionne certain marché ou des aspects du marché sur lesquels la banque souhaite marquer sa présence. Cela est nécessaire en raison de la forte concurrence dans le secteur bancaire. Un exemple serait HSBC Bank Polska, qui crée son image à travers un réseau international auquel il appartient - "Le monde de la banque internationale " et *World's local bank*. Citi Bank, à son tour, communique le confort et la flexibilité, par exemple grâce à un service d'augmenter la limite de crédit par un SMS - à tout moment, jour et nuit (*Citi never sleeps*) . Cependant, il existe des produits offerts par les banques universelles, quelle que soit la spécialisation (parfois artificielle) ont envisagée, dont la plupart se caractérise par la saisonnalité. La saisonnalité est un résultat du comportement des clients sur le marché, la situation économique etc. Par exemple au début de l'année la plupart des banques communique très fortement des prêts à la consommation, à l'automne des dépôts, et à la fin de l' année encore une fois des prêts dans le cadre de la prochaine Noël. À son tour, le boom dans le marché de l'immobilier a entraîné dans la communication intense des prêts hypothécaires et la crise économique actuelle – des offres des dépôts à court terme. Les actions tactiques à collecter des dépôts sur le marché de détail sont à son tour exécutés principalement dans le milieu du mois - avant la période de paiement des salaires des clients etc.

### **La Distribution**

Une autre décision stratégique pour la banque est le choix du modèle de service à la clientèle. Sur le marché il existe plusieurs solutions. Les Banques ouvrent des réseaux de branches, bureaux, agences etc., une autre option est la banque en ligne, qui omet des branches. Dans cette voie on limite significativement les coûts d'exploitation et le client éprouve cette différence par la baisse des prix des produits, la gestion de compte gratuit, transferts gratuits etc. Ledit modèle caractérise mBank dans ses premières années de l'activité (la première banque en ligne en Pologne). Actuellement mBank introduit deux types d'établissements: les kiosques financiers et les centres financiers. La Banque adapte au groupe cible - jeune, instruit, actif, multimédia – l'installation de mBank est

donc très moderne, équipée avec les derniers équipements d'ordinateur et bancaires. Les Kiosques financiers sont situés dans des galeries marchandes dans les grandes villes à travers le tout pays, les centres financiers sont les plus grandes établissements situées dans les principaux points de villes polonaises. mBank a décidé d'introduire le modèle traditionnel de services (dans un ensemble multimédia moderne, amical) en raison de la thèse soutenue par la recherche et la pratique des affaires que l'Internet ne soit pas le principal moyen pour l'achat de produits financiers difficiles (comme les fonds communs de placement, des prêts hypothécaires). Les Branches de mBank ne ressemblent pas aux vieilles branches bancaires classiques dans lequel le client a été reçu comme un suppliant. Les installations modernes dans le modèle de service traditionnel se produisent déjà plus souvent dans la plupart des banques polonaises.

Le troisième modèle de service existant simultanément avec le second modèle est un conseiller dédié de service. Le Banquier personnel a été emprunté comme une bonne pratique de marché des banques opérant dans les pays d'Europe occidentale. Initialement, il était disponible uniquement dans le cadre des services de private banking, puis dans le cadre de services bancaires aux entreprises. Comme les premiers, conseillers personnels dans le segment des clients PME, ont été introduites par BRE Bank, Raiffeisen Bank puis, plus récemment, dans la banque de détail à ses clients un conseiller dédié introduit MultiBank et Alior Bank.

Les modèles mentionnés ci-dessus de service à la clientèle - en particulier l'Internet et d'un conseiller dédié, ne se produisent pas dans toutes les banques polonaises. Le conseiller en services dans la bancaires aux entreprises récemment est devenu le standard du marché. Les services en ligne ne sont pas disponibles dans toutes les banques. Et il ne s'agit pas de l'accès aux comptes en ligne, de la perspective d'un client d'entreprise la réelle facilitation sont des services de bureau-banking (ou - comme une catégorie - *iBanking*). Le système fournit aux entreprises une complète service bancaire gérée de la niveau du département de finances d'un client d'entreprise. Quant aux banques de détail il est rare de trouver le service d'un conseiller dédié a un client, jusqu'à présent il est le domaine des services bancaires aux entreprises et de private banking. L'exception est MultiBank et Alior Banque qui offrent à ses clients un conseiller personnel pour toutes les questions liées à la banque.

## Résumé

La stratégie de marketing de la banque définit directement la communication de la marque. Publicité sous la forme d'une campagne de publicité traditionnelle dans les médias de masse reste l'outil le plus puissant de la communication et de l'image de la marque. Les tendances mondiales indiquent un besoin d'utiliser le marketing interactif – alors ces outils et activités de marketing qui imposent une réaction spécifique chez le receveur. Il consiste à engager de l'acquéreur de la publicité dans un processus qui, à la perception d'un client potentiel, accroît le plus fortement la sensibilisation de la marque ou va créer l'image souhaitée. Un exemple de ce type d'action peut être les *ambient media*.

Indépendamment de l'efficacité de ces outils ils font une fonction secondaire par rapport à la publicité dans les médias de masse – ils peuvent interagir efficacement à la vente de produits et de services quand la marque est déjà connu sur le marché. Seulement ayant la conscience de marque et l'image construit, nous pouvons prendre les action du marketing directe, interactif, qui influencent de manière très efficace la mémorisation de la marque par les consommateurs.

La banque doit donc appliquer une vaste communication avec le marché pour plusieurs raisons. Il faut construire la notoriété de la marque et de créer une image positive, renforçant ainsi la confiance. Grâce à un vaste communication une banque support ses conseillers dans les activités d'acquisition. La nécessité d'une large communication est dictée par la forte concurrence sur le marché bancaire et le fait que la majorité des banques offrent des services à des clients particuliers et institutionnels sous une seule marque.

- [1] Frei, F. X. 2008. *Les quatre piliers de la réussite d'une entreprise de service*, Harvard Business Review Polska, Octobre.





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## ***Hope of success in non-standard forms of employment***

**Key words:** *Hope of success, non-standard forms of employment*

### **Summary**

*Article presents a review of the literature associated with the hope of success and the results of the author's research among employees with flexible forms of employment. A specific distribution of results on the scale of hope for success, both for social-and-demographic correlations and the distribution of the variable itself can be justified by characteristics of conditions typical for a given form of employment that are beneficial or non-beneficial for experiencing hope for success.*

### **Introduction**

It seems justified to ask if flexible employees think of their own professional success while engaging in non-typical forms of employment, whether it is possible at all to have professional success in flexible forms of employment, commonly regarded as worse, evaluated in a negative way, believed to be "junk" ones? It seems that everyone to a greater or lesser extent hopes for success in both the private and professional

sphere of one's life. Of course, this thesis applies to people meeting certain standard who are mentally healthy. By analysing a rapid development of flexible solutions and highly qualified staff hired under flexible employment contracts, experts, persons in senior positions, it seems almost obvious, that while working they shall experience the same dilemmas, concerns and difficulties on the one hand, and gratuities on the other. Analysis of hope of success, which contributes to a strong will, effectiveness in difficult situations, pursuance of goals, seeking solutions and faith in the success, results from looking for psychological variables that help solve professional problems, and when it comes to flexible forms of employment apart from a personal flexibility and styles of coping with stress, which shall be analysed further on in this paper, hope of success appears to play a key role for overall success in flexible forms of employment.

### **Theoretical formulation of hope for success**

Theory of hope was initiated in this version by Snyder in the 80's. The author understands hope, and defines it accordingly, as a positive motivational state related to experiencing two interrelated beliefs: belief in myself as a performer, which is a belief in a possibility to complete a plan made, to initiate goal pursuance following a certain and pre-chosen path and perseverance in pursuit of the goal, in spite of encountered obstacles. These are beliefs of the power of one's own will, energy manifesting itself in particular in the face of doubts, obstacles and fatigue [Snyder, Cheavents, Sympson, 1997; Snyder, Sympson, Michael, Cheavents, 2000]. The first component is a belief of having a strong will (in short - strong will). The second component is a perception of oneself as resourceful and clever person, someone able to reach one's goal, to come up with solutions that will allow for implementation of one's plan, conviction of one's knowledge and competences, hence the name: conviction of ability to find solutions (in short: ability to find solutions). Hope understood in such a way, consisting of these two components is defined as hope for success, due to its reference to positive effects of one's own actions [Trzebiński, Zięba, 2003]. In such an approach, hope is not an emotional state, but a cognitive motivational process associated with the process of thinking. Emotions play an important role as well, but they are secondary in

relation to cognitive processes [Shorey, Snyder, 2002] [after: Łaguna, Trzebiński, Zięba, 2005: 7-8].

Hope understood in such a way is to some extent faith in one's own success with referral to expected and positive results of measures taken, while at the same time experiencing enthusiasm for engagement in these measures [Trzebiński, Finch, 2003].

Snyder (2002) defines hope of success as a conviction and thought process in a decision making situation related to a specific action. Convictions are applied in the form of specific thoughts focused on a situation and a specific goal. Hope manifests itself in the form of thoughts accompanying action. These thoughts are focused on oneself, being a person who, first of all, is able to pursue one's own resolutions, and second of all invent and find out solutions for various difficulties.

Hope as disposition, or alternatively, stable belief system activated in specific situations and affecting behaviour is acquired by experience. It is a learned matrix of thinking, which shapes the way of interpretation of a situation and assessment of chances for success of one's own activities, and refers to the way of perceiving oneself [Trzebiński, Zięba, 2004].

Hope and optimism are psychologically similar dimensions [cf. Peterson, 2000]. The difference, however, is the highlighting personal involvement in action, which is the key issue in the presented theory [cf. Carver, Scheier, 2002], apart from this from the empirical point of view optimism and hope are two independent factors (Magaletta, Oliver, 1999). Before identification of an aim, a person analyses achievable target. This assessment of the value of the result is primary in relation to the measures taken. If this assessment is positive, pursue of the aim begins. People with high hopes for success are characterised by a high assessment of probability of reaching an aim. They treat aims as challenges, they assess them in the categories of success rather than failure. People with high hopes for success will generate more goals, and when they turn out to be impossible to achieve, they create new ones easily [Snyder, 1994; Snyder, 2002, Snyder, Cheavens, Michael, 1999, after: Łaguna, 2006: 423].

Hope of success promotes a positive assessment of an aim understood here as a possibility to make a career in flexible forms of employment and making a decision on pursuing such the path of life.

At this point it is difficult to ignore the issue of basic hope, which,

according to Trzebiński and Zięba (2003, 2004) is in general associated with one's vision of the world than is ordered, logical, reasonable, with a structure favourable for human beings. This is the basis for interpretation of every event, in particular it applies to anticipation and assessment of one's own chances. This is the basic hope of men. This is a process that manifests itself when we take up new activities, and also when the old ones do not work any more and we must look for new ways and solutions. The former situation is conducive to challenges, searching for new order of events, new opportunities, the latter is a loss of the old order in favour of a new one. The authors (2003) believe that these two constructs of hope - basic one and hope for success are the two convictions with independent characters. In the case of failures, while maintaining an order, conviction of one's own efficiency [Bandura, 1986] and capabilities to achieve an aim [Snyder, 2002] become important. When, on the other hand, the order is disturbed, the basic hope may be the factor, which allows one to restore the order. It promotes openness to new experience, seeking new opportunities and positive attitude towards them [Trzebiński, Zięba, 2004]. One can assume that basic hope is helpful in coping with a situation of lack of work and making a decision to take a chance of starting own business [all after: Łaguna, 2006: 424] and working within flexible forms of employment.

Stefańska - Klar (1998) has carried out a synthesis of the issue of hope, stating that it may be treated as emotion associated with involvement and coping [Smith, Lazarus, 1990], and as waiting for the result of pursuing one's own aims and desires [Mądrzycki, 1996], or as the appearance of a specific state of affairs, a personal comparison and assessment of a situation [Folger, 1985]. When it comes to hope, the related notions are optimism or its absence [Seligman, 1996]. The author draws our attention to prominence of negative aspect of hope in human existence - the situation of loss or a permanent absence, deficit of exceptional remedial or emergency features, particularly for people experiencing crisis or being in crisis per say [Atkinson, 1995: 75-76]. In the research [Atkinson, 1995: 78- 79] the author verified private theories of hope on n=615 unemployed persons. In the qualitative analysis she has identified the following defining ways: as a psychological state - emotion and waiting, faith in something; as a psychological process - dream of a meeting, thinking about the subject of hope; as a permanent

psychological inclination - as personality trait, optimistic attitude; as a behavioural trend, manifested in behaviour, making efforts and actions; as a psychological regulatory system with situational or global reach - internal apparatus of regaining balance allowing one to recover from crises.

She presents hope as a psychological mechanism in the two variations [Atkinson, 1995: 79- 80] hope as a general psychological mechanism, specifying a functioning style of an individual in longer periods of time and hope as a mechanism shaped on ongoing basis and taking forms depending on a structure of a situation. In the case of the first mechanism we can differentiate between passive hope - a tendency to dream, to have trusting attitude towards a given course of events; active hope - source of motivation and a basic existential hope understood as a will of life and existential desire, motivation to cope with events and searching for meaning in them. The second mechanism is to have hope because of something - a positive value, or in spite of something - negative value. Hope may involve both changes in the status quo or one's own situation, as well as remaining in this situation. Depending on the situation it performs different regulatory functions both with respect to the choice of specific remedial strategies, and in general to functioning in life situations, people prefer different restoration and rebuilding styles; they are also aware of their own hope (p. 86).

Snyder (2002) juxtaposed his theory with descriptions of positive psychology. In his description of optimism Seligman (1993) emphasises the way of thinking of reasons of events, the way failure and success is explained and interpreted. An optimistic style does not constitute external and stable attributions of negative results. Theory of hope deals with reaching positive goals taking into account the role of cognitive processes and the energy of actions. Optimism as understood by Scheier and Carver (1985, 1992) is a generalized expectations for future positive events, stressing assessments relating to the action, or the effect, whereas in hope it is pursuing goals that is important. A difference between the theories is also the role assigned to perceived and personal action of a man - confidence in reaching the objectives, not the personal commitment to action itself. Trust and confidence in one's own efficiency [Bandura, 1986] relating to a conviction of one's own skills is also something else. We are not talking here about specific actions, envisaged

result, specific situation and measures or purpose. Hope applies rather to more generalised beliefs that one shall be defective in general (Jerusalem, Schwartz, 1992). Conviction of one's own efficiency applies to a perception of one's capability to act in a given situation - capability to act. Also, hope is a conviction, that one initiates an action focused on an objective, which is reflected in the intention of actions [Łaguna, Trzebiński, Zięba, 2005: 9-10].

Research by Łaguna (2006) in hope for success related to setting up own business allowed to draw the following conclusion: higher level of hope for success, the basic hope and optimism promotes the intention of setting up own businesses, especially the conviction of an ability to find solutions. Research has been carried out among the unemployed during a training in business start-ups, entrepreneurs, who declared their willingness to take on the role of an entrepreneurs (the number of the respondents n=332). Measurement of hope of success was carried out using Hope for Success Questionnaire, developed by Snyder and his colleagues (1991), in the Polish version adapted by Łaguna, Trzebiński and Zięba (2005). The scale includes 12 statements, including 8 diagnostic ones. It is described in detail in the next section.

The author [Łaguna, Trzebiński, Zięba, 2005: 435-436] sums the research up stating, that as a whole it confirms the theoretical concepts. A conviction that thanks to own efforts and actions one can achieve success is linked with higher assessment of chances of success and an intention to start up a business confirms Snyder's theses (2002) according to which hope promotes expecting results assessed as positive and enthusiasm and positive emotions can foster action as well. The conviction of capability to find ways to reach goals was related to high assessment of their importance and readiness to make effort, whereas a conviction of a strong will and energy was linked with higher assessment of chances of success in a start-up. Reversely: low level of hope for success and optimism involves low assessment of chances for success of measures taken and low willingness to take initiatives related to a start-up, which also supports giving the whole idea up, which does not necessarily mean, that resignation is of a failure character, but an alternative aim may be chosen.

Throughout years of research, it has been confirmed that force, understood as a conviction of having competence allowing for success

has an impact on efficiency of actions, overcoming difficulties and perseverance in reaching aims, adaptation capacities, positive emotional and physiological functioning. Also, independence of this construct from optimism and the related factors has been established. Commonly hope means expectation that things shall develop in a specific direction and all potential issues shall be solved. Hope of success is linked to a conviction that success shall be reached and shall be related to one's own competences. Erikson (1997, 2002) claims, that hope is a conviction concerning characteristics of the world that surrounds us and which is people-friendly, trust in goodness of nature, etc., what had already been called the basic hope [Łaguna, Trzebiński, Zięba, 2005: 5-6].

Porzak, Sagan (2013) in their research reaffirmed the substantial link between entrepreneurial orientation and hope for success among people employed in business-related institutions. A conviction of a capability to cope with various demands is a basis for active operations and effective goal-reaching, for it is built with belief in a capability to initiate actions and perseverance in spite of obstacles. A conviction of a strong will is particularly strong in this respect. Entrepreneurship is a special flexible form of employment. One can expect that the results obtained for this form of earning money shall be similar to those obtainable in other forms of flexible employment.

### **Ways to measure hope for success**

A research tool that has been used in the research part of this paper has been adapted by Łaguna, Trzebiński and Zięba (2005) and is used for testing hope as a comparatively stable disposal. The Hope for Success Questionnaire is made up of 12 statements (including eight diagnostic ones). It contains four items relating to convictions concerning a strong will, four items relating to convictions concerning capabilities to find solutions and four buffer items. A tested person concerned is asked to imagine him/herself in different situational contexts and at different times (as opposed to the scale measuring hope as condition, in which the test describes convictions of the tested at the present moment). The interviewed indicate their answers on 8 grade scale, where 1 means, that a given claim is clearly false, and 8 - that a given claim is definitely true.

The result is the sum of the scores representing the general level of hope for success. A possible range of results is from 8 to 64 points. The

higher the score, the greater hope of success is. Apart from the general result, the questionnaire allows for measurement of two components of hope: ability to find hope (4 statements): 1, 4, 6, 8; possible results are within the range of 4 to 32 points; willpower (4 statements): 2, 9, 10, 12; possible results are within the range of 4 to 32 points [Łaguna, Trzebiński, Zięba, 2005: 15-18].

Cronbach's alpha - the internal compliance rate of the Polish version of the Hope for Success Questionnaire is 0.82. In various tests carried out from 2002 to 2004 it ranged from 0.76 to 0.86. Internal compliance indicators for the both subscales have been estimated as well. In the case of a conviction of ability to find solutions it was 0.72 (from 0.62 to 0.76 in specific tests). In the case of a conviction of a strong will the rate was 0.74 (from 0.68 to 0.80). This questionnaire is based on the studies of Snyder and associates. Other available methods developed by them are as follows: The Hope Scale [Snyder, Harris and others, 1991; Snyder, Sympson Cheavents, 1997], the Adult trait Hope Scale [Snyder, Cheavents, Michael, 1999], the trait Hope Scale [Snyder, 2002], the Adult Hope Scale [Bryant, Cvengros, 2004]. These are the tools for measuring hope as condition. They examine children, the young or adults. There is also Basic Hope Questionnaire (BHI - 12) by Trzebiński and Zięba (2003). This scale contains 12 statements, including nine diagnostic ones, reliability - Cronbach's alpha is 0.70. The scale of hope for success measures well the power of conviction of one's own capabilities to reach aims and success, diagnosing a part of the picture of "myself", playing an important role in decision-making process, formulating plans of action, in the face of failures [all after: Łaguna, Trzebiński, Zięba, 2005: 31].

### **Presentation of the author's research**

The variable of *hope of success* was examined by the questionnaire described in the previous section among a group of 2118 persons employed in flexible forms of employment: among employees with flexible forms of employment including: teleworking, replacement (substitute) work, temporary work, seasonal work, employment under civil law agreements, commercial contracts for a specified period of time, part-time work, in the social economy, self-employment. It is correlated significantly with two social-and-demographic variables: gender and age. Women have higher results in this scale, as well as the elder and more



mature persons. With the other variables, such as: education, occupation, sector, industry, years in operation, number of employers, duration of contracts, a place of residence, marital status, number of children, no dependency can be found.

Analysis of the relation performed by U Mann - Withney test has shown that there is a statistically significant relationship between gender and the results on the scale of hope for success:  $U = 484430.5$ ;  $p < 0.001$ . Women have slightly higher results ( $M = 65.56$ ;  $SD = 11.546$ ) than men ( $M = 63.83$ ;  $SD = 10.774$ ). The results on the scale of hope for success are statistically affected by age as well (the relation confirmed by the Kruskal-Wallis test: Chi-square (df 2) = 38.220;  $p < 0.001$ ). The older a given age group is, the higher score on the analysed scale is found: in the group 18-30 years the median = 64; in the group 31-40 years median = 65, and the group 41-65 years median = 67.

The average score on the scale of hope for success in the analysed group of flexible employees was 64.60 with the variable scope ranging from 12 to 96. The median was 65, which means that half of the analysed scores below 65 points. Skewness becomes negative - distribution is hardly diagonal - too many high results. Kurtosis is positive, which points at the fact, that the distribution is highly slender - there is too much values centred around the average.

To analyse a relationship between the variable hope for success and a form of employment an analysis of variance could not be used, as its assumptions were not satisfied (homogeneity of variance and normality of distribution in the sub-groups). Therefore a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was applied. Analysis of the relationship by Kruskal -Wallis test has shown, that a form of employment significantly differentiates the test results on the scale of hope for success: Chi-square (df 8) = 48.829;  $p < 0.001$ ). Median test confirms this conclusion: Chi-square (df 8) = 40.376;  $p < 0.001$ ). In all the groups the median values are located in the upper stens according to accepted standards, which means that employees achieve in general high scores on the said scales. It can be concluded, therefore, that the tested population is characterised by hope for success. This result is interesting enough, since as the nation we have tendency for more pessimistic attitudes. The highest value of the median has been observed among the groups with part-time jobs and the self-employed. The lowest value has been observed among the substitute

employees. Such a characteristic distribution of results can be justified by characteristics of conditions typical for a given form of employment that are either favourable or unfavourable for the sense of hope for success.

The scale of hope for success is composed of two sub-scales. The first one is the scale of conviction of a strong will. The average score on the scale of conviction of a strong will among flexible employees was 23.18 with the variable scope ranging from 4 to 32. The median was 24, which means that half of the analysed scores below 24 points. Skewness becomes negative - distribution is hardly diagonal - too many high results. Kurtosis is positive, which points at the fact, that the distribution is highly slender – there is too much values centred around the average.

The second subscale is a scale of a conviction of capabilities to find solutions. The average score on the scale of a conviction of capabilities to find solutions in the analysed group of flexible employees was 23.91 with the variable scope ranging from 4 to 32. The median was 24, which means that half of the analysed scores below 24 points. Skewness becomes negative - distribution is hardly diagonal - too many high results. Kurtosis is positive, which points at the fact, that the distribution is slender – there is too much values centred around the average.

### **Conclusion**

Flexible forms of employment analysed in this paper, such as teleworking, replacement work, temporary work, seasonal work, employment under commercial contracts, contracts for a specified period of time, part-time jobs, employment in social economy and self-employment form such irregular portfolio of forms of earning money, that due to their characteristics, and what follows, conditions of employment, create a unique profile of experienced hope for success. Therefore it is impossible to analyse this psychological variable with respect to flexible employees in general.

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### ***Hrabal's Gypsies (the outline of the issue)***

**Key words:** *comparative literature, autobiographism, autothematism, Hrabal's literary output, Roma issues*

#### **Summary**

*Observation of a disproportion between a significant presence of Roma issues in the literary output of Bohumil Hrabal and the lack of these issues in studies devoted to the work of the Czech author, was a direct reason for writing this text. Yet the social problem of the Roma minority in Central Europe is still open and far from a satisfactory solution for both sides: the community overwhelming the Roma's and, perhaps more important, the Romanies themselves. Therefore, it appears to be fully justified to look at this problem through the eyes of one of the greatest writers of the twentieth century. It is, however, difficult, except two instances, to extract texts in which the topics which interest us dominate. Male and female Gypsies, as already mentioned, appear in all his works and all the literary genres realized by him: in longer and shorter narrative forms, in journalism and in lyric poetry. They are described from individual and social point of view and are, to a degree, immersed in an element of fiction inspired by the author's fascination with "total or socialistic" realism, French surrealism or*

*Czech neo-poetics. But one seems to be constant – Hrabal's Gypsies are always seen in the light of autobiographism and autothematism. This thesis can be treated as one of the conclusions, even if it may at first appear to be only based on intuition of the authors of this paper.*

The observation of disproportion between a significant presence of Roma issue in the work of Bohumil Hrabal and its very vague reflection in a study devoted to the literary output of the Czech author is a direct reason for creation of this text. For the problem of Roma minority in the Czech Republic and other countries of the Central Europe still remains open and far from any satisfying solution, not only for the majority surrounding the Roma community, but also, which is even more important, for the Roma people themselves. In this situation, looking at the problem through the eyes of one of the most prominent writers of the XX c. seems to be entirely justified, despite the fact that literary prose even extremely autobiographical – which the author's texts undoubtedly constitute – is not the most appropriate place to solve social issues.

In the work of Hrabal the Gypsies are present frequently, it is difficult, though, except two cases, to distinguish the texts in which the problem of our interest dominates. Gypsy men, women and children, as has already been said, appear in Hrabal often and throughout his entire creative activity, in all the literary genres and types: in shorter and longer narrative forms, in journalism and lyrical poetry, in individual and group entanglements, in greater or smaller immersion into the element of literary fiction animated by the author's fasciantion with realism, called by the author himself total or socialistic, French surrealism or Czech neo-poetism. One thing, however, seems unchanged: Gypsy men and women are perceived almost always in the light of autobiographism and of the Czech author. The Gypsies accompany him in life and even in his works. Hrabal observes, at some point, with casualness characteristic for his literary heroes, that he learnt to write like the Gypsy play the violin, that is in a natural way, without the knowledge of notes.

Although so far, all the studies on the works of Hrabal have not confirmed it, it is really hard to imagine a work of Hrabal without the Prague Gypsies. The author himself in an autobiographical work *Já si vzpomínám jen a jen na slunečné dny* (*I Remember only the sunny days*) – speaking of the significance that a specific space and time had in his life



and literary output, as one of the most important places considers Liben, a quarter of Prague, which, without any effort, he stylizes into a quarter of the, not only artistic, Bohemia, where he lived for 20 years with Gypsies, actors, drunkards and, how he defines them, „kind women”. Hrabal, including himself in the group of cursed poets, frequently emphasized that he had a strong feeling of solidarity with all the „alienated”, „excluded”, „Holy fools”. The author of his biography characterizes this dependence in the following way:

Hrabal was always close to the cursed poets, the cursed he would also always find in his inns. In their fortunes he saw reflection of the lives of Verlaine, Baudelaire. So even his intellectual horizon referred to those, who were at the bottom. In many respects he identified himself with Baudelaire, like him he noticed the poor girls from the street, old women and men. Baudelaire lived with a mulatto Jeanne Duval, Hrabal had a Gypsy friend for some time. Baudelaire joined the triviality of life with his intellectual melancholy, Hrabal joined with it his endogenic depression and melancholy caused by the hangover. Deep compassion for poor people from the street he would feel similarly to Baudelaire, the paintings of the French impressionists taught him to celebrate the banality of everyday life. He always liked the Gypsies [Zgustová, 2000: 82].

As a form of declaration of the attitude towards national minorities or the alienated, including people with different skin colors, present more and more often in Prague, we can consider a fragment of the text, entitled: *A three-legged horse* constituting one of the *Letters to Dubenka*, written, worth noticing, in the Contented, as he called them States of America [Hrabal makes use of the fonetic similarity between passive adjectival participle *spojené* (*united*) and the adjective *spokojené* (*contented*) in the official Czech name of the country: *Spo(ko)jené státy americké*]. Here, Hrabal pays a very specific tribute to Gypsy men and women as the protagonists of his texts. Similar convictions Hrabal puts into the mouth of uncle Pepin, a narrator-character of *Utrpení starého Werthera* (*The suffering of the old Werther*) who, musing over the miserable lot of a musical virtuoso defends Afroamericans in the USA and Czech Roma people, ranting in style of his space and time, but perversely close to a valid today – not only in the USA – political correctness.

It has to be mentioned that, wherever possible, he will try to highlight their uniqueness not only in the description of their maladjustment, ste-

reotypical opinions about their vices popularized by so-called "decent people", but maybe above all he will try to perceive their maladjustment as the main feature of their uniqueness, extraordinariness, which may serve their ennoblement. On this principle, one can also observe the presence of Afroamericans or the Czech Vietnamese, especially Vietnamese women. Here, a comment, only seemingly marginal, on the significance of women in life and works of Hrabal. Preceding serious studies on the issue, it can be said without any risk (it is confirmed by *Slovník Hrabala (Hrabal's Dictionary)*) that the lexeme Gypsy woman or Vietnamese woman appears in Hrabal's works much more frequently than Gypsy man or Vietnamese man. It is also worth remembering that Hrabal makes gladly the women of his life narrators of his texts (the mother in *Postřižiny* or the wife in the trilogy *Svatby v domě (In-house weddings), Vita Nuova, Proluky*). In this context it is worth noticing that a revealed in his biography love affair with a Gypsy woman with a child is later described in fictional and non-fictional texts of the author autobiographic in their character. And it is well known that there is no non-autobiographic texts of this author. We find its beautiful oniric version in the dream of the protagonist of *Příliš hlučná samota (Too loud a solitude)* with an expanded sequence of extended in time and space attempt to bid farewell to an accidentally met Gypsy woman during the author's way back home, who, at every corner claims that she goes in the same direction: in another light the author's love affair is described by the narrator of the trilogy *Svatby v domě (In-house weddings), Vita Nuova, Proluky*, for whom the Gypsy is a competition, who with exaggeration looks at everything with a woman's eye.

It cannot be, however, forgotten that the Roma people, consequently by the author himself and by narrators created by him (male and female ones) are always called with the name Gypsy (Gypsy man, woman, child) accepted in this part of Europe, which is, however, very rarely used in the texts that depreciate or humiliate the community. A Gypsy man, woman, child appear in Hrabal's texts much more frequently than it could be assumed on the basis of observation that only one text par excellence literary contains in the title an expression from the semantic field of the Roma people. The talk is about *The Gypsy romance* from the collection *The bar world*, whose protagonist is a young Prague, nota bene nameless, Gypsy woman that gets involved in a not completely disinter-

ested love affair with an also young, for her also nameless, Prague citizen Gaston Koszulka. An interesting fact is that the same love story was later, under the title *Love*, published in a different collection. At the end of this version in the scene of goodbye, the protagonists get to know each other's names (her name is Margitka), which they, by the way, consider pretty. The second version is different from the first one in the lack of the scene with a little Gypsy boy peeing gracefully on Prague from a hill at the end of the book. *Slovník Bohumila Hrabala* finds among the proper names the word **Gypsy (Cikán)** used 9 times in journalistic texts; the word **Gypsy woman (Cikánka)** is used 8 times, out of which 6 times in longer prose forms (here, most of them in the above mentioned *Gypsy romance*) and twice in the journalism. Once appears the word **Gypsy child (Cikánčín)**. When we consult the lexemes included in the *Hrabal's dictionary* it may be observed that: **Cikán** appears 272 times (140 times in longer prose forms, 89 times in shorter prose forms, 20 times in poems and 23 times in journalism); **cikánčín** appears, as we already know, only one time; **cikáně** are present 4 times (2 in longer prose forms once in shorter forms and journalism); **cikánečka** appears 30 times (17 in longer prose forms, 4 in shorter forms, 2 in poetry, 7 times in journalism); **cikánek** 7 (1 in longer prose 3 in shorter prose forms and 3 in journalism); **cikánka** 314 (longer prose forms, 39 shorter forms, 43 in poetry, 8 in journalism); **cikánský** 110 (39 longer prose forms, 43 shorter prose forms, 10 poetry, 18 journalism); **cikánův** 5 (2 longer prose forms, 3 shorter prose forms).

On the basis of this text, or better on the basis of both its variants, but also other Hrabal's texts we allow ourselves to retain in force the previous intuition that the Gypsy woman will appear there much more frequently than the Gypsy man. The author already has in his biography, as we know, a love affair with a certain Gypsy, whose daughter used to sleep in a drawer in the writer's apartment on the Na Hrazi street in the quarter of Prague, Liben.

Another text which refers to the Roma semantic field and in a sense also closes the problem of Gypsies in the works of Hrabal is a short 4-page text entitled *Gypsy rhapsody* from the collection *Růžový kavalír (A pink bachelor)*, called a draft by the authors of *Hrabal's dictionary* [*Slovník Bohumila Hrabala*, 2009: 600], in which the author attempts to indicate the genesis of his fascination with the nomads accompanying him

throughout his whole life. The attention of the reader is attracted by the word *rhapsody* used by the author as a title, which suggests the relation to a *heroic rhapsode* but also makes it open to a proper musical reminiscence. However, there is something more to it, if we take into account the initial phrase of the text (a repeated three times sentence *Introibo ad altare Dei*, which opens the liturgy of a Holy Mass in a Tridentine Rite abandoned by the Roman Catholics) and the phrase closing the text (*Ite missa est*) which one can hear at the end of the mass. In this lofty, ancient but at the same time Christian form one can sense the admiration of the author for all Gypsy and Afroamerican musicians, whom he treats as his brothers, and their music and singing is supposed to lead him directly to heaven.

It is strongly confirmed by the author's monographist Tomas Mazal, who, discussing with the primate of the Gypsy orchestra from Karlin what they will perform on Hrabal's funeral, considers it to be obvious that the song will be *The fascination* in the version Hrabal heard performed by Helmut Zacharias Orchestra, and later interpreted by Nate King Cole, but the Kormans played only a half of the song and finished with *Romano roviben (Gypsy Cry)*. Mazal adds that when during Hrabal's birthday in 1993 he had this song played for the last time in his life, he saw Hrabal cry for the first time in his life [Mazal, 2006: 391].

And Hrabal's Gypsies are not only those living in Liben or Zizkov, although beyond this space they are not seen that frequently, but their presence is much more dramatic, like in a story *Angel*, where we witness a forbidden love act of a certain Gypsy couple, happening through a whole dug under the prison wall of a labor camp in a steel-works in Kladen, or in a story entitled *Jarmilka*. *Document* yes, exactly, it documents, with a realism so characteristic for Hrabal, the work of the author in the steel-works in Kladen where among the workers one can also find criminal and political prisoners (the latter not having the rights of political prisoners), the representatives of national minorities, including *volksdeutsche* and Gypsies. Where Hannes, German communist, the prisoner of a German labor camp, currently on a socialistic reeducation through work mitigates a justified, one wants to say, socialistic anger of the narrator-hero who bullies an apparently drossing around Gypsie reminding him of Roma people extermination in Nazi concentration camps, which he witnessed himself.

An entirely different character has a peculiar description of customs made by a young waitressing disciple in the novel *I served the king of England* who, in the restaurant Golden Prague describes from under the table the attack of an angry Gypsy group armed with knives on their rich, well-dressed countrymen ordering everything from the top shelf and thus demonstrating fat wallets. The whole incident ends with devastation of the dining room and retreat of the attackers and the attacked without paying the bill. To the grotesque of the entire scene adds the observer's comment that the participants of the quite bloody incident not even for a moment distract the attention of a headmaster of a musical school from an extremely interesting book, despite the fact that it got abundantly stained with blood.

Gypsy fights must have constituted something like a local color and the above description probably had its real prototype, to which points the author himself during a literary meeting in the Lešna Restaurant, reminiscing about his own participation in bar fights, he recalls that gypsy fights looked scary but usually ended with only minor body injuries.

Similar in character to Kladen descriptions is a not less dramatic encounter with a Gypsy family in the final scene of the novel *I served the king of England*, when a worldly-wise narrator-hero (let's remember that his name is Dite (Child)). Here, however retaining full dignity or fear of isolation is no longer possible. The narrator, observing the work and later departure of the Gypsy family, whom he is supposed to substitute in a hopeless attempt to repair the road leading to nowhere, realizes what future is prepared for him in this forgotten by people hermitage. This and other similar Kladen incidents can be interpreted as an attempt to turn the Roma people into representatives of a working class.

Particularly interesting fact is the presence in Hrabal's texts of examples of actions aiming at socializing the nomads originating from different historical periods preceding Socialistic Czechoslovakia. For example in *Dancing lessons for the advanced in age* uncle Pepin tells a typical for him story about a certain military policeman who strictly followed the rules concerning hygiene among the descendants of nomads and personally washed young Gypsy women, causing a certain astonishment among the older ones that they did not have to adhere to that regulation. The most numerous are the observations coming from socialistic Czechoslovakia, where we can also find episodes of specific social promotions of

the Roma people (for example a Gypsy policeman controlling the traffic like a symphonic orchestra conductor, whose symphony of not only traffic movements was admired in mute adoration by his countrymen).

As we have already mentioned before, our aim is not to give a detailed description of each literary, journalistic and autobiographical use of lexemes from the semantic field of *Gypsy* in shorter and longer prose forms of Hrabal. It is worth realising how serious the problem is, deserving serious not only literary elaboration, and it is not only because many authors, similarly to the poet Josef Hirsal, writing about the Na Hrazi street, called it „a street full of Gypsy children” and in a photographic documentation of Hrabal’s biography appears often a picture where the author is accompanied by two young Gypsy women, who went down in history as Skirts: turquoise-green and satin-red.

In the first, already mentioned Czech monography by Thomas Mazal entitled *Spisovate Bohumil Hrabal (Bohumil Hrabal, the writer)*, we can find a reproduction of the photo presenting Hrabal with a pipe accompanied by two young girls playing with a black dog. The inscription under the picture says that it was taken in Liben in 1957, the girls are Grundzov sisters and the dog’s name is Bobik [Mazal, 2006: 138]. The same reproduction can be found in the Polish translation of Hrabal’s book *I remember only sunny days*, however there, the inscription says: “Bohumil Hrabal with Gypsy girls from Liben and a dog, 1950s”. In the book by Monika Zgustova, also already mentioned, under the same reproduction we read: “Bohumil Hrabal with Gypsy friends in Liben” [Zgustova, 2000: 83]. In other publications known by the authors, photographs presenting Gypsy women and men were not found. It will be no overstatement if the girls from the photograph we will consider as the carriers of the above-mentioned skirts, without whom, the presented world of *Too loud a solitude* would be hard to imagine. For the Liben Gypsies until this day have constituted an important element giving a local color to the quarter. To a great extent, it is a result of a specific ennoblement which was the literary preservation in Hrabal’s works.

It can be assumed that the literary outlook of Hrabal limiting in a sense to describing the world and not changing it by literature, worked in a way that the author, recognising widely and deeply the complicated social and political issue of Prague, Czech and Middle Europe Roma people, did not try to solve the problem.

The author remains, in accordance with his own credo, a writer-eurologist of his times. That is why, the problem of a characteristic for our times new „migration of peoples” only to a certain, small extent absorbs the attention of the writer. He muses over the forms of presence of Afroamericans in the culture of the United States, in a subtly poetic way he speaks about the place of „Vietnamese diaspora” in a context of Czech culture regarding it – which is characteristic for his sensitivity – more as a presence of Vietnamese women than men.

Hrabal's depiction of the issue of Roma people in the Czech Republic should be considered highly personal, and as such cannot be used as a material for generalization for example sociological in the character of its reflection, although the writer frequently agrees with so called common beliefs and at times borders on stereotypical opinions.

It should be, however, emphasized that the author's observations concerning Prague or Czech Roma people are extended in time from Austro-Hungarian monarchy through interwar Czechoslovakia, then through the governed from the Nazi Berlin Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia, through socialistic Czechoslovakia, until the time of the Velvet Revolution and the separation of Slovakia. Of great value are especially realistic, grotesque and tragic descriptions of so-called socialization of the Roma people. For obvious reasons, the most common are descriptions of the attempts of turning them into rightful members of the working class, with which they were supposed to „move the foundations of the world”, and more precisely, share their fortune and misfortune with it.

The problem of Hrabal's Roma people is definitely worth a broader study. One can, however, get the impression that its social complexity discourages the researchers, not only the literary theorists.

[1] Mazal, T. 2006. *Spisovatel Bohumil Hrabal*, Prague.

[2] *Slovník Bohumila Hrabala*, Prague 2009.

[3] Zgustová, M. 2000. *Bohumil Hrabal*, trans. Zofia Tarajło-Lipowska, Wrocław.





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## ***Koncepcja człowieka jako istoty skazanej na wolność u Jean Paul Sartre***

### ***The concept of man as a being condemned to freedom of Jean Paul Sartre***

**Key words:** *theistic existentialism, atheistic existentialism, freedom absolute*

#### **Summary**

*At the beginning article author focuses on the conceptualization of the concept of existentialism after which goes to explanations the concept of theistic existentialism representatives and atheistic views with great distinction JP Sartre. The article presents Sartre's theories on human absolutely free, This concept has been subjected to consideration and comparison of to the views of other representatives of existentialism.*

„Egzystencjalizm jest filozoficzną refleksją nad człowiekiem, ludzkim istnieniem (existentia), któremu przypisuje się istnienie odmienne niż przedmiotowe, a z drugiej strony – jest to istnienie przepełnione świadomością różnorodnych niemożności, permanentnego braku spełnienia się

człowieka i możliwości opisu czy wyjaśnienia jego sytuacji” [Mackiewicz, 2008: 330]. Egzystencjalizm poszukuje wyjaśnienia bytu ludzkiego, bez sprowadzania go do rangi przedmiotu, czy rzeczy, ludzkie istnienie w egzystencjalizmie jest czymś ponad, czymś niezwykłym, nadprzyrodzonym. Filozofia egzystencjalna ujmuje problem istnienia ludzkiego z „dwóch perspektyw ideowych: perspektywy ateistycznej (J.P. Sartre, M. Merleau – Ponty, A. Camus, M. Heidegger, M. de Unamuno i inni), oraz perspektywy teistycznej (G. Marcel, K. Jaspers, L. Szestow, N. Biedajew i inni)” [Mackiewicz, 2008: 331]. Francuski filozof Jean Paul Sartre (1905 – 1980) był jedną z najbardziej kontrowersyjnych postaci reprezentujących współczesny egzystencjalizm. „Swoje poglądy przedstawiał nie tylko w traktatach filozoficznych, ale i w dziełach literackich. Uzyskał za nie nagrodę Nobla, której przyjęcia odmówił. Wygłoszony zaraz po zakończeniu II wojny światowej odczyt „Egzystencjalizm jest humanizmem” został powszechnie uznany za manifest egzystencjalizmu” [Herman, 2001: 62].

Zarówno egzystencjalizm teistyczny jak i ateistyczny sprowadza się do przekonania o pełnej odpowiedzialności człowieka za swoje poczynania, skupiając się na wartości jaką jest wolność. Jaspers jako przedstawiciel egzystencjalistów teistycznych nie określał precyzyjnie pojęcia wolności. Jaspers mówił, że „jeśli jestem wolny, to chcę czegoś nie dlatego, że chcę właśnie, ale dlatego, że przekonałem się o słuszności, (...) wolność jest wynikiem naturalnej chęci poznania prawdy” [Mackiewicz, 2008: 335]. Jednak dalej w swoich rozważaniach dochodzi do wniosku, że ludzie nie zawsze mają możliwość poznania prawdy, nieraz gubią się w swoich poczynaniach i nie są do końca pewni swoich decyzji. Rozważania te doprowadziły Jaspersa do stwierdzenia, iż wolność jest ograniczona i musi taka być, ponieważ gdyby tak nie było człowiek mógłby nazwać siebie Bogiem, a „autentyczna wolność świadoma jest swoich granic” [Mackiewicz, 2008: 336]. Jaspers twierdził również, że najwyższą wartością dla człowieka jest on sam i inni ludzie, dopiero kiedy człowiek sobie to uświadomi może wtenczas zbliżyć się do Boga. Co sprowadza teorię Jaspersa do „paradoksu wiary”, ponieważ według religii dopiero wtedy, kiedy człowiek uzna Boga za najwyższą wartość, wtedy będzie mógł stać się prawdziwym człowiekiem. „Filozofia Jaspersa akcentuje wolność ludzką, aż do zawrotu głowy i do trwogi. Tym „więcej” staje się wówczas gdy jestem autonomiczny, o ile wybieram i biorę na siebie swoje akty i wszyst-

ko, co do mnie należy. Egzystencja jest przeto tożsama z wolnością, wyodrębnia się spośród przedmiotów i stanowi podstawę autonomicznych aktów podmiotu ludzkiego” [Sarnowski, 1974: 201-202]. Rozważania Jaspersa często nie równoważą się z teorią religii, mimo iż uważany jest on za przedstawiciela egzystencjalizmu teistycznego. W rozważaniach myśliciela na pierwszym planie jest pewność co do tego, iż każdy człowiek jest osobą wolną, a nie zachodzi w nich przekonanie do istnienia „boskiego absolutu” [Sarnowski, 1974: 204], dopiero wtedy kiedy człowiek poczuje się w pełni wolną osobą może dostrzec i upewnić się Boga. „Człowiek jest bytem pozostającym w relacji z transcendencją, która jest fundamentem ludzkiej wolności, jest tym, za pośrednictwem czego możemy wytłumaczyć istnienie człowieka jako bytu autonomicznego” [Sarnowski, 1974: 204].

Sartre w swojej koncepcji odrzuca Boga i reprezentuje pogląd egzystencjalizmu ateistycznego. W doktrynach religijnych człowiek spełnia się w życiu za pośrednictwem Boga, który z góry ustalił jakim ma być człowiekiem. Ateizm zaś przypisuje człowiekowi określoną już sylwetkę, naturę ale bez ingerencji Boga. Egzystencjalizm ateistyczny skupia się na samym człowieku, jak pisał J.P Sartre „pierwotnie jest on niczym, bowiem nie ma nikogo, kto by mu nadał określone właściwości. W przypadku człowieka egzystencja poprzedza esencję, istnienie jest wcześniejsze niż istota” [Sartre, 1996: 23]. Sartre wraz z Marksem podejmuje stanowisko w sprawie człowieka, iż „jest on tym, co tworzy, co kreuje i co produkuje, jest homo sapiens, homo faber i homo creator – myślący, produkujący i tworzący” [Mackiewicz, 2008: 324]. Człowiek w koncepcji egzystencjalizmu ateistycznego jest istotą wolną, sam w trakcie swojego istnienia określa swoją naturę, ale też jest odpowiedzialny przed samym sobą jak i przed społeczeństwem za ten wybór. Jak pisał Sartre „dokonujemy wyboru w imieniu wszystkich ludzi” [Mackiewicz, 2008: 324], „wybieramy zawsze dobro, a to co jest dobre dla nas, musi być także dobre dla wszystkich” [Sartre, 1996: 30]. Może wydawać się, że te słowa wypowiedziane przez filozofa brzmią dziś zbyt dobitnie, ale zastanówmy się, że przecież każde z naszych poczynań obserwowane jest przez innych ludzi, którzy mogą się na nas wzorować, każdy nasz zamiar, czyn jest oceniany wokół i rozważany w kategoriach dobra i zła. Jak dalej w swoich rozważaniach „Egzystencjalizm jest humanizmem” Sartre pisał „dla każdego człowieka wszystko przebiega tak, jakby cała ludzkość miała oczy zwró-

cone na jego czyny i na nich się wzorowała” [Sartre, 1996: 34]. „Egzystencjalizm ateistyczny oznacza uznanie fundamentalnego osamotnienia człowieka, który nigdzie nie znajduje trwałego oparcia i może uczynić wszystko. Sam ponosi odpowiedzialność za wszystkie swoje decyzje, nie może usprawiedliwić swojego postępowania, odwołując się do jakichś czynników obiektywnych, gdyż jest wolny” [Herman, 2001: 63]. Filozof ujmował wolność jako „absolutną i twórczą”, wolną od wszelkich determinant i sprowadzoną do wymiarów Kartezjańskiego *cogito*, do sfery myślenia: wolny nie jest ten, kto nie jest już w stanie samodzielnie myśleć, aczkolwiek taki przypadek nigdy nie zachodzi” [Mackiewicz, 2008: 268]. Sartre pozwala sobie nawet na stwierdzenie, że człowiek jest skazany na wolność, „ponieważ nie jest stworzony, przez siebie samego, a pomimo to wolny, ponieważ raz rzucony w świat, jest odpowiedzialny za wszystko co robi” [Sartre, 1996: 39]. Wolność w rozumieniu Sartre jest czymś bardzo trudnym, niektórzy pragną wyzbyć się tej wolności, ponieważ sprowadza ona człowieka do podejmowania ważnych decyzji i ponoszenia odpowiedzialności za swoje czyny. Człowiek próbuje w ten sposób okłamywać sam siebie, ale zawsze to on będzie dokonywał ostatecznego wyboru, zakłamanie to w filozofii Sartre’a nazwane zostało złą wiarą. Człowiek nie może tłumaczyć swoich decyzji przez pryzmat pochodzenia, zaistniałej sytuacji czy wpływu innych ludzi, on sam musi podjąć się ryzyka i ustanowić swoją decyzję w czasie i miejscu, w którym się znalazł. Odpowiedzialność, która wiąże się bezpośrednio z wolnością jest czasami bardzo trudna dla człowieka, który waha się podjęcia decyzji o rozwiązaniu swojego dylematu, tylko ten, kto unika odpowiedzialności i spycha swoją determinację na innych, na sytuację, w której w ten czas się znalazł, przez swoje postępowanie staje się tchórzem. Człowiek w myśl egzystencjalistów istnieje w świecie, jest związany ze wszystkimi ludźmi, poznaje świat i innych ludzi, dzięki nabywaniu świadomości istnienia staje się integralną częścią świata i nabywa cechy ludzkiego istnienia. „Świat otaczający człowieka składa się z innych egzystencji ludzkich, ale także z „rzeczy”, których byt jest inny, nieświadomy siebie. Nie jest to już byt „dla siebie” (*pour soi*), lecz „w sobie” (*en soi*), jak go nazywa Sartre. Ta dwoistość bytu jest podstawowa dla filozofii egzystencjalnej :byt ludzki i pozaludzki, *être pour soi* i *être en soi*” [Tatarkiewicz, 2005: 398].

Sartre w podejściu ateistycznym stawia człowieka jako „wewnętrznie skłóconego i wrogiego wobec innych ludzi i jednych zbiorowisk ludzkich

wobec innych. Człowiek jest istotą zagubioną w całości wydarzeń i pośród własnych wytworów” [Mackiewicz, 2008: 318-319] Poglądy Sartre’a spotkały się z zarzutami, że podchodzi on do człowieka pesymistycznie, skoro jest on istotą samotną, skazaną wyłącznie na siebie. Sartre odpierając ten zarzut mówił, że „egzystencjalizm jest jedyną teorią nadającą człowiekowi godność. Można w nim dostrzec także heroiczny optymizm, skoro nic z góry nie jest przesądzone i wszystko zależy od człowieka. Jedyna nasza rzeczywistość sprowadza się do naszego działania i to my kierując własnym życiem, przesądzamy o tym, kim jesteśmy. Nikt nie jest w stanie nam tego odebrać, choć nigdy nie wiemy, jak postąpią inni ludzie” [Herman, 2001: 64-65]. „Każdy człowiek jest twórcą – będąc wolny, dokonuje wyboru swojej moralności i tworzy w ten sposób sam siebie” [Sartre, 1996: 69-70]. Człowiek w ostateczności pragnie wolności dla siebie i dla innych, ponieważ stanowi ona podstawę wszystkich innych wartości. „Egzystencjalizm jest doktryną pozwalająca człowiekowi odnaleźć samego siebie i zrozumieć, że tak naprawdę nie ma żadnej ucieczki od samego siebie” [Herman, 2001: 65]. Początki wieku XX, kiedy to zaczęła rozwijać się filozofia egzystencjalna, zarówno teistyczna, jak i ateistyczna, był czasem paradoksów, co zrodziło się z uwarunkowań historycznych tamtej epoki. Dla myślicieli ludzkie istnienie stało się wielką niewiadomą, którą na nowo zaczęli odkrywać. „Poszukiwanie na nowo „wiary i nadziei” było wyrazem poszukiwań miejsca, które człowiek utracił, przytłoczony chaosem wytworów i zagrożeń cywilizacji technicznej, tej, którą sam stworzył” [Mackiewicz, 2008: 342].

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# Humanum

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## ***Consumer behaviour and its influence on tourism development***

**Key words:** *Consumer behavior. Tourism. Marketing. Consumer. Marketing research.*

### **Summary**

*Consumer behavior in developed economies is the subject of sustained interest, since only the consumer himself decides what kind of services he needs and for which he is willing to pay well. Tourism is considered a major determinant of the development of the national economy and represents a potential of generating a profit from a macroeconomic point of view and also from a microeconomic perspective. The aim of this paper is the analysis and comparison of the views of the individual authors on concepts such as tourism and consumer behaviour. We also want to point out through conducted marketing research on the impact of demographic variables on consumer behavior in tourism.*

### **Consumer behavior in the tourism market**

Consumer behavior plays an important role in everyday life, thus its study and analysis are very important for each of us. Understanding the

nature of consumer behavior is one of the main tasks of economics. Consumer behavior from a microeconomic point of view can be considered as the basis of marketing theory. The difference between the studies of consumer behavior at the micro and macro level consists in the fact that the micro-level problems affect individual companies and consumer analysis helps them in achieving their objectives purchase or use the product. Nature of consumer behavior also results from the action of environmental influences. Basic factors influencing consumers can be broken down into the following groups [HES, Šalková, 2012]: and knowledge about consumers is applied on the aggregate level at the macro level and is related to large social groups or the entire society [Taborecká, Petrovičová, 2011].

According to another source consumer behavior is not only the measure of immediate

- Objective terms of consumer behavior,
- the personality of the consumer,
- incentive structure of shopping behavior,
- social environment and social relations.

From the perspective of marketing management practice understanding consumer behavior is essential for long-term business success and is the cornerstone, orientation and philosophy of marketing concept.

Areas of marketing orientation [Taborecká, Petrovičová, 2011]:

- the needs and demands of consumers, respectively customers
- business goals,
- integrated strategy.

In relation to tourism, we must also consider changes in the economy, technology and society whose consequences affect the growth and decline of certain activities related to leisure time. It concerns increase in energy prices, expanding trend of smaller family units, living in smaller living spaces, continuous improvement of the various forms of communication including the Internet. Mass adjustment to this trend and other digital networks transform the way consumers imply and share the acquired information with each other and with associated social groups. [Mautino, 2000]. Consumer behavior in tourism is influenced by external forces, such as social factors, which include people from around the individual. An important attribute in terms of marketing concept is to address issues of consumer behavior and research of consumer demand in



the given circumstances. The role of the current tourism marketing is to identify and find the knowledge of consumer behavior. According to Hvizdova, jr. [Hvizdová 2008: 51] the knowledge is the action. The richest countries are those that rely on knowledge and skills in business, not just the equipment, labour and mineral resources. In recent years, in relation to that, we observed an important paradigm in Slovakia, which is associated with more complex and less stable model of consumer behavior in tourism (in poorer countries, this model is significantly simpler and more stable). Flexibility consumer model in tourism grows in proportion to prosperity. Significant indicator from analysis of consumer behavior in tourism is consumer satisfaction. Satisfied consumer in tourism means that his needs and expectations are constantly reassured throughout the life of the product or service. Consumer satisfaction depends on his feelings - pleasure or disappointment resulting from comparisons of consumer performance with expected performance. In tourism, the emphasis is on emotional survival of consumer arising from the consumption of a particular service, and on his perceiving the service due to their expectations. The aim of tourism marketing is to ensure that consumers' feelings are many times more positively evaluated than their initial expectations.

Consumer behavior has the character of a dynamic nature, that is, consumption is changed quantitatively and qualitatively with the growth of needs and desires and the possibility of satisfying them. Structural changes affect consumer segments, divide the market into smaller parts and lead to greater individualization. Under the broadest definition [Bennett 1995] consumer behavior is considered in applications to dynamic interaction of people and environment containing emotion, cognition and action through which people make an exchange to meet their needs. In other words, consumer behavior has cognitive, affective component and its capacity includes thinking, feeling and actions of people that take place in the context of the consumption process. Analysis of consumer behavior in the tourism industry cannot do without understanding the basic categories of tourism.

There are numerous definitions of tourism, as it is a multidisciplinary economic activity, so here are presented some important definitions although we think the most accurate is extended concept of tourism based on its perception as a complex process, intervening not only its partici-

pants, but also providers of services, destinations where tourism is realized and transit destinations. .

One of the first definitions of tourism was formulated by Austrian economist Hermann V. Schullard in 1910, who said that "tourism is a summary of operations, mainly of an economic nature, which relate directly to the entry, stay and movement of foreigners inside or outside of a country, city or region" [Gross, Michalova, Novacká 1999].

Tourism is defined as a set of activities designed to meet the needs related to travel and movement of people away from places of residence and usually in their free time in order to rest, to improve cognition and health, to distract and entertain, to attend cultural and sports activities, to do business trips and obtain comprehensive experience [Gůčik 2006].

Tourism is a set of activities aimed at meeting the needs of travel-related persons outside the place of residence and usually at leisure, for recovery purposes, cognition, social contact, cultural and social activities, spa treatments and the business trips. Many of these needs can be satisfied outside the scope of tourism, but satisfying them right to participation in tourism represents a qualitatively higher level of their satisfaction [Oriška 1998].

Tourism is considered as "activities of the person travelling on a temporary basis to a place outside their permanent residence for a period of less than one year in the international tourism and 6 months in domestic tourism, the main purpose of the trip is other than the pursuit of gainful employment in the place visited [according to WTO - Mala, Netková et al., 2002].

Technical aspects of tourism are emphasized by Hunziker and Krapf, who defined it as the sum of relationships arising from the travel and stay of aliens who do not justify their residing as creating domicile or performing various gainful activities [Michalova et al., 2001]). Most authors rightly distinguish the concept of tourism as a phenomenon of the movement of people away from their residence from the concept of pure tourism, which they understand as a specific form of tourism oriented on the use of leisure time outside their own home.

In the early 20th century there began to pay systematic attention to tourism also from a theoretical point of view. The most significant work, which deals with tourism as a separate sector of economy is considered to be a general doctrine of tourism by Swiss authors Hunzicher and

Krapf [Hunzicher - Krapf 1942]. According to these authors, tourism represents a set of phenomena and relationships arising from residence in a foreign place where destination is not a permanent residence or gainful activity. Many experts in tourism analyze the importance of tourism from a macroeconomic perspective. Globally, it shows that the share of tourism in GDP is around 11 to 13 percent (it is the calculation of the multiplier effect on GDP) and it employs more than 11 percent of employees. The economic potential of tourism is huge, mainly due to rising living standards of many countries.

From a macroeconomic perspective, we can specify the effect of tourism in these dimensions [Borovsky - Smolkova - Niňajová 2008]:

- Tourism as a cross-industry
- Multiplier effect of tourism
- Tourism and added value
- Tourism and economic growth
- Tourism and enterprising
- Tourism and the labour market
- tourism and consumption

Tourism is an important part of the economy primarily as a source of revenue to the state budget, and it contributes to the gross domestic product and the high rate of job creation. Changes in society, such as changes in economic environment or lifestyle changes have a constant impact on tourism, for which it is crucial to adjust its offer to these changes at the earliest possible stage.

It is to be noted that in the definition of the basic categories of tourism, the most important is a position of tourists itself. Participant of tourism is a person or group of persons acting as a consumer of tourism product. The basic concepts of tourism include the following definitions.

Permanent resident (resident) - in international travel related to given country it represents a person who lives in the country for at least one year prior to entry into another country for less than one year, in domestic tourism in relation to a particular place it means a person who lives at this place for at least six consecutive months prior to arrival to another site for less than six months.

Visitor - in international travel is a person who travels to another country than in which he has his permanent residence for a period not

exceeding one year, the main purpose of trip is other than employment in the visited country, in the domestic tourism is a person who is a resident in the country and is travelling to another place outside his home for less than six months and the main purpose of trip is other than employment in the place visited.

Tourist - in international travel is a person who travels to another country to that in which he has his habitual residence at the time involving at least one overnight stay, but not longer than one year, the main purpose of trip is other than employment in visited country, in domestic tourism is a person permanently settled in the country, who travels to a place different from the permanent residence for a period involving at least one overnight stay, but not for a period longer than six months with the main purpose of trip other than employment in the place visited.

Depending on length of stay are distinguished:

Holidaymaker - remains in that place more than a certain number of nights or days.

Short-term tourist - travels for a period not exceeding this limit, but lasting longer than 24 hours and including at least an overnight stay.

Excursionist, tripper - in international travel is a person who travels to another country to that in which he has his habitual residence and usual environment for less than 24 hours without having stayed over night, with the main purpose of this trip other than the pursuit of economic activities in the visited country, in the domestic tourism is a person permanently settled in the country that travels to different places of permanent residence and the current environment for less than 24 hours, without staying over night in the place visited with the main purpose of the trip other than the pursuit of economic activities in the place visited.

To which category of tourism the participants themselves are included largely depends on consumer behavior factors that restrict or enhance it. Each factor has its justification, and must be perceived by the marketer as the fact that moves him forward. Knowledge of cultural, social, personal and psychological factors is an important step in revealing the black box of the consumer.

### **The results of the conducted marketing research on consumer behavior in tourism market**

The content of the survey was the impact of demographic variables on consumer behavior in the tourism market. Consumer decision making concerns areas such as: characteristics of the selected product, the holiday place of residence, type of holiday, stay on vacation, use of own transport, the price per person and the selected accommodation type. Within the collection of primary data there was conducted quantitative research method and that was querying (tool - a standardized questionnaire). The survey examined 6 thematic and 23 identification variables. The research sample consisted of respondents of the Eastern Slovakia in the two regional cities of Kosice and Presov and from both there were selected 2 towns Poprad and Vranov for Presov region and for Košice region - Michalovce and Spisska Nova Ves. The survey was conducted during the period September 2012 to May 2013. Achieved data were recorded in a matrix of data in the statistical program SPSS, which was subsequently used for further analysis (statistical test of impact, factor and cluster analyses). As a final step in the management of the implementation phase of the survey there were conducted interpretation and generalization, which formed the essence of in-depth analysis and interpretation of the results of the survey. Survey involved a total of 315 respondents.

**Tab. 1: Statistical confirmation of the impact of demographic variables on consumer behavior**

	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Education</b>	<b>Income</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>Residence</b>
<b>Place of stay</b>	<b>yes</b>	no	<b>yes</b>	no	no
<b>Type of holiday</b>	<b>yes</b>	<b>yes</b>	<b>yes</b>	<b>yes</b>	no
<b>Length</b>	no	no	<b>yes</b>	<b>yes</b>	no
<b>Accommodation type</b>	no	<b>yes</b>	<b>yes</b>	no	<b>yes</b>
<b>Use of services</b>	no	no	<b>yes</b>	no	no
<b>Holiday planning method</b>	no	no	<b>yes</b>	<b>yes</b>	<b>yes</b>
<b>Information sources</b>	<b>yes</b>	<b>yes</b>	<b>yes</b>	<b>yes</b>	<b>yes</b>

In analyzing the impact of demographic variables on consumer behavior in the tourism market there have been studied the effect of gender, education, income, age, and residence to place of stay, type of holiday, length of stay, type of accommodation, use of the services of travel agents, holiday planning method and sources of information.

The table above (Table 1) indicates on statistical confirmation of the impact of various demographic variables on consumer behavior when deciding about summer vacation. Gender and income affect selection of the place of stay. Men prefer recreation, sightseeing and adventure tourism, while women incline to spa tourism. The highest percentage for spa and pilgrimage tourism is created by age group of 60 and more. Recreation, sightseeing and adventure tourism represent income group over €800. Recreation, sightseeing and spa tourism cover income groups to €800. Respondents with income groups less than € 800 prefer length of stay on holiday less than 8 days, while respondents with income limits over € 800 prefer to stay up to 15 days. People with basic education use as an accommodation in cheaper hotel, apartment and camping site, tourists with secondary and tertiary education prefer the type of accommodation in hotels, apartments and guest houses. Using of services is determined only by income, other variables are not reflected in decision-making. The method of holiday planning is more often taken into consideration by increasing age of consumers. All variables affect source of information, which corresponds to the sociological environment (personal resources), as well as perceptions of impersonal sources of information.

Based on the statistical analysis of the impact of demographic variables on consumer behavior in the tourism market in concrete terms, we can clearly demonstrate the effect of income on all aspects of consumer behavior due to the fact that it deals with a relax, and people with higher incomes are willing to invest more in a holiday and are looking for more than standard. Gender as a variable is not viewed as passed significant, because holiday is of more collective nature and participants must find a compromise.

### **Changes, trends and consumer expectations in tourism**

With changes and continuous development of tourism, the whole structure of consumer demand for products and services is changing. Number of participants of tourism steadily grows, and therefore we can

say that tourism in general is becoming an essential part in our lives and a major component of consumption. *"The main factors behind the growth of tourism are the growth in free time volume, increase in living standards and disposable income. Prerequisite for the development of tourism in the future is political stability and global action to eliminate the negative factors that affect the outflow of interest in travel"* [Jarolímková, L., 2007].

Very interesting changes can be currently seen in consumer behavior in relation to domestic tourism. Consumer decisions in this area are increasingly influenced by individuality and require intensive products that satisfy the variety of consumer needs. Tired from big cities, the rapid pace of life and work will lead to a change in motivation and guidance of consumers to return to nature and countryside.

Expansion and building of new resorts have already been performed in domestic tourism and it responds to these new requirements on tourism services from the demand side. Distribution of working time and rest is currently focused on short-term and repeated stays in domestic tourism. Destinations are becoming an important element of rest, relaxation, rehabilitation of physical and mental powers as well as experience-oriented activities in this direction. A new trend is becoming individual wishes that require a flexible offer that constitutes the so-called "tailor made products". Consumers in tourism are nowadays referred to as challengers and do not represent passive recipients, as it was in the past.

### **Conclusion**

Developed market economies considered analysis of consumer behavior in tourism and its subsequent reflection on the changes as the primary component of gaining competitive advantage. At the same time entrepreneurs in services sector are more concentrated on indebtedness of households than it was in the past, which significantly eliminates the consumption of services in all sectors of the national economy, but more in tourism services. Prices of services offered must reflect the real possibility for consumers in terms of their income. Causes and consequences of the adverse economic situation of consumers at the microeconomic level, as well as solving problems at the macroeconomic level, are examined by many theoretical and practical studies. The aim of this paper was to show consumer behavior in the tourism market on the basis of demo-

graphic criteria towards selection of holiday, either domestic or foreign one.

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## ***Halový systém ošetrovateľské péče a stud pacienta***

### ***Indoor system of nursing care and patient shame.***

**Key words:** *Ethics, morality, moral problems, nursing, ethics, patient rights, indoor system*

#### **Summary**

*Ethics earmark for Ethics Cod. It is the sum of the rules of behavior in a given society - these are the basic rules of conduct decent, as they are in every other profession, varies depending on career and code of ethics, too.*

*It is a social phenomenon which interferes with prompt bizzare areas of life. Without ethics, respect for human beings and respect for the fundamental rights can not be expected to succeed in life. Morality can be characterized as social phenomenon that reflects human relationships and human activities in terms of good and evil . The moral problem is wherever a person in a daily struggle for existence is responsible for their actions. Therefore, one necessarily expects total remuneration for their morally good, free volitiona, decision, reward, whose impact extends beyond its currently. What are the key values and principles in nursing? Choosing values that are generally and most experts considered crucial, is quite complex and depends of multiple factors. We are talking about autonomy, utility, fairness, trustworthiness, truthfulness, and harmlessness. The aim of the European Charter of Patients' Rights to ensure a high level of human health. Authors pay attention in this allowance to shame, because the hospital is not the time to respect the sick. Embarrassment or shame or a sense of shame is (negative) feeling, knowing error, bad faith or any other personal deficiency.*

## **Úvod**

Slovo ETIKA vzešlo z řeckého slova ethos – mravnost. Věda o mravnosti. Je teorií mravnosti, zkoumá zákonitosti mravního chování jedinců i společnosti. Být mravní bytostí znamená být osobou, která je schopná být mravně odpovědnou za své činy. Základním problémem etiky je však to, jak víme, co je dobré a správné. Etika je filozofická disciplína, byla nazývána praktickou filozofií. Jako samostatný obor lidského bádání byla systemizována starořeckým filozofem Aristotelem. Etika je podle něj naukou o dobrých charakterových vlastnostech. Etika je vědecká disciplína, jejímž objektem je mravnost. Morálka je představována systémem pravidel a norem, které určují chování a jednání lidí. Každý obor lidské činnosti má svou morálku a má ji i ošetřovatelství a následně i každý obor lidské činnosti, včetně ošetřovatelství, má vymezené povinnosti. V ošetřovatelství jde navíc ještě o rozhodnutí, co je pro pacienta prospěšnější, co konat, aby byla schována důstojnost pacienta, jeho autonomie, aby pacient neztrácel naději. Etika je součástí kultury dané společností.

Kultura, to jsou naučné, sdílené a předané hodnoty, přesvědčení, normy a zvyklosti určité skupiny lidí. Tyto složky kultury ovlivňují

myšlení, rozhodování a jednání specifickým způsobem. Kultura ovlivňuje vzorce chování a myšlení. Kultura je propracované, sdílené a předávané chápání hodnot, životního stylu, přesvědčení určité osoby nebo skupiny osob. Ke kultuře patří rovněž řada obřadních zvyklostí: rituály v mezních životních situacích (narození, křest, svatba, pohřeb) a kodex etického rozhodování včetně způsobu chování.

Morálka určuje společensky žádoucí a nežádoucí jednání a tak usměrňuje chování člověka ve společnosti. Jde vlastně o definované přesvědčení, že určité chování, jednání je správné a jiné nesprávné. Je to vlastně schopnost rozeznat dobré od zlého. Podle tohoto rozeznávání dobra a zla se vytváří mravní vztahy, což jsou postoje jedince k sobě a k ostatním lidem. Morálku vnímáme jako společensky preferované psané a nepsané normy, které tvoří soubor požadavků na chování člověka. Měřítkem morálky je shoda, či neshoda s vlastním svědomím. Proto je morálka individuální kategorie.

### **Morálka v ošetrovatelství**

Je to, co se týká dobra a prospěchu nebo škody a ublížení nemocnému. Všechny ošetrovateľské úkony mají morální dopad. Morálka jsou reálné mravní vztahy lidí, jsou to vztahy mezi jednotlivci, mezi jednotlivcem a skupinou a také vztahy k sobě samému.

### **Etika – teorie**

Neboli věda o morálce – zkoumá, proč se člověk chová tak či onak. Je filozofickou vědou o správném způsobu života, vychází z racionálních přístupů a snaží se nalézt, popřípadě zdůvodnit společné a obecné základy, na nichž morálka stojí. V ošetrovatelství ji definujeme jako teorii o podmínkách a příčinách ošetrovateľsky žádoucího a nežádoucího chování a jednání.

### **Co je morální problém?**

Problém znamená důležitý sporný námět k řešení. Problém vzniká tam, kde mohou být různé názory. Co je tedy morální problém? Je to důležité téma spojené s rozlišováním mezi dobrým a zlým, správným a nesprávným v denním životě. Léčba pacientů a jejich blaho závisí do značné míry na morálce, na etickém a právním vědomí zdravotníků, kteří poskytují péči. Řada morálních otázek a problémů vystoupila do popředí

v okamžiku, kdy se začaly zavádět nové technologie, nová léčiva a léčebné postupy.

## **Základní etické principy v ošetrovatelství**

### **Autonomie**

Etický princip, který poukazuje na to, že každý by měl mít právo určovat své chování a jednání podle svých osobních etických zásad. Ctít autonomii jednotlivce znamená připustit jeho volbu podle osobních hodnot a přesvědčení.

### **Benefice – prospěšnost**

Závazek konat dobro a vyhnout se působení škod nebo újmy. Sestry jsou vázány povinnostmi podnikat kroky, které prospívají pacientovi.

### **Důvěryhodnost**

Zůstat věrný svým závazkům a dodržovat je. Tyto závazky vyplývají z důvěryhodného vztahu mezi pacientem a poskytovatelem péče. Moderní ošetrovatelství zdůrazňuje, že by sestra měla působit jako obhájkyňe pacienta a jeho práv. důvěryhodnost je zakotvena i v ošetrovatelském etickém kodexu.

### **Spravedlnost**

Princip vyžadující rovné jednání s lidmi, kteří jsou v podobné situaci a diferencované jednání s lidmi, kteří jsou v různých situacích.

### **Pravdomlupnost**

Závazek říkat druhým pravdu a neklamat je. V jistém smyslu se dá mluvit o pravdomlupnosti vůči sobě samému. Pravdomlupnost je oceňována v řadě kultur a v jejich tradičních hodnotách.

### **Práva pacientů**

Zvolila jsem pouze práva pacientů v bodech, protože v ošetrovatelské péči je na práva pacientů často zapomínáno.

Každý, kdo je tělesně nebo duševně nemocný nebo postižený, nebo kdo je ohrožen takovým stavem, se považuje za pacienta a má právo na potřebnou prevenci, diagnózu a léčbu v zájmu úplné obnovy zdraví, nebo

zmírnění následků takového stavu, nebo zamezení dalšího zhoršování stavu.

- Právo na zdravotní péči
- Právo na informovaný souhlas
- Právo odmítnout zdravotnický výkon
- Právo na informace
- Právo nebýt informován
- Právo na ochranu soukromí
- Právo na určení osob i rozsahu poskytování informací
- Právo na svobodnou volbu lékaře
- Právo blízkých osob na informace o zdravotním stavu pacienta
- Právo osob pozůstalých

PRÁVO PACIENTŮ je občanské sdružení, které vzniklo jako poradenské sdružení na pomoc pacientům ve využívání jejich práv v zdravotním systému ČR.

### **Porušení práv pacienta**

Při poskytování zdravotní péče může dojít k četným zásahům do patientských práv. Pacient může utrpět újmu na zdraví následkem nesprávně provedeného zákroku, může být narušeno jeho právo na soukromí či jeho lidská důstojnost, může být omezena jeho rozhodovací autonomie. Právní řád obsahuje dostatečné mechanismy k tomu, aby se občan nemusel se zásahem do svých práv pouze pasivně smířit. Postižený je oprávněn svá práva hájit a měl by tak i činit. Na práva, jejichž dodržování není vymáháno, se totiž pomalu zapomíná, stávají se pouhým neživým textem v hlubinách sbírky zákonů. Naopak respektování práv, která občané znají a na nichž trvají, se časem stává naprosto samozřejmým. Není proto správné odsuzovat každého, kdo důsledně trvá na svých právech, jako problémového jedince a kverulanta; tím, že občan trvá na dodržení zákona ve své věci, nepřímou přispívá též k dodržení zákona ve věcech svých spoluobčanů.

Nelze však popřít, že proces vymáhání vlastních práv, zejména v oblasti zdravotnictví, není zpravidla nic příjemného. Nejlepší (a též nejlevnější) cestou je proto snažit se budoucím problémům a porušením práv předcházet, byť to není vždy možné. Začít lze již při první návštěvě nového lékaře. Protože současný právní řád dává pacientům právo podílet se na rozhodování o léčebném procesu, pacient by se měl pokusit

o dohodu se svým lékařem na podmínkách poskytování péče - co má lékař říkat o vývoji zdravotního stavu pacientovi samotnému a co má říkat členům jeho rodiny, zda pacient ponechá veškeré rozhodování o provedení zákroků na lékaři či zda chce být o všem podrobně informován a co nejvíc o průběhu léčby spolurozhodovat. Pacient by též neměl opomenout včasný dotaz, zda bude léčení klást nějaké nároky na jeho peněženku, zejména pokud jde o poplatky za léky. V některých nemocnicích již je zaveden proces, že ihned po přijetí, je-li to možné, pacient dostane poučení o okolnostech hospitalizace a obdrží formulář, do kterého vyplní své preference a který bude založen do jeho zdravotnické dokumentace.

Ani tehdy, pokud už k problémům došlo a pacient není s výsledky zdravotní péče spokojen, nemusí být vždy jedinou cestou soudní spor nebo trestní oznámení na policii. Téměř nikdy neuškodí, pokud pacient prodiskutuje problém nejprve se svým lékařem. Velká většina právních sporů mezi lékaři a pacienty je jen následkem špatné komunikace. Tato nedorozumění vyplývají například z toho, že pacient nesprávně porozumí některému cizojazyčnému medicínskému pojmu. V takovém případě se může stát, že jeho náležitý překlad získá až před soudem, bohužel až po tom, co neuspěl v časově i finančně nákladném sporu vyvolaném omylem. Včasná diskuse s lékařem může pacientovi ušetřit značné částky. Teprve pokud ani po podání vysvětlení není pacient spokojen, je zapotřebí, aby věc posoudil nezávislý třetí.

### **Stud pacienta**

Je to obrana vlastní intimity, varování před tím, co by ji mohlo narušit (**ostych**), anebo aktuální pocit zahanbení před sebou samým, nad vlastní nedostatečností (**hanba**). Stud je psychofyzický a často mimovolný jev, který se může projevit zrudnutím ve tváři, kdežto české „stud“ naopak naznačuje souvislost s pocitem chladu a zimy. Fyziologické souvislosti studu nejsou zatím prozkoumány. Jako takový není stud důsledkem mravní výchovy, nýbrž spíše předpokladem skutečné mravnosti. Výchova může ovlivnit rozsah a způsoby projevoování studu, může je usměrňovat, podporovat nebo potlačovat, stud sám však není produktem výchovy.

## Vymezení

Stud je velmi složitý jev, který se zatím nepodařilo definovat. Preventivní, varující "stud před něčím" je *ostych*, následný "stud za něco" je *hanba*. V něčem se stud podobá (subjektivní) vině, ostudě, trapnosti a trémě, s nimiž se někdy v běžné řeči zaměňuje. Blíže rozbor však ukáže, že se od nich také významně liší.

Zatímco vina je lítost a přijetí odpovědnosti za nějaké jednání (nebo nečinnost), předmětem studu je vlastní osoba sama. Člověk cítí vinu za něco, co udělal, ale stydí se za to, jaký je. Zatímco míra viny se měří velikostí poškození druhých, stud indikuje míru „poškození“ sebe sama. Na rozdíl od viny a hanby, které se vztahují k minulému jednání, stud je také preventivní: člověk se stydí něco udělat, a tudíž to neudělá („to bych se musel stydět“). Na rozdíl od ostudy, trapnosti a ztrapnění, jež předpokládá svědky a společnost, stydět se člověk může i za věci, které nikdo neviděl a o nichž nikdo neví. Může se stydět dávat najevo své dobré stránky, může se stydět veřejně vystupovat (tréma) nebo příliš vynikat (například ve škole). Proto se stud někdy omezuje („nestyď se!“), jindy naopak povzbuzuje nebo probouzí („stydte se!“).

Takřka všechen stud je produktem vnějšího utváření jedince. Jediný skutečně přirozený stud je napříč kulturami sledovaný stud těhotných žen (zahalování těla, přirozený "ústup z popředí", kladení zvláště vysokého důrazu na intimitu).

## Oblasti studu

Člověk se typicky stydí například:

- Jako malé dítě před cizími lidmi. Dítě v určitém věku „se stydí“, když navázalo oční kontakt s cizím dospělým člověkem, zarazí se a schovává za maminku. Ne proto, že by udělalo něco špatného, ale protože se obává narušení své intimity.
- Jako dospělý za nechtěné odhalení své nahoty, případně když se odhalí něco, co si chtěl uchovat sám pro sebe. Ne proto, že by to bylo nečestné, ale protože to nechce vystavit např. posměchu a pohrdání.
- Člověk se stydí nebo hanbí za zbabělost, podlost, nízkost v jednání nebo i v myšlení.
- Může se však stydět i za veřejnou chválu, poctu nebo úspěch, který si nezaslouží.

- Může se stydět za hanebné jednání někoho blízkého, na němž mu záleží („stydím se za tebe“). Psychologové hovoří o „zástupném studu“.

### **Pohlavní stud**

Filosof Arthur Schopenhauer si všiml, že zatímco rozmnožovací orgány (květy) rostlin jsou ozdobné, nápadné a vystavené na odiv, tělesné uspořádání živočichů je spíše skrývá. Člověk je kromě toho zakrývá I kulturně: „oděv“ některých domorodců v tropech tvoří jen mužské pouzdro na penis. Není to proto, že by své genitálie pokládal za něco špatného, ale protože je cítí jako intimní a nechce je vystavovat pohledům každého. Člověk se tak brání zvěcnění své sexuality, která je rezervována pro soukromí a důvěrnost „ve dvou“.

Z nepochopení této skutečnosti vzniká prudérie, mylný dojem, jako kdyby sexualita sama o sobě byla něco nečistého. Prudérní kultura pak vede k potlačování a vytěsnění sexuality, z nichž vznikají neurózy. Jinou reakcí na prudérii je například obscénní jednání, které stud uráží, ale nepopírá: kdyby se lidé nestyděli, ztratila by obscenita smysl. Stud ovšem ruší a popírá komercializace sexu, kterou často i prostitutky cítí jako nepatřičnou a snaží se vyhradit si oblast, kam zákazníci nepustí, například polibek.

### **Hodnocení a význam**

Studem člověk projevuje:

- schopnost odstupu vůči sobě samému,
- skutečnost, že mu na něm samém záleží,
- skutečnost, že na sebe klade měřítko, jimž nemusí dostat.

### **Právo na stud**

Pacient má podle mezinárodních i českých předpisů právo na soukromí při léčbě. V nemocnicích je však toto právo často porušováno, chybí soustavní státní kontrola a tuto oblast zanedbávají i zdravotní pojišťovny a profesní zdravotnické organizace.

U nás bohužel setrvačností z minulosti stále ještě dochází k hrubým prohřeškům vůči soukromí pacientů. Stačí si projít namátkou pár zdravotnických zařízení v jakémkoli městě. Stále přžívá např. zlovyk sester či i dokonce lékařů - vyjít z ordinace do čekárny a před ostatními lidmi se pacienta ptát: Tak co, pane Nováku, co vám je dneska?



Zastaralý zákon o péči o zdraví lidu se o právu na soukromí zmiňuje jen velmi kuse, např. je zmíněna mlčenlivost zdravotníků, co se týče zdravotní dokumentace (ale ani zde zákon není důsledný, umožňuje v rozporu se zahraničím přístup k dokumentaci bez souhlasu pacienta příliš širokému okruhu osob), nebo existuje právo pacienta nesouhlasit s přítomností jiných lidí při léčbě, pokud nejsou přímo zapojeni do léčby - míní se však spíše jen personál daného zdrav. zařízení, ovšem v praxi u nás dochází k daleko horším věcem.

Personál je někdy "raněný profesní slepotou", neuvědomuje si tyto věci, o to více je však nutno zajistit, aby vedoucí pracovníci školili personál pravidelně i v těchto otázkách a aby nezávislá kontrola systematicky průběžně monitorovala úroveň poskytování zdravotní péče.

V západní zemi by pacient okamžitě opustil zdravotnické zařízení, které by se dopouštělo takového hrubého porušování soukromí pacientů - západní pacient má okamžitou účinnou pomoc u své pojišťovny nebo u státem placeného ombudsmana pro zdravotní péči. Stačí nahlásit lékaře a druh prohřešku, a příslušná osoba či instituce jde věc vyřídit za pacienta - jméno pacienta může na přání zůstat utajeno, takže instituce zajistí nápravu (pohrozí lékaři pokutou či odejmutím licence), ani by se lékař dověděl, kdo si na něho stěžoval - pacientovi se pak nemůže mstít.

U nás pacient samozřejmě ví, že se ho zpravidla nikdo nezastane. Bojí se, že ztratí lékaře a jiný ho nevezme. Jen ti méně bojácní zkusí dát stížnost na krajský úřad - ale kolik našich krajů či pojišťoven skutečně ihned prověřilo podstatu stížnosti v praxi? Vždyť naše zákony ani nepočítají s provedením předem neohlášené kontroly, což je v zahraničí zcela běžné a pro kontrolní instituce povinné (např. západní zákony běžně nařizují, že dozorčí správní úřad musí provést nejméně jednu předem neohlášenou kontrolu ve zdrav. zařízení).

### **Péče o pacienta na neurochirurgii – ošetrovatelský halový systém**

Na nezvané klinice v nezvané nemocnici v ČR je halový systém ošetrovatelské péče. Tahle jednotka intenzivní péče má celkem šest lůžek. Čtyři pacienti leží společně ve velké hale a dva pacienti jsou ve speciálním boxu, který je od haly oddělený prosklenou stěnou a zde se nacházejí další dvě lůžka. Pacienti co vedle sebe leží, jsou od sebe odděleni pouze hadrovou plentou a často vedle sebe leží ženy i muži. I když je od sebe odděluje plenta a zejména v nemocnici je každý pacient

vnímavý jedinec tak každý vnímá to, co se vedle něj děje. Nehledě, na tom, že pacienti jsou umístěni naproti sobě tak na sebe vidí. Při ranní hygieně před každého pacienta dáváme sice speciální zástěnu, ale je tady neustálý pohyb lidí, zejména doktorů, kteří tady píší vizity a chodí jednotlivé pacienty vyšetřovat. I když se sestry snaží každého pacienta chránit, někdy nelze plně jejich intimitu zachovat. Nejvíce se pacienti zajímají jeden o druhého a často se sester ptají, s čím tady leží pán nebo paní, proč se nehýbe, proč nadává. Často víc jak jejich vlastní zdravotní stav je zajímavá stav toho druhého. A jak mají sestry šetrně odpovědět na takové otázky, aniž by pacienta nějak urazily. Krom problému s ranní hygienou a neustálých dotazů s čím tady kdo leží se další problém objevuje při vyprazdňování. I když sestry přiznali, že oni by na mísu nedokázali jít nikde, a už vůbec ne, když hned na vedlejší metr vzdálené posteli leží někdo jiný a ještě hůře když je to někdo opačného pohlaví. Myslíme si, že tohle je věc, která není v žádné nemocnici plně vyřešená. A co teprve jednotlivé vyšetřování, v kolika nemocnicích leží pacienti, kteří čekají na vyšetření na jednotlivých chodbách, hodně se zapomíná na pocity pacientů jedoucích na takové vyšetření. Nebo pokud dojde na oddělení akutní příjem, který musí okamžitě na sál, sestry je rychle odkryjí, umývají, holí jim hlavy a přitom na sestry koukají další tři páry zvědavých očí ležících pacientu.

### **Závěrem**

Co dodat na závěr? Myslíme, že je jen na nás jak se k tomuto problému, který se objevuje každý den v našem pracovním životě postavíme. A hlavně je jen a jen na nás to, abychom každému pacientovi zajistily dostatek soukromí, nezabere to moc času a tomu druhému to může zpříjemnit následující pobyt v nemocnici.

[1] Kutnohorská J. 2007. *Etika v ošetrovatelství*, 1 vyd. Praha, Grada

[2] [http://www.mzcr.cz/kvalitaabezpeci/obsah/prava-pacienta\\_2401\\_18.html](http://www.mzcr.cz/kvalitaabezpeci/obsah/prava-pacienta_2401_18.html)

[3] [www.wikipedia.org/wiki/stud](http://www.wikipedia.org/wiki/stud)

# Humanum

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## ***Post-modern society and the potential consequences of globalisation on the young generation***

**Keywords:** *Globalisation. Individualization. Young generation. Youth sub-culture*

### **Summary**

*The phenomenon of globalisation brings new possibilities of manifestations of individualization, which is implemented in the transformation of values, beliefs, attitudes, lifestyles and finding a place in society. The article emphasizes the relationship of youth to society, family, consumerism and manifestation of individualization within the frame of globalization. The effects of globalization and the subsequent individualization are characterized by the positive and negative manifestations (in the creation of youth subcultures and growth of social-pathologies phenomena). Factors such as social services and counseling, family, school, after-school facilities may have its positive impact on creation of a positive value systems and attitudinal orientation of the young generation.*

## **Introduction**

Globalisation can be seen as an ongoing process that precedes the cultural and economic path of vast majority of the world population. Young people generally look for their place in the trajectory of society. Currently, they have almost unlimited opportunities to choose their particular lifestyles and to direct their priority efforts. The situation in globalisation gives them plenty of space to inner fulfillment. Thus also manifestations of advanced individualization can be implemented in socially undesirable areas such as increased crime, various types of addiction, etc. The young, who become the engine of sub-cultural changes and globalisation, play a specific role in those processes from the perspective of a new generation. Globalisation process affects people's lives through culture, emotions, but also via the formation of identity. Young people often get into situations where they are forced to face the process in question and address the issue of their status and integration into society through individualization.

## **Process of globalisation**

Globalisation is one of the most frequent terms now, and we can simply say that it represents a new type of civilization of the third millennium, which is reflected in almost every aspect of life. This concept has had no universal content and thus can be dealt with very flexibly. The present phenomenon not only affects the performance and behaviour of the individual, but society as a whole and accompanies us at every turn. It carries many positive and negative aspects, while the man is indirectly forced to confront them in the real environment.

There are following basic features of globalisation process, described by Ondrejkovič, P. in his book interpreting ideas from Ulrich Beck works [Ondrejkovič, 2009: 116-118]:

- Global expansion of international trade and the emergence of the
- global financialmarket;
- Advances in information and communication technologies;
- The growing power of multinational companies;
- The principles of democracy and claims for the human right
- legislation;
- Multiculturalism;

- Development of international policy, corporations and organisations;
- Addressing issues of a cheap workforce and capital which becomes more expensive;
- Issue of poverty and its solution;
- Global environmental threads;
- Trans-cultural and trans-religion issues.

Kudláčová, B. states that this process occurred as a result of changes that have occurred in the field of informatics, information technology and new possibilities of communication. These changes triggered a real cultural revolution. Options such as communication via email, internet or mobile phones provide an unlimited global communication. The electronic revolution brings with it a number of changes influencing economy of individual states, their social structures and inclusion of all nations into one world [Kudláčová, 2007: 163-164].

Urban L. states that the first theorist of globalisation is Pierre Teilhard de Chardin, who dealt with the vision of planetary unification of mankind. De Chardin argued that automation can contribute to creative thinking of a man and the media can contribute to better mutual understanding. It was a very optimistic concept, which was established on the basis of faith and Christianity [Urban, 2008: 86].

We can say that this process affects the future of every individual to such an extent that he is forced to confront problems in open combat and address the uncertain future.

R. Toth argues that the process of globalisation is the new redistribution of the world, which takes place on the basis of economic goals without exploitation of a territory. It is called the regionalization of the world, thus splitting the world into regions, groups of states and also parts by certain common factors. They can be combined by their common economic level, production, economy, political orientation, religion, common language and common economic boundaries [Toth, 2005: 130].

Globalisation brings many problems of global nature of various kinds and it is not the problem only of the individual, but it becomes a common fate of all the inhabitants of this planet.

Tokárová A. argues that globalization is contradictory and in its course and in its consequences there are negative and positive aspects, which

are interconnected. On the one hand, it accelerates development in areas such as science, politics, culture, economy and on the other hand it brings other types of problems such as global or regional crises, errors or misunderstandings or ecological disasters. Daily at geographically remote sites, new social, technical, medical and other discoveries emerge that contribute to the improvement and enhancement of human life [Tokárová, 2009: 164].

Urban L. considers decomposition of all that is traditional as a consequence of all that is current and individual to be the significant feature nowadays. The main issue of postmodern society becomes question of self-identity and the search for self. It means a design of own individual lifestyle and creation of own luck and destiny.

Postmodernism as a school of thought rejects a uniform and universal conception of the world and replaces it with particularity, individuality and diversity. It seeks to highlight the emotional part of the personality. The role played by a small social group over the last two centuries has changed thanks to the formation of an anonymous mass society. Intimacy, which was characterized by small social groups, was surpassed by the pomp of artificial social units. An individual can respond to this situation in the form of: [Urban, 2008: 170-171]

- a) tightening to oneself and self-realization;
- b) getting into virtual reality and escaping into dreams,
- c) being in highly specialized special interest groups.

This way of life can also lead to extreme individualism and the main point of interest of a man becomes himself. This leads to extreme selfishness, narcissism and indifference.

Ondrejkovič P. argues that youth do not play small role in the process of globalisation and are the bearer of its thoughts. It is inextricably linked with supporting characters such as the emergence of youth subcultures, increase in crime, tourism or global military policy, as soldiers are mostly members of youth [Ondrejkovič, 2009: 118].

Youth is a very difficult subject to changes that are associated with this process as they are trying to find the right lifestyle, place, to form a correct opinion and to confront new situations that arise due to this phenomenon.

In this critical age it is the role of parents in partnership with educators to find the right approach to solving the problems with which young people meet, try to take their work in hobby groups, get them for sport, music, art, etc.

Gluchmanová M. - Gluchman V. draw attention to the fact that in this age the young people tend to ignore the positive examples in the figure of educator or parent more frequently. This age is associated with all that is brash, aggressive, defiant, experience with the first cigarette, tasting alcohol, drugs. Young people are often the interface and look for your new identity in the characters from the television screens of the fashion world, showbiz, helping them to shape the values and behaviour [Gluchmanová, Gluchman, 2009: 190].

The situation in globalisation gives them the possibility to search for their own identity and their own individuality of expression. Youth as a globalisation phenomenon is specific concomitant of this process. At this age, young people are very vulnerable and in need of emotional support from parents. The current modern society is trying to redefine the concept of family.

Kunák S. points out that the current society considers to be modern the issues of a family previously seen as pathological. We conclude that, at present, disappear traditional quality and value of traditional families. Currently there are looser ties between partners. Family is the rendering of some media as an obstacle to achieving happiness, success, self-realization. In Western European countries for the last forty years declines number of marriages, births and divorces and arises growth and increase of families in which only one parent cares for a child. The whole European community (and family) passes from the industrial to post-industrial period [Kunák, 2007: 16-17].

### **A short section of the beginnings of globalisation**

Giddens perceives the process as a "change in space and time." Globalisation is defined in terms of " ... the intensification of worldwide social (underlined PO) relationships, ... through which " ... will link together distant places, so that events in one place become marked by the nature of the events that took place at a distance of many kilometers and vice versa [Giddess 1995: 85], [Ondrejškovič, 2001: 121-122].

Tokárová A. argues that the origins of globalisation are widely expressed until the late 20th century, although signs of a global nature began at the end of 1960s - the years when there grew awareness of the global crisis threat to humanity [Tokárová, 2009: 155].

We can say that the origins of globalisation could be dated back much earlier, since colonization.

S. Hill J. states that the transfer of technology and foreign invasions in international cultures had already taken place hundreds of years and begun by European colonization in the 16<sup>th</sup> century and continued by industrial revolution in the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> century. Modernization of production began to manifest itself in many countries as scientific and technological advances and, consequently, began to increase living standards. The term Americanization has become virtually synonymous with Westernization. Hollywood films began to dominate the world market share in Europe of 70 % and over 50 % in Japan. British music, Italian fashion, French cuisine and culture known as McDonald's and Coca - cola culture have a reputation spreading throughout the world and in many developing countries some European expressions have become legalized [Hill, 2009: 14].

### **Positive and negative aspects of globalisation**

Globalisation in its history and in its consequences carries negative and positive aspects. These overlapping aspects affect our planet.

Tokárová A. states these largely positive consequences and manifestations of globalisation [Tokárová, 2009: 164-168]:

1. independence of individuals and groups from the information sources,
2. rapid dissemination of information without boundaries and limitations,
3. availability of world science, libraries, museums, archives and so on.,
4. education, self-realization, freedom of entrepreneurship,
5. development of multiculturalism and emerging intercultural cooperation and tolerance, 6 exploring the differences in values and ideological philosophy of religions and cultures, etc.



Although this phenomenon affects our lives in many aspects, it cannot be avoided or stopped, regardless of whether globalisation consequences are positive or negative not only for adults but especially for the youth. The highest risk group is mainly young people who are at a much greater tendency to succumb to their negative impact, because young people can be more easily influenced and manipulated.

Ondrejkovič P. notes that the global extension of schooling has the effect of prolonging childhood as well as the youth. In the process of globalisation of the young persons, it concerns notably the individualization of a young man [Ondrejkovič, a kol. 2009: 120].

According to Tokárová A., we consider these negative aspects [Tokárová, a kol. 2009: 164-168]:

- Globalization and especially economic megapolicies of some world or continental institutions absorb national policy promoting global interests and respecting the logic of the market.
- Economic interests take precedence over social principles in such way that. monopolistic position of national corporations allows them to dictate goods and services and also their subcontractors.
- Globalisation also brings a new war of conquest of the territory, and in particular the economic markets of the former socialist countries.
- There is a struggle for new markets, increased demand for raw materials causing environmental consequences.
- Despite the many restrictions, the exploitation of child labour is increasing, although there is an international legal document on the agreement and the Rights of the Child and every year 1 million children get involved in the sex market.
- Another problem is the " brain drain " from economically weaker countries into an economically strong ones, which leads to a massive loss of investment into education there.
- Globalisation is often spread as Americanization of lifestyle, eg. 99% of the films is produced by the U.S.
- Big demoralization impact includes multimedia and communication means, for example. internet as the main source of pornography, erotic but also child pornography, etc..

- A major role is played by the media, and especially television in politics and social life, forming ideology of fictional world - "virtual reality " and this consequently affects and distorts consciousness of recipients.
- It frequently leads to violence in the family and in social intercourse, and one reason is that in the mass media and especially on television programmes and in movies the predominant pattern and model of behaviour is the one of a person with physical force and ruthless self-assertion. The ethical values are being forgotten and selfishness, wealth, and fame come to the foreground in the human behaviour.

Urban L. argues that globalization cannot be seen as a process that cannot be influenced, because this process like culture is a human creation. He believes that every individual and society depends on how it will be construed such as a threat or an opportunity and a challenge. It is a fact and it cannot be ignored [Urban, 2008: 89].

*"The current theory seeks to solve the puzzle, suggested by J. F. Lyotard as a "classic" example of a lifestyle of postmodern era man. A man listens to reggae, watches for western, eats lunch at McDonald's, for dinner he can eat the local specialty, using the Paris Eau de Toilette water in Tokyo and wearing "retro" clothes in Hong Kong."* [Slušná, 2006: 77].

Kunák S. argues that the current youth does not respond to technical progress unilaterally dismissive. Independence and creation of own patterns of life are becoming the trend for the young. Subculture of youth, young fashion, value systems, ways of working and partner communities are developed. Youth falls outside the traditional environment and looks for a place in informal groups [Kunák, 2007: 23].

Globalisation is a phenomenon that unites and divides us, but nevertheless affects our daily lives in every corner of the world.

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## ***Management of Companies in Conditions of Eastern Europe Countries and Russia – Barriers and Challenges***

**Key words:** *activity of enterprises, international market, intercultural management, qualifications, differences in approaches, countries of Eastern Europe and Russia*

### **Summary**

*Forming one of the priority areas of the Czech Republic's strategy is the activity of companies from the Czech Republic on international markets. Not all areas hold the same level of interest for Czech companies doing business internationally. Lately the opinion has prevailed that in their international enterprising, companies should be concentrating more on the markets of Eastern Europe and Russia, which seem to present a significant opportunity for them. One of the major barriers to this activity is mainly the lack of technical expertise of companies. This concerns the lack of knowledge of the local customers relating to real and financial management, corporate culture, conditions for doing business, tax requirements and problems and implementation of business activities. The aim of this article is to define the theoretic basis of the culturological concept of a com-*

*pany, to draw attention to certain basic differences in approaches of countries of Eastern Europe and Russia, which seem to be important for Czech entrepreneurs to realize business contacts. The methodology of the solution is founded on background research of key theoretical sources and practical experience and outputs gained within the framework of international contacts with these countries. The research and conclusions relate to resolution of a project resolved through the program “Human Resources Development” with the priority “Development of Life-long Learning”, the aim of which is to increase qualification of academic and research workers in the area of business management, and to consequently introduce this information into practice. This article was created within the framework of the ESF project entitled “Management in Conditions of the Countries in Eastern Europe and Russia” with identification number CZ.1/4/03/2/3/15.2/0257.*

Barriers to Czech businesses operating internationally mainly include a lack of knowledge and technical background regarding the environment the countries where a business interest exists. This mainly requires the ability to handle conditions of inter-cultural management. **The aim of this article** is to define the theoretical basis of the culturological concept of a company, to draw attention to certain basic differences in approaches of countries of eastern Europe and Russia, which seem to be common for Czech entrepreneurs to realize business contacts. **The methodology of resolution** is founded on background research of key theoretical sources and practical experience and outputs gained within the framework of international contacts with these countries. The research and conclusions relate to resolution of a project resolved through the program “Human Resources Development” with the priority “Development of Life-long Learning”, the aim of which is to increase qualification of academic and research workers in the area of business management, and to consequently introduce this information into practice.

### **Introduction**

Forming one of the priority areas of the Czech Republic’s strategy is the activity of companies of the Czech Republic on international markets. Not all areas hold the same level of interest for Czech companies doing business internationally. Lately the opinion has prevailed that in their

international enterprising, companies should be concentrating more on the markets of Eastern Europe and Russia, which seem to present a significant opportunity for them. One of the major barriers to this activity is mainly the lack of technical expertise of companies. This concerns the lack of knowledge of the local customs relating to practical and financial management, corporate culture, conditions for doing business, tax requirements, and problems and implementation of business activities.

In this article, we aim to define the theoretical basis of the culturological concept of the company. We address certain differentiations of the countries of Eastern Europe and Russia, which stem from their culture, and may directly or indirectly influence the success of business negotiations and transactions. In conclusion, we present results of a two-year project resolved within the framework of the European Structural Fund (ESF), which aimed at increasing knowledge of academicians and explicitly, of business and entrepreneurial subjects in the area of intercultural management.

### **Theoretical bases**

The culturological concept of the company mainly means the specific methods of interaction and communication between people. It refers to the principles, rules and social norms influencing and regulating mutual cohabitation in a certain community. This concept is valid in relation to the enterprise, but will also be valid in relation to the wider surroundings, as well as abroad. Intercultural management in our opinion must start from this concept.

The origin of culture may be given [Nový, 1996].

1. by spontaneous consequence of natural negotiations of company employees, stemming in part from personality and individually differing characteristics of employees, and in part from external rules and conditions influencing their working behavior.

2. as the result of systematic and purposefully oriented activities of managers.

This always concerns three hierarchies of an organized level [Schein, 1989]

- basic life impressions are always individually different, and stem from age, attained work and life experience, technical orientation

and attained level of education, family upbringing, current family background and inborn characteristics of personalities such as talents or temperament,

- the rules of working and social behavior may occur spontaneously as informal social standards, or entirely on purpose, with clear aim or more or less exact characteristics of working positions and roles, forming an internal structure and regulating the internal functioning of the company,
- symbolically, i.e. in briefly defined aims and basic principles, such as logo, company colors, uniforms, rewards, company anniversary celebrations, mutual addressing, stories and anecdotes regarding company events.

There exist plenty of research projects dealing with the differences of individual national cultures. Perhaps the most extensive of these was performed by a Dutch man, Geert Hofstede. Originally an HR director, he attempted to attain cooperation amongst 64 national branches of IBM. Hofstede (1983) describes five dimensions, in which national cultures differ:

- Power Distance Index
- Individualism
- Masculinity
- Uncertainty Avoidance Index
- Long-Term Orientation

From comparing the results, one can see that each of the researched national cultures has a different understanding of values. In practice, this leads to the fact that each national culture will consider as appropriate absolutely differentiating approaches towards other people and towards work tasks. From this viewpoint, national culture is often a significant barrier to cooperation, which would otherwise be very beneficial. We look at how it is possible to handle such cultural differences.

The position and meaning of management has always been bound to the condition and development of social relationships. Managers must be capable of negotiating in varying economic, political and cultural environments. Management isn't limited by national borders. Managers who constantly fail to follow changes in the global environment or in their work, forget about specific characteristics of the environment probably



achieve only very marginal success. They may generally use three possible approaches: ethnocentric, polycentric and geocentric.

The ethnocentric approach is the provincial conviction that the best working procedures are those used in one's own country. Based on this approach, managers are convinced that people abroad do not have the necessary skills and experience to make good decisions. They will not trust employees located abroad in basic decisions or in technology.

The polycentric approach is founded on the opinion that managers in a given country abroad know work procedures necessary for business the best. Managers who apply this approach regard all operations abroad as something different and hard to understand. They therefore let their branches be independent, so that their managers could function to the best of their abilities.

The geocentric approach is given by the fact that managers aim towards using the very best existing approaches, because they believe that it is important to uphold a global view both in company management within a given country, as well as in various branches abroad. The majority of decisions are accepted from a global perspective, the best practice is sought after without regard to its country of origin.

The geocentric type corporate culture [Nový, 1996] represents using specific features of individual national cultures in the interest of a single common culture. This then represents an integrated unified culture, which is not the result of dominance, but of purposeful and effective engagement of all regional components of an international company. The reason is the process of globalization of economic processes and modern trends in the area of management. The meaning of intercultural competence is growing, such as the capability of a worker to handle the demands of work in an international team, and in a different cultural environment.

Misunderstandings occur because people consider their own cultural patterns as being valid anywhere and natural. Every manager must learn to perceive a person from another culture only as simply different, and to not judge his/her values by the manager's own value measures.

Intercultural communication requires handling three basic phases of this social skill:

1. realizing cultural differences,

2. gaining knowledge about another culture
3. personal experience with active communication.

The importance of business, economic, and technical cooperation with those abroad is a fundamental condition for functioning of the Czech economy, upon its limitation in both scope and natural resources. Therefore it is useful to develop foreign trade, which however must rely on intercultural management, including knowledge of communication, internal conditions of partners and their culture.

### **Basic differences in approaches of countries of Eastern Europe and Russia influencing business contact**

As it was already stated in the article, intercultural communication, in its first phases, requires realization of cultural differences, and the gaining of knowledge about another culture. We'll briefly point out the local customs of the countries of Eastern Europe and Russia, which just might play an integral role in business contacts, as entrepreneurs in the Central European environment have learned. Geographically, Eastern Europe encompasses the countries of the Ukraine, the European part of Russia, Belarus and Moldova; also, small parts of Azerbaijan, Georgia, and Kazakhstan extend into Europe. During the Cold War, the European satellite states of the USSR were inaccurately (in terms of geography) called Eastern Europe. The result of this often includes as countries of Eastern Europe even the so-called Baltic states (Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania). In addition, it is possible to also add determination in the ethnic, language and cultural senses, according to which it is possible to consider as Eastern Europe even the areas of Europe where Slavs live (see wikipedia).

#### **Russia**

The culture of business negotiations, mainly in regions, is still a jumbled European-Soviet approach, and in certain locations, it is even a Muslim-Oriental approach. Negotiations, which are often complicated by various bureaucratic limitations, are often difficult ordeals, requiring patience, purpose and selection of a business partner in the region with close contacts to administrative bodies (a certain "insurance" of safe trade and protection from extortion (rackets)). The possibility of concluding an agreement right after the first meeting may be considered as

very unlikely. Of course for the newly arriving generation of businessmen, it is possible to see a return to rationalization, which even appears in the way the business meeting is held. Long-term personal contacts, founded upon mutual trust, significantly decrease the danger of improper practices.

In the business meetings in today's times, we may most frequently get into contact with businessmen, who form the current entrepreneurial sphere, formed mainly from the ranks of entrepreneurs, representative of financial-industrial groups, oil, gas and export companies. It is typical for them to be well-traveled, they have an understanding of the offer and they are no stranger to the Anglo-Saxon negotiating style. For these people, logical and conceptual thinking and a pragmatic approach to resolving the problem prevail. Here, one can also expect formal authority of the delegation leader, and it is necessary to respect the hierarchy of one's Russian counterparts. It is not recommended to develop pressure on the partner, but rather to provide him with time. Agreements drawn up in writing carry heavy weight. Meetings are conducted in Russian (mainly amongst the older generation), whereas for the younger generation, knowledge of two world languages is no exception. The business card has great importance in the business meeting, addressing people using their academic title, as opposed to Central European customs, is used from the level of a doctorate in science and above. It is not possible to underestimate the business partner, since the vast majority of entrepreneurs have university education, experience in management functions, very good knowledge of local conditions, and the capability of thriving therein. Russia is a state with many nationalities with a palette of widely varied cultural, ethnographic, and historical traditions. For these reasons, as well as with regard to the demographic aspect, it is not possible to assess in one lump sum the working habits of the citizens of the RF. Plenty of motivation exists for the new management mainly in the private sector to work many hours overtime (here too we can find workaholics). Interpersonal relationships: In the supervisor-subordinate relationship, stiffly authoritarian rules apply, which of course does not exclude the potential for very informal relations amongst employees, including social celebrations right at the workplace. Superiority is sometimes made apparent even during negotiations with a foreigner, if the partner is

of a lower rung on the company ladder. In public locations, it is often possible to meet with people who have a “watchdog complex” - gate watchers and receptionists, security guards, secretaries, who don't hold much power, but try to make you think they do. Another quirk is the true passion for celebrating holidays of all kinds. The scale of values is analogous with European traditions - one's family, children and health are the most important. In terms of their relationship with nature and the environment, indifference persists. The value of time is understood differently than in Central Europe. This somewhat more benevolent relationship of Russians towards time appears here not only in personal punctuality/tardiness, but also in official situations, such as the working period, office hours or mass transit timetables. But punctuality is expected from European partners, because in Europe it is a part of cultural traditions and business customs. When planning a term of a meeting in large cities, it is therefore necessary to take into account the transportation factor, and plan for a reasonable (around 1 hour) reserve in time.

### **The Ukraine**

The local customs are getting ever closer to normal European standards, especially amongst the younger generations. In other people, certain customs from periods gone by may still live on, so one must expect that a positive interpersonal relationship may be more important than the written word. Also expect a certain level of unreliability - ex. even in terms of punctuality - sometimes with the effort to take advantage of a partner. As far as language goes, certain members of the younger and middle-aged generation have a handle on English, and sometimes with remarkable proficiency. In general of course - and especially outside of the center - it is necessary to speak at least Russian. Knowledge of Ukrainian is best, mainly in the western parts of the country. If we speak Russian here, it's a good idea to excuse ourselves, pointing out that we don't know Ukrainian - then as a rule the hosts switch to Russian without any problems.

## **Belarus**

For a foreigner here, certain formal measures apply that relate to a visit to the territory of Belarus. By law, it is necessary to declare one's visit to the local department of the militia within three working days from crossing over into Belarus. If being accommodated, responsibility for registration with the authorities automatically falls to the subject/person providing accommodations. Upon arriving in one's own car, the foreigner here is required in this country to request the issuance of a Belarusian driver's license if he is to remain in the country for longer than 3 months. Within three months, foreigners need only present an international driver's license, or the driver's license of the appurtenant country, which however must correspond to the Vienna Convention of 1968 on Road Traffic. Foreigners arriving here temporarily are required within 7 days to register at the passport and visa services office (OVIR) of the district police office. In the event of a stay for shorter than three days, whether it be working days or working holidays, and one leaves Belarus in the precisely defined term, registration is not required. Registration of a foreigner to stay within 90 days is subject to a fee, whose amount depends on the decision of the City Executive Committee. Specific rules also apply in the exchange of currency and the regime of import and export of funds. One of the local customs that stands in contrast to some republics of the former USSR is the rather stringent upholding of times for gatherings and meetings; a maximum of five minutes is acceptable without having to excuse oneself. During introductions, it is appropriate to present the partner with a business card in either Belarusian or Russian, but English business cards don't represent any barrier. When addressing them, it is common to use the first name and the name of the father (patronymic name) „otčestvo”. For Czech businessmen, a rather uncommon thing may occur, where Belarusians begin using the familiar form of address already at the first meeting. During meetings, the younger generation negotiates in a fully European manner. In the vast majority of cases, Russian is the language used for negotiating and communicating. Upon previous explicit agreement with the partner, it is possible to communicate in either English or German. We recommend carefully verifying the data on the partner and the company, if it doesn't concern a previous

long-term contact. The local market is rife with enthusiastic people wanting to strike “big deals”, but do not have the necessary financial or other material conditions, and they feel that the foreign partner will be bringing all that along with him. Many don’t have the basic economic knowledge, and they haven’t properly justified their projects economically. They best establish personal contacts sitting at the table during informal negotiations. Working lunches normally lasting about two hours usually begin around 1:00 p.m. - 3:00 p.m., with a working dinner usually beginning at 7:00 p.m. The course of consumption is accompanied by regular toasts, it is expected from hosts to give a toast to perspective cooperation, to the partner, his wife and family. Toasts are seldom brief and are always a demonstration of one’s gift of eloquent speech. A simple Czech “here’s to health” could be considered insincere. Everyone drinks at the command to so do, and it is most frequently local high-quality vodka. It is not out of the ordinary that after a certain period of cooperation, the business partner is invited to visit the Belarusian’s cottage and their sauna. This environment often hosts some of the largest business deals. Often guests are presented with small gifts (vodka, publications, folk souvenirs, etc.). Prior to traveling, it is necessary to expect this and also bring several gifts along. Favorites include Becherovka, Czech beer, ground glass pieces, jewelry, etc.

### **Kazakhstan**

Like in the majority of eastern countries, in Kazakhstan, business also has a certain social level of its own (it is the first prerequisite for success). It is necessary to expect that you won’t get by without personal contact with a potential partner. Likewise, business meetings especially in Kazakhstan are accompanied by various, often long-lasting and hearty lunches or dinners with plenty of toasts. Not the least of which, it is necessary to speak good Russian, because in Kazakhstan, knowledge of languages is rather weak. One can’t expect business success by sending out a lot of emails in English with links to WebPages. Another important moment is that the company in Kazakhstan is relatively patriarchal, and mainly the first contacts on a personal level should include men rather than women. It also isn’t good to underestimate one’s potential partners. Perhaps they just don’t know English that well, and aren’t capable of holding deep theoretical discussions about international business. But

what they do have is very good knowledge in the way things run in their local environment, and they know how to quickly ascertain information thanks to contacts with their relatives, friends and acquaintances. It is also necessary to respect the fact that Kazakhstan, although it may appear upon first glance not to differ much from Europe in its customs, is an eastern country with a strongly oriental way of thinking. This concerns accuracy, the capacity for upholding oral and written agreements, unreliability, the incapacity for empathizing with the partner's problems, etc. Other examples include the lack of upholding traffic regulations and irrational aggressiveness not only in transportation but in interpersonal relationships. Oftentimes, polite behavior is regarded as weakness. One must also consider their very strong family ties.

### **Georgia**

A characteristic of the local environment is mainly the fact that it is important to verify data regarding the partner and the company, since here, just like everywhere else, various "hustlers" operate. Still other businessmen don't have the necessary financial or other means, and assume that this will be provided by the foreign partners. Not all of them have the necessary knowledge of economics. Therefore, for doing business in Georgia, it is good to have a capable and trustworthy point of contact or an agent (broker) for finding good local partners and for gaining an understanding of Georgian culture. This is important for doing business here, and it is a good idea to know one's partners on a personal level. A visit to Georgia is very important, especially in the case of a planned signing of an agreement. Communication and marketing are a work in progress. When communicating, Georgians often use the form of address "Mr./Mrs. + first name", for persons whom they don't know personally, over the phone for instance, even with persons holding senior positions. The Georgians are a nation of great hospitality. They love food and cooking, and despite economic problems, they uphold the tradition of sitting down together at the dinner table. Aside from other benefits, this strengthens relations with family, friends and partners – invitations to restaurants, or possible to the business partner's home should not come as a surprise. Of course in regards to the fact that a part of sitting down together includes quite a bit of drinking, it is necessary to bewa-

re, as the locals are capable of drinking impressive amounts without even appearing drunk. Drinking alcohol (wine, cognac or vodka) is accompanied by toasts, which are clever, long, and depend on the fantasy and art of speaking of the one presenting them. If the group around the table exceeds 2-3, one of them is the so-called tamada, who “moderates” the table, i.e. the person to make the toasts and who may delegate other to do so. Georgians highly appreciate when a foreigner is capable of giving a well thought-out toast (not just a simple “here’s to health”). Guests often receive gifts, normally local wine, and it is therefore appropriate to expect this. Traditionally, the favorite Czech articles known already from the Soviet era are cut glass, jewelry and beer. During personal contact with Georgians, it is often surprising to learn how much information mainly the older generation knows about the Czech Republic, or Czechoslovakia. Thanks to relations during the existence of the USSR, many of them came to the CSSR as tourists, on working visits. Still others served here as soldiers or airmen in the Soviet armed forces, etc. It is therefore a good idea to familiarize oneself about general information on Georgia.

### **Moldova**

Moldovans are mostly very warm and open; it is possible to run into a colder, unpleasantly businesslike approach when dealing with official bodies or police units. Personal contact is recommended in business. Local businessmen are used to work meetings or at least their culmination at a richly laid table (Moldova is known for its wine and brandy). The foreigner coming to this country should keep in mind that Moldova is a young and independent country, and in many areas objectively poorer or less developed. Nevertheless, they defend their independence robustly, and are highly sensitive to any gesture of power or the like. Mainly in the area of Podněstří, expect a strong Russian influence. Moldova is more or less bilingual, but in certain regions, Moldovan is strongly preferred (Rumanian with small deviations and pronounced more softly). In other places, Russian may dominate.

### **Estonia**

In case nobody in the delegation can speak Estonian, it is appropriate to begin the business meeting in English. Later it is possible to switch to



Russian, especially with the Russian-speaking citizens of Estonia, or with the older generation of Estonians.. The use of Russian at the beginning of the meeting could bring about an unpleasant atmosphere. The Czech entrepreneur should be well prepared and conduct himself assertively. Estonians prefer a direct, matter-of-fact and pragmatic approach. It is recommended to present the qualities of the offered goods the represented company without the slightest hint of doubt. Estonian officials are known for their adherence to the letter of the law, and unwillingness to improvise. One problem sometimes is their critical attitude towards their own capabilities.

### **Latvia**

Aside from the entire month of August, when nearly the entire country of Latvia goes on holiday, business can be conducted throughout the year except for the state holidays that Latvians celebrate. It is a custom to address people with their first names practically immediately from the first moment of initiating contact; titles are rarely used. Latvians in general are used to going to sleep late, waking up later in the morning, and eating lunch around 2:00 p.m. A big advantage is usually to find a business partner with contacts to state or local administrative bodies. It is necessary to expect persisting bureaucratic limitations and customs. Much more frequently than in the CR, flowers are given (even to men), and they are presented as a rule during visits. Women in Latvian society have a visibly higher position than in the CR, including at the highest political posts. A small delay is more the rule than the exception, and is obviously usually tolerated by the other party (traffic jams in the capital city of Riga); despite this, we recommend arriving at the meeting on time.

### **Lithuania**

It is necessary to uphold the exact time of the meeting. It is recommended to wear formal clothing that is conservative and dark in color. A gift even during the first meeting is no problem. Regular use of one's first name doesn't signify familiarity and friendship, but rather a custom in business circles even because Lithuanian last names are hard for foreigners to remember. A big car, luxurious watch and staying in an expensive hotel are not considered to be ways of throwing away mo-

ney; rather, they add prestige. But they are not necessary. Negotiations on price and terms of delivery are stubborn, as sales margins are higher than in Western Europe. The generally good relationship with the CR also appears in the area of business.

### **Discussion**

From the aspect of evaluating basic information about the countries falling into the monitored territory, we can state that this information varies greatly in terms of both its completeness and its material content. Information is even rather scant regarding some countries such as Azerbaijan. From the viewpoint of possible opportunities for Czech subjects, other interesting countries include so-called northern Europe (the Baltic states: Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania). During the Cold War, the European satellite states of the USSR were inaccurately (in terms of geography) called Eastern Europe. That is the reason that these countries are often included as countries of Eastern Europe, although this isn't geographically entirely the case. Learning the local customs related to practical and financial management, company culture, conditions for doing business, tax requirement and problems and implementation of business activities form an area, which was resolved by the project at the Business and Management Faculty of the Technical University in Brno under the heading Management in Conditions of Eastern Europe and Russia with the identification number CZ.1/4/03/2/3/15.2/0257. Its global aim was to increase qualification of academic and research workers in the area of managing enterprises, which have decided to operate on the markets of Eastern Europe and the European part of the Russian Federation, and to subsequently transfer this information into practice.

### **Research**

Within the framework of the project, research was performed on the educational needs of the members of the target group. Managers of businesses in the South Moravian Region engaged in the research. The main typological constant for selecting addressed members of the target group was the interest in internationalizing their enterprises towards the east. For the actual research inquiry, the methods of questionnaire examination and controlled interviews were employed. Mainly examined were the motives of the companies for engaging in internationalization activities

eastward, the type and form of knowledge, which would make their activities easier for mutual sharing of experiences in the future.

### **Conclusions**

The results of the project are followed by the fulfillment of the following partial aims:

A) assessment of practical and financial management, corporate culture, conditions for doing business, tax issues and commercial activities, including differences with businesses in the CR.

B) preparation of perspective academic and scientific workers (ambitious students and doctoral study program graduates), who will subsequently transfer the information and knowledge gained into development of more fitting subjects for study programs, into development of theoretical and scientific findings in the given area, and into the everyday practice of the region's businesses.

C) creation of specialized education programs for preparing business managers to increase their ability to compete.

D) education of interested parties in further study of practical and financial management of companies, corporate culture, conditions for doing business, tax issues and business activities.

Also supporting the need for education in the area of managing companies aimed at the countries of Eastern Europe and Russia was the meeting with representatives of the University of Applied Sciences in Stayer (Austria). It explored the possibilities of cooperating in the area of educational programs aimed at internationalization and intercultural management. The university is preparing an MBA program that should be realized by the form Joint Degree. The aim of the program should be oriented towards just this area of doing business in the countries of Eastern Europe, of the Former Soviet Union and in Russia. Touched on briefly were the possibilities of future incorporation of courses formed within the framework of the ESF project into the offer of this program.

A wealth of valuable information has already been gained from representatives of authorities and representatives from the entrepreneurial sphere.

Also formed was a framework of territorial analyses, which will be the core information source for creating courses. This framework is an outli-

ne, which is gradually filled in by members of the project team in individual areas of interest.

The issue is thematically divided into five categories:

- a) practical and financial management;
- b) company culture, habits and practice;
- c) legislative-legal conditions for doing business;
- d) tax issues;
- e) business activities and conditions.

In terms of territory, it is expected that the main subject of interest is formed by the countries of Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, the Ukraine, Russia and Azerbaijan. One of the aims that are gradually added is the determination of the difference of regional, national and supranational importance. The project is realized based on the aim listed in the project request. Based on information gained when resolving the project, and also thanks to the recommendations of foreign experts, a Webpage was created on the project presentation Website ([management.esf-fp.cz](http://management.esf-fp.cz)) with links to an entire series of Internet source dealing with the issue at hand. Currently, a new version is ready, which will be arranged in a matrix organized by both country and by individual categories of interest. By doing so, the project team is reacting to one of the most frequent requests of involved representatives of the target group upon examining their needs.

The project is beneficial in its aim, it is contemporary, and will have specific outputs. The selected countries are amongst those nations, which in our opinion are important for our economic development towards further economic and business cooperation.

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## ***Planning volunteering in non profit organizations***

**Key words:** *volunteer, planning, learning, communication, time manažent, organization, evaluation*

### **Summary**

*Every non-profit organization working with volunteers should have a clearly defined strategic and operational planning volunteering. Importance, the role and status of volunteers is a key moment in the future direction of non-profit organizations. A significant role is also played by systematic work and training of volunteers. Training of volunteers is an investment for further development and direction of economic, marketing, personnel and project area. Volunteering requires to know the basics of planning, communication, time management, organization and evaluation of the individual activities.*

### **Plánovanie dobrovoľníckej činnosti v neziskových organizáciách**

Človek prechádza v každom období svojho života výraznými zmenami. Tieto zmeny, rôzne životné situácie a postoje, ovplyvňujú a menia názory človeka. V tomto čase sa do popredia dostáva dobrovoľníctvo

a dobrovoľnícka činnosť, ktoré sú novým fenoménom v sociálnej oblasti. „Ľudstvo v súčasnosti prežíva nové obdobie svojich dejín, vyznačujúce sa prenikavými a náhlymi zmenami, ktoré sa postupne šíria po celom svete. Tieto zmeny vyvoláva človek, jeho um a tvorivá činnosť, avšak aj ony spätne ovplyvňujú samého človeka, jeho osobné i kolektívne úsudky a túžby, jeho spôsob myslenia a konania vo vzťahu k veciam i ľuďom. Možno treba hovoriť o skutočnej sociálnej a kultúrnej premene, ktorá sa odráža v náboženskom živote“ [Gaudium Et Spes, 1965] Súčasťou tejto sociálnej a kultúrnej premeny je aj znovuobjavenie dobrovoľníctva a dobrovoľníckej činnosti. Dobrovoľníctvo a dobrovoľnícka činnosť má svoj pôvod a svoje korene v kresťanstve [Woods, 2005: 135].

„Dobrovoľníctvo je jav, ktorý je prítomný v našej spoločnosti od nepamäti. Jeho význam aj podoby sa v rôznych dobách menili. Vždy však tvorilo dôležitú súčasť života a rozvoja spoločnosti“ [Brozmanová, 4] Dobrovoľníctvo prechádzalo viacerými etapami a vývojom, ktoré bolo spojené s neľahkým úsilím poskytnúť pomoc bližnému, zabezpečiť aspoň základnú sociálnu spravodlivosť, pomôcť ľuďom postihnutým živelnými pohromami či inými krízovými situáciami a podobne.

Práve dobrovoľníctvo a dobrovoľnícka činnosť je prevažne tvorivá a nielen, že ovplyvňuje človeka samého, ale ovplyvňuje aj všetky zainteresované strany. „Dobrovoľníctvo je multidimenzionálny jav. V teoretickej rovine je predmetom skúmania viacerých vedných disciplín, v praktickej rovine sa týka pôsobenia viacerých profesií“ [Brozmanová, 2011: 11]. Dobrovoľníctvo a dobrovoľnícka činnosť na Slovensku je definovaná v zákone č. 406/2011 Z. z. o dobrovoľníctve a doplnení niektorých zákonov. Tento zákon tvorí podklad pre strategické a operatívne plánovanie dobrovoľníckej činnosti.

### **Dobrovoľník a dobrovoľnícka činnosť**

Dobrovoľník je človek, ktorý sa slobodne rozhodol vykonávať činnosti v prospech spoločnosti, komunity alebo nejakej organizácie vo svojom voľnom čase bez nároku na odmenu s využitím všetkých svojich vedomostí, schopností a zručností.

„Dobrovoľník je človek, ktorý bez nároku na finančnú odmenu (niekedy za úhradu nákladov) sporadicky alebo pravidelne poskytuje svoj čas, energiu, vedomosti a zručnosti v prospech ostatných ľudí a spoločnosti



bez toho, aby to bol povinný robiť na náklade príbuzenských vzťahov alebo profesionálnej činnosti“ [Matulayová, 2012: 13].

Dobrovoľníkom podľa zákona číslo 406/2011 o dobrovoľníctve je „fyzická osoba, ktorá na základe svojho slobodného rozhodnutia vo svojom voľnom čase bez nároku na odmenu poskytuje inej osobe s jej súhlasom v jej prospech alebo vo verejný prospech dobrovoľnícku činnosť založenú na svojej schopnosti, zručnosti alebo vedomosti a spĺňa podmienky ustanovené týmto zákonom, ak dobrovoľnícku činnosť

a) vykonáva mimo svojich pracovných povinností, služobných povinností a študijných povinností vyplývajúcich jej zo zákona, z pracovnej zmluvy, zo služobnej zmluvy, zo študijného poriadku alebo z iného obdobného pre neho záväzného dokumentu,

b) nevykonáva pre orgán alebo funkcionára právnickej osoby, ktorej je členom, zamestnancom, žiakom alebo študentom,

c) vykonáva mimo svojho podnikania alebo inej samostatnej zárobkovej činnosti“ [*Zákon číslo 406/2011 o dobrovoľníctve a o zmene a doplnení niektorých zákonov*].

V zákone je vymedzené poskytovanie dobrovoľníckej činnosti dobrovoľníkom na základe zmluvy o dobrovoľníckej činnosti, ktorá musí byť uzatvorená „s osobou so sídlom alebo pobytom na území Slovenskej republiky, pre ktorú vykonáva dobrovoľnícku činnosť (ďalej len „prijímateľ dobrovoľníckej činnosti“), alebo s právnickou osobou so sídlom na území Slovenskej republiky, ktorá organizuje alebo sprostredkúva dobrovoľnícku činnosť pre inú osobu s jej súhlasom v jej prospech alebo vo verejný prospech (ďalej len „vysielajúca organizácia“) alebo ak vykonáva dobrovoľnícku činnosť ako člen vysielajúcej organizácie“ [*Zákon číslo 406/2011 o dobrovoľníctve a o zmene a doplnení niektorých zákonov*].

Je veľa činností, ktoré môže dobrovoľník vykonávať. Dobrovoľnícke činnosti závisia od veku dobrovoľníka, od jeho schopností, daností, skúseností, ale ja príležitosti. Dobrovoľnícka činnosť, ktorú vykonáva dobrovoľník je najmä určená:

a) „osobám so zdravotným postihnutím, cudzincom a osoby bez štátnej príslušnosti, osoby počas výkonu trestu odňatia slobody alebo ochrannej výchovy a po prepustení z výkonu trestu odňatia slobody a z výkonu ochrannej výchovy, drogovu a inak závislé osoby, nezaopatrované deti, osoby odkázané na starostlivosť iných osôb, seniorov, osoby trpiace domácim násilím a nezamestnané osoby alebo pri poskytovaní

verejnoprospešných činností a ďalších činností v oblasti sociálnych vecí a zdravotníctva,

b) v neformálnom vzdelávaní v práci s mládežou a v špecializovaných činnostiach v oblasti práce s mládežou,

c) pri odstraňovaní následkov prírodných katastrof, ekologických katastrof, pri humanitárnej pomoci, záchrane života a zdravia, v civilnej ochrane, ochrane pred požiarmi a pri uskutočňovaní rozvojových programov v rámci projektov domácich, zahraničných a medzinárodných organizácií,

d) pri tvorbe, ochrane, udržiavaní alebo zlepšovaní životného prostredia, pri starostlivosti o ochranu a zachovanie kultúrneho dedičstva a pri organizovaní kultúrnych, športových, telovýchovných, charitatívnych, vzdelávacích a osvetových podujatí,

e) pri odstraňovaní foriem sociálneho a ekonomického znevýhodnenia a znevýhodnenia vyplývajúceho z dôvodu veku a zdravotného postihnutia, ktorého cieľom je zabezpečiť rovnosť príležitostí v praxi podľa osobitného zákona,

f) pri začlenení osôb žijúcich v sociálne vylúčenom spoločenstve do spoločnosti, najmä pri odstraňovaní všetkých foriem znevýhodnenia,

g) pri administratívnych prácach pre verejnú správu“ [*Zákon číslo 406/2011 o dobrovoľníctve a o zmene a doplnení niektorých zákonov*].

„Dobrovoľníctvo zahŕňa formálne (alebo tiež organizované, manažované) a neformálne (neorganizované, nemanadžované) dobrovoľnícke aktivity. Formálne dobrovoľníctvo sa vzťahuje na dobrovoľnícke aktivity vykonávané v rámci alebo prostredníctvom rôznorodých organizácií. Neformálne dobrovoľníctvo je vnímané ako priama pomoc poskytovaná jednotlivcom mimo rodinu a ľuďom žijúcim v domácnosti dobrovoľníka či dobrovoľníčky“ [Brozmanová, 2012: 6].

Dobrovoľník, podľa zákona o dobrovoľníctve, môže vykonávať dobrovoľnícku činnosť, ak dovŕšil vek najmenej 15 rokov. V prípade, že ide o dobrovoľníka od 15 do 18 rokov, je potrebný súhlas zákonného zástupcu, napr. rodiča, poručníka [*Zákon číslo 406/2011 o dobrovoľníctve a o zmene a doplnení niektorých zákonov*]. V prípade, že ide o dobrovoľníka, ktorý nie je štátnym občanom Slovenskej republiky, môže vykonávať dobrovoľnícku činnosť, ak splní zákonom stanovené predpisy. Za dobrovoľnícku činnosť podľa zákona o dobrovoľníctve, ne-

možno považovať takú, ktorá [Zákon číslo 406/2011 o dobrovoľníctve a o zmene a doplnení niektorých zákonov].

- a) je činnosťou medzi manželmi alebo medzi blízkymi osobami,
- b) je vykonávaná v rámci podnikania alebo inej zárobkovej činnosti,
- c) je to činnosť vykonávaná v pracovnoprávnom vzťahu, v štátnozamestnaneckom pomere, služobnom pomere, členskom pomere alebo činnosť vykonávaná v rámci študijných povinností,
- d) je vzájomnou občianskou alebo susedskou výpomocou,
- e) činnosť vykonávané osobami, ktoré nedovърšili 15 rokov.

### **Plánovanie dobrovoľníckej činnosti**

Plánovanie je systematický rozvoj cielených programových činností na dosiahnutie cieľov neziskovej organizácie založených na analyzovaní, vyhodnocovaní a triedení predvídaných príležitostí [Gozora, 200: 45].

Plánovanie samo o sebe neeliminuje vznik rizika, ale môže významne pomôcť vedeniu neziskovej organizácie pripravovať sa, odhaľovať a eliminovať všetky druhy problémových situácií pred ich vznikom. Plánovanie so sebou prináša výhody i nevýhody. Medzi výhody patrí predvídanie rizika a eliminovanie jeho nepriaznivých dopadov; minimalizovanie nepriaznivých dopadov rizík, príprava na vznik rizikovej situácie a podobne. Medzi nevýhody patrí neúspešné naplánovanie eliminácie rizika, strata manažérskeho času zaoberajúceho sa nesprávnym rizikom, strata času pri plánovaní, organizovaní, ovplyvňovaní a kontrolovaní správania sa rizika a podobne.

Stupne v plánovacom procese [Gozora, 2000: 46]:

1. stanovenie cieľov organizácie,
2. vypracovanie zoznamu alternatívnych možností na dosiahnutie stanovených cieľov,
3. rozvíjanie úsudkov, na ktorých je založená každá alternatíva,
4. výber najlepšej alternatívy,
5. rozvíjanie plánov na sledovanie vybranej alternatívy,
6. uskutočňovanie plánov.

Plánovanie dobrovoľníckej činnosti a dobrovoľníkov v neziskových organizáciách je veľmi dôležité z dôvodu zabezpečenia poskytovania pravidelnej a systematickej dobrovoľníckej činnosti. Plánovanie môže byť strategické a operatívne. Strategické plánovanie je dlhodobé plánovanie na najbližších 5 až 10 rokov. Obsahuje základné smerovanie a zámery orga-

nizácie, hlavné činnosti organizácie a ťažiská a priority pre dlhodobý rozvoj organizácie. Strategické plánovanie sa uskutočňuje na základe prechádzajúcich analýz a vychádza zo skúsenosti, poznatkov a podkladov z operatívneho plánovania za predchádzajúce obdobie. Zároveň toto dlhodobé plánovanie je základom pre riadenie manažmentu neziskovej organizácie, má dôverných charakter a je schválený členmi neziskovej organizácie.

Operatívne plánovanie je krátkodobým plánovaním od 3 do 5 rokov. V operatívnom plánovaní sa stanovujú konkrétne postupy a prostriedky realizácie jednotlivých činností až na najnižšiu úroveň. Operatívne plánovanie vychádza zo strategického plánovania a jeho úlohou je čiastkovými úlohami naplňať stratégiu neziskovej organizácie. Každá nezisková organizácia pracujúca s dobrovoľníkmi má mať jasne zadefinované strategické a operatívne plánovanie dobrovoľníckej činnosti, nakoľko dobrovoľnícka činnosť si vyžaduje prípravu, vzdelávanie, činnosť i spätnú väzbu dobrovoľníkov.

V praxi sa často stáva, že pri nedostatočnom strategickom a operatívnom plánovaní, dochádza k vypätým situáciám medzi dobrovoľníkmi. Tieto vznikajú v prvom rade pri nedostatočnej komunikácii a nejasne stanovených cieľov a pravidiel poskytovania dobrovoľníckej činnosti, ako aj etického kódexu dobrovoľníka. Pri aktivitách je potrebné mať vypracované dokumenty, metodiku a odporúčania práce s dobrovoľníkmi v jednotlivých neziskových organizáciách zohľadňujúcich špecifickosť vykonávania dobrovoľníckej činnosti.

Dobrovoľníci by mali byť oboznámení:

1. so základným poslaním, smerovaním a plánmi organizácie,
2. s požiadavkami, nárokmi a fyzickými predpokladmi na poskytovanú dobrovoľnícku činnosť,
3. s etickým kódexom dobrovoľníka,
4. s plánom poskytovania dobrovoľníckej činnosti na určité obdobie,
5. s koordinátorom dobrovoľníckej činnosti a jeho kontaktnými údajmi,
6. s možnosťou a spôsobom podania spätnej väzby.

Organizácia by mala zabezpečiť:

1. včasné, presné, jasné a dostupné dokumenty a informácie pre dobrovoľníkov,

2. naplánovať, osloviť a zabezpečiť dostatok dobrovoľníkov na jednotlivé aktivity,
3. zabezpečiť materiály a služby potrebné pre výkon dobrovoľníckej činnosti,
4. zabezpečiť pravidelné vzdelávanie dobrovoľníkov,
5. koordinátora pre dobrovoľnícku činnosť s kontaktnými údajmi,
6. možnosť podať spätnú väzbu zo strany dobrovoľníkov.

### **Vzdelávanie dobrovoľníkov**

Vzdelávanie dobrovoľníkov by malo patriť medzi základné priority neziskových organizácií. Je to dôležitá investícia zabezpečujúca dostatočné vedomosti a kvalitnú prípravu dobrovoľníkov pre výkon dobrovoľníckej činnosti. Vzdelávanie dobrovoľníkov je systematická a pravidelná činnosť zameraná na zabezpečovanie zvyšovania informovanosti a schopnosti dobrovoľníkov v rôznych oblastiach napomáhajúcich ich osobný i profesionálny rozvoj.

Oblasti vzdelávania dobrovoľníkov:

1. ekonomika,
2. marketing,
3. personalistika,
4. projektová činnosť,
5. špecifické oblasti.

V ekonomickej oblasti ide predovšetkým o informácie týkajúce sa základných pojmov; zostavenia rozpočtu pre jednotlivé aktivity a činnosti; nadobudnutie informácií o základných dokladoch, s ktorými dobrovoľník prichádza do kontaktu pri vykonávaní dobrovoľníckej činnosti (prevzatie výdajky, faktúry, dodacieho listu, objednávky, náležitosti dokladu z registračnej pokladne atď.) a podobne.

V marketingovej oblasti sú vzdelávacie aktivity zamerané predovšetkým na možnosti propagácie a reklamy pre aktivity a činnosti neziskových organizácií; tvorbu letákov, plagátov...; možnosti reklamy v médiách; komunikácia s klientmi a podobne.

Vzdelávacie aktivity z personálnej oblasti sa týkajú hlavne komunikácie, manažmentu času, osobného rozvoja, tímovej spolupráce, plánovania a stanovovania si cieľov, asertívneho správania atď.

V projektovej oblasti ide vzdelávanie zamerané na základné pojmy, písanie projektov, zostavovanie projektového tímu, vzdelávanie sa

v oblasti projektových metod, hľadanie projektových výziev, zostavovanie projektového rozpočtu a podobne.

Vzdelávanie v kategórii špecifickej oblasti nie je konkretizované, nakoľko ide o oblasti so zameraním podľa činnosti jednotlivých neziskových organizácií. Môže ísť o školenia v oblasti zdravotníctva, životného prostredia, kultúry, športu a podobne, kde sa vykonáva dobrovoľnícka činnosť.

### **Plánovanie**

V súvislosti s plánovaním je dobré poznať PDCA – Plan, Do, Check and Act (Plán, Realizácia, Kontrola, Akcia). Plán je „stanovenie cieľov pre zmeny, ktoré budú prevedené a zavedenie metód, ktorými sa tieto zmeny uskutočnia. Realizácia je implementovanie zmien, ktoré sa sformulovali v predchádzajúcej fáze. Ďalej sa sústreďí pozornosť na výsledky a uskutočnia sa potrebné školenia” [Karlöf, Lövingsson, 2005: 159]. Kontrola znamená ohodnotenie miery a implementácie práce a analyzovanie výsledkov. Podanie správy manažérom. Akcia znamená uskutočnenie činností týkajúce sa toho, čo bolo zistené a následne je potrebné sa vrátiť k plánovacej fáze [Karlöf, Lövingsson, 159]. V neziskových organizáciách sa často rozpráva o plánovaní, ktoré sa začína zavádzať. Je to z toho dôvodu, že mnohé neziskové organizácie sa nedostatočne sústreďia na konkrétnu poskytovanú činnosť, ale nesystematicky vykonávajú také činnosti, ktoré sú finančne pokryté bez ohľadu na strategické plánovanie. Ďalším extrémom v plánovaní je neustále plánovanie, bez akejkoľvek akcie. „Skutočná pomoc je iba tá v správnom čase, všetko ostatné sú iba prázdne gestá“ [Košturiak, 2010: 83]. Z tohto dôvodu plánovanie musí byť realistické a je potrebné, aby bola zabezpečená realizácia stanovených plánov. V takom prípade bude dobrovoľnícka činnosť efektívna a poskytnutá v správnom čase, na správnom mieste, správnym ľuďom.

### **Komunikácia**

Komunikácia je veľmi dôležitý prostriedok odovzdávania informácií medzi zainteresovanými stranami. Komunikácia zvyšuje záväzok a upevňuje vzájomné spojenie (medzi vedením organizácie a dobrovoľníkmi, medzi dobrovoľníkmi navzájom a podobne), čo následne vyvoláva akciu a ľudia pracujú na vysokej úrovni. Musia však byť schopní spolu hovoriť a počúvať jeden druhého [Maxwell, 2001: 202].

„Otvorený dialóg sa stáva procesom, v ktorom sa subjektívny pohľad môže doplniť a viac umocniť v objektivite. Samozrejme, môže sa ukázať aj ako nepravdivý“ [Stolárik, 2007: 113].

Komunikácia má prebiehať v týchto oblastiach:

1. medzi manažmentom a dobrovoľníkmi,
2. od koordinátora k dobrovoľníkom,
3. od dobrovoľníkov ku koordinátorovi,
4. medzi dobrovoľníkmi,
5. medzi dobrovoľníkmi a klientmi,
6. medzi dobrovoľníkmi a verejnosťou.

„Držíme sa prastarej zásady, bez diskusie, dialógu, nemôžeme sa posunúť dopredu, nemôže nastať pokrok“ [Stolárik, 2009: 233]. Správna komunikácia je dôležitým faktorom úspechu, efektívneho plánovania a riadenia dobrovoľníckej činnosti.

### **Time management**

Dobrovoľnícka činnosť je závislá od rozhodnutia dobrovoľníka investovať do vykonávania dobrovoľníckej činnosti vo svojom voľnom čase. Je to investícia spojená s rizikom nižšej návratnosti, prípadne nedostatočnej spokojnosti dobrovoľníka. „Naše chápanie času je výsledkom dlhého vývoja tvorenia pojmov. Značný počet stvorenstva má chápanie plynutia času. Každé spoločenstvo vypracovalo spôsob označovania a merania času – podelené na dni, noci, časti roka i roky“ [Stolárik, 2009: 214].

Time manažment pozostáva:

1. systémovej organizácie času,
2. vnútorných modeloch,
3. zdieľaniu vízií,
4. tímovému učeniu sa,
5. eliminovaniu zlodejov času,
6. zadefinovaniu spoločných postupov v stanovenom čase.

„Čas plynie, a človek ho márne doháňa. Keď však dokážeme žiť naplno prítomný okamih, prestáva byť čas našim nepriateľom a darí sa nám nachádzať v ňom samých seba“ [Grűn, 2005: 31]. Zároveň investícia v podobe času venovanému poskytovaniu svojich schopností, zručností,

talentov a času na zmierňovanie nepriaznivých sociálnych dopadov, začína byť veľkým individuálnym prínosom pre človeka.

### **Organizovanie**

Organizovanie možno charakterizovať ako činnosť zloženú z koordinácie aktivít, rozdelenia pracovných úloh a zostavenia hierarchickej štruktúry činnosti na základe spoločných cieľoch konkrétnej skupiny ľudí.

„Organizovanie možno chápať ako proces tvorby a usporiadania prvkov určitého objektu a vzťahov medzi nimi v čase, priestore a kapacite s cieľom dosiahnuť maximálny efekt pri plnení úloh“ [Gozora, 2000: 92].

Organizovanie môže byť centralizované a decentralizované. Centralizované organizovanie je riadené z centra alebo sídla neziskovej organizácie, za ktoré preberá zodpovednosť manažment neziskovej organizácie. Decentralizované organizovanie sa uskutočňuje povereným pracovníkom mimo sídla organizácie, má svoju vlastnú štruktúru, jasne definovanú právomoc a zodpovednosť.

Hlavné kroky organizačného procesu [Gozora, 2000: 93]:

1. reflektovanie na ciele a plány,
2. stanovenie hlavných úloh na realizáciu plánu,
3. výber hlavných úloh podľa dôležitosti a určenie podúloh,
4. umiestňovanie zdrojov pre ďalšie úlohy,
5. vyhodnotenie výsledkov postupu,
6. zapracovanie výsledkov do ďalšieho plánovacieho obdobia.

### **Hodnotenie**

Proces hodnotenia je potrebné naplánovať už počas plánovania, kde sa stanovujú presné parametre hodnotiaceho procesu. To znamená, že v plánovacej fáze sa presne zadefinuje čo, ako, akým spôsobom a kde sa bude hodnotiť.

Táto činnosť obsahuje odpovede na otázky: Čo je potrebné hodnotiť? Ako bude prebiehať proces hodnotenia? Na základe akých údajov budeme hodnotiť? Akým spôsobom budeme vykonávať hodnotenie? Kde budeme zaznamenávať výsledky hodnotenia? Aká bude časová frekvencia hodnotenia? Kto zodpovedá za priebežné hodnotenia a kto za záverečné hodnotenia?



Hodnotenie môže byť priebežné a záverečné. Priebežné hodnotenie má určenú pravidelnú frekvenciu sledovania vopred určených hodnotiacich ukazovateľov. Záverečné hodnotenie je uskutočnené a vypracované na konci celého procesu. Zohľadňuje všetky faktory a riziká, ktoré vstupovali do procesu, nevynímajúc hodnotenie ich príčin a dôsledkov.

Plánované hodnotenie vytvára kvalitnú spätnú väzbu, pomáha správne a objektívne vyhodnotiť operatívne a strategické plánovanie zamerané na dobrovoľnícku činnosť a tvorí podklad pre nové plánovacie obdobie.

Dobrovoľnícka činnosť a dobrovoľníctvo je závislé od rozhodnutia každého človeka, venovať svoj čas, schopnosti, zručnosti a talenty sociálnej oblasti. „Človek ako slobodný podnet rozhoduje o svojom charaktere o svojich cieľoch a hodnotách“ [Dancák, 2009: 142]. Na základe stanovených a vypracovaných strategických a operatívnych cieľov neziskových organizácií sa môže dobrovoľník rozhodnúť systematicky alebo sporadicky vykonávať dobrovoľnícku činnosť.

Dobrovoľnícka činnosť v neziskových organizáciách by nemala byť nysystematická a sporadická, pretože môže ľudí odradiť, ako ich pozitívne motivovať. Dobrovoľnícka činnosť je sama o sebe investíciou, ktorá je v prvom rade prínosná pre človeka, organizáciu, klienta a ďalšie zainteresované strany. Neziskové organizácie stoja pred výzvou vypracovania strategických a operatívnych plánov pre dobrovoľníkov a dobrovoľnícku činnosť. Manažment musí mať na pamäti realnosť plánov a akceptovateľnosť týchto plánov dobrovoľníkmi.

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## ***Psychosexuálne aspekty vývinu osôb s mentálnym postihnutím***

## ***Psychosexual aspects of the development of people with intellectual disabilities***

**Key words:** *Psychosexual development. Intellectual disability. Sexuality. Puberty. Social Service. Ethics. Special pedagogy. Psychology.*

### **Summary**

*The authors present in this paper psychosexual aspects of the development of people with intellectual disabilities, with an emphasis on sexual development problems and specifics of their puberty, they see the effects of gender and psychosocial factors amplifying the effect of the crisis on the development of young people with intellectual disabilities. Their arguments argue partial results of research sexuality clients with more severe intellectual disabilities in social care homes in Slovakia. The conclusion states that only quality and professional support helps people with intellectual disabilities to live their sex lives freely.*

## Úvod

Otázky sexuality sprevádzajú človeka v každej etape ľudského vývinu. V rámci psychodynamických teórií sú predmetom záujmu práve otázky psychosexuálneho vývinu. Sexualita je už od raného detstva súčasťou rozvoja fyzickej a emocionálnej väzby k rodičom a ostatným členom rodiny, rovnako ako aj otázky detí v školskom veku od ich samostatnosti, potreby súkromia a začiatku masturbácie. Osobná bezpečnosť a sebaúcta sa stávajú dôležitými témami pre dospelávajúcích a mladých dospelých.

Či a aké špecifická vyplývajú zo psychosexuálneho vývinu osôb s mentálnym postihnutím v porovnaní s osobami bez postihnutia predovšetkým v kontexte psychoanalytickej teórie Sigmunda Freuda a čo je príznačné pre jednotlivé štádiá psychosexuálneho vývinu naznačujeme na nasledujúcich stranách. Nebudeme sa pritom zameriavať na analýzu psychodynamických teórií ako takých a ani nebudeme venovať priestor silným a slabým stránkam týchto teórií, či diskutovať ich validitu, ale pokúsime sa aplikovať niektoré tézy (predovšetkým Freudovej teórie psychosexuálneho vývinu) na špecifiká u osôb s mentálnym postihnutím.

### Fázy psychosexuálneho vývinu podľa Sigmunda Freuda

Podľa Sigmunda Freuda prebieha psychosexuálny vývin u človeka v orálnej, análnej, oidipálnej a latentnej fáze. Tabuľka 1 uvádza stručný prehľad komparácie psychosexuálneho vývinu osôb bez mentálneho postihnutia a osôb s mentálnym postihnutím v Freudovom poňatí [In: Selner, 1999].

**Tabuľka 1. Fázy psychosexuálneho vývinu v Freudovom poňatí**

Fázy	Osoby bez mentálneho postihnutia	Osoby s mentálnym postihnutím
<b>Orálna fáza</b>	V prvých šiestich mesiacoch života je novorodenec celkom bezmocný a dojča plne závislé na bezprostrednom uspokojovaní potrieb inými. Telesná rozkoš, ktorá prispieva	Osoby s mentálnym postihnutím sa koncentrujú na určité telesné zóny, ktoré sú typické pre toto obdobie u detí bez postihnutia v dojčenskom veku – cumľanie, dávanie predme-

<b>Fázy</b>	<b>Osoby bez mentálneho postihnutia</b>	<b>Osoby s mentálnym postihnutím</b>
	<p>k uspokojeniu jeho potrieb vzniká pri telesnom kontakte, pri dojčení, cumľaní, hladení a pod. Základným orgánom týchto rozkoší sú pre dojča ústa – preto Freud toto obdobie nazýva orálnou fázou. Dieťa už skoro po narodení objaví ústa ako senzibilný orgán rozkoše.</p>	<p>to do úst, slintanie, ako aj prvé stimulácie a dotyky pohlavných orgánov. Tieto určité stereotypy patria neoddeliteľne k tomuto vývojovému stupňu.</p>
<b>Análna fáza</b>	<p>V 2. a 3. roku života získava dieťa telesnú nezávislosť a začína psychicky i telesne vnímať svoje telo – začína rozlišovať medzi chlapcom a dievčaťom. Pri dotyku genitálií pociťuje určité príjemné emocionálne napätie, ktoré je možné porovnať s cumľaním palca alebo cumlíka. Je to obdobie, kedy sa dieťa zaujíma o fekálie, hrá sa na piesku, s blatom, farbami, hlinou a pod.</p>	<p>Deti s mentálnym postihnutím v tomto období potrebujú istotu a akceptovanie konania zo strany okolia. Objavujú svoje vlastné telo, rôzne materiály, sú zvedavé, niekedy sú tvrdohlavé či trucovité. Potrebujú veľa pohybu a impulzov, aj keď sa každodenná prax ťažko zvláda.</p>
<b>Oidipálna fáza</b>	<p>Táto fáza (ako aj nasledujúca) úzko súvisí s hľadaním pohlavnej identity a konfrontáciou role muž – žena. U detí bez postihnutia prebieha spravidla medzi 4. a 6.</p>	<p>Človek s mentálnym postihnutím na oidipálnom vývoji stupni stráca jednostrannú „závislosť“ na osobe, ktorá je mu najbližšia – chce sa osamostatniť. Často sa to prejavu-</p>

<b>Fázy</b>	<b>Osoby bez mentálneho postihnutia</b>	<b>Osoby s mentálnym postihnutím</b>
	<p>rokom s koncentráciou na pohlavné orgány (typické hry „na doktora“). Dochádza k získaniu sebedovedomia ako zástupcu vlastného pohlavia.</p>	<p>je tým, že sa dožaduje alebo vyhľadáva osobný kontakt s druhými (hladenie, dotýkanie sa, koketovanie, „rytierske správanie“ a pod.) – okolie reaguje okamžitým zákazom (to nesmieš alebo to musíš).</p>
<b>Latentná fáza</b>	<p>Vývinovú fázu medzi 6. a 11. rokom popisuje S. Freud ako latentné obdobie. Novšie badania sa v tomto odlišujú a jeho tézu nepotvrdzujú. Psychosexuálne správanie sa prejavuje vo zvedavosti ako v prianí po zmyslovom uspokojení. Toto obdobie je dôležité pre vznik priateľstva a vzťahov, túžba po odpútaní od rodičov je ešte väčšia. Deti svoje záujmy prevádzajú do reči – vulgárne označenia pohlavných orgánov, kresby alebo gestá patria medzi najtypickejšie prejavy.</p>	<p>Ľudia s mentálnym postihnutím potrebujú realistico-kognitívne vysvetlenie, sú v štádiu pokročilého odpútania sa od rodičov, vyžadujú bezpodmienečné zachovanie intímnej sféry: Chcú sami prevziať rozhodovanie o hraniciach toho, čo chcú vedieť a čo chcú prežiť. Bývajú často vystavené násiliu a šikanovaniu zo strany vrstovníkov bez postihnutia.</p>
<b>Genitálna fáza</b>	<p>Z biologického pohľadu dosahuje v puberte človek pohlavnú dospelosť. Tá sa prejavuje telesnými zmenami a produkciou sexuálnych hormónov – do</p>	<p>Prevažná väčšina osôb s mentálnym postihnutím sa dostáva do tejto vývinovej fázy o niečo neskôr než ostatní rovesníci. Zároveň potrebujú aj väčšiu</p>

Fázy	Osoby bez mentálneho postihnutia	Osoby s mentálnym postihnutím
	popredia záujmu vstupujú opäť pohlavné orgány a sexuálne uspokojenie. Záujem sa koncentruje na zmenu tela a pohlavné orgány. Je to doba hľadania, skúšania a zbierania skúseností.	pomoc pri vysvetľovaní (menštruácia, erekcia a pod.)

### Aspekty ovplyvňujúce psychosexuálny vývin osôb s mentálnym postihnutím

Ide najmä o sociálne okolie a citový vzťah rodičov hneď po narodení dieťaťa. Rodičia v mnohých prípadoch zaujmú k deťom s mentálnym postihnutím odmietavý postoj – tzv. narcistická zábrana. Podľa Šelnera (1999) vedie odmietanie k tomu, že dočatú chýba v orálnej fáze telesný kontakt a nežnosti (hladenie, dotyky, objímanie a iné), podobné citové strádanie sa objavuje taktiež u tzv. nechcených detí. Podľa autora je pre zdravý psychosexuálny vývin nevyhnutné vypestovať si pozitívny vzťah k vlastnému telu, čo súvisí so získavaním vlastných skúseností – naučiť sa dotýkať vlastného tela tak, aby to vyvolávalo príjemné uspokojujúce zážitky. Rovnako ľudia s mentálnym postihnutím by mali už v detskom veku poznať svoje telo, naučiť sa pomenovať jeho časti, všetkých častí sa môcť dotýkať a to bez pocitu hanby alebo strachu či bolesti. Signifikantné je, že sexuálne potreby sú u osôb s ťažším mentálnym postihnutím autosexuálne orientované, často spojené s agresívnym alebo autoagresívnym konaním.

K vývojovým sexuálnym problémom osôb s mentálnym postihnutím môžeme podľa Haka-Ikse a Miana (1993) zaradiť najmä tieto:

- pozitívne sebahodnotenie,
- fyzickú blízkosť a intimitu,
- zdržanlivosť
- súkromie,
- masturbáciu,

– osobnú bezpečnosť.

Jedným z ďalších problémov sa javí skutočnosť, že ľudia bez postihnutia sú viac ochotní akceptovať osoby so zdravotným postihnutím ako svojich kolegov alebo priateľov a príležitostne menej ochotní prijímať ich ako sexuálnych partnerov alebo manželských párov. Z toho je zrejmé, že spoločenské a psychosociálne prekážky môžu byť viac prekážkou pre psychosexuálny vývin dospievajúcich ako obmedzenie ich zdravotným postihnutím.

### **Puberta v psychosexuálnom vývine osôb s mentálnym postihnutím**

Významným obdobím v psychosexuálnom vývine človeka je puberta, ktorá je pre všetky deti a mládež fyzickým a psychickým procesom reštrukturalizácie plnej nerovností a často prudkých zmien v správaní a celkovom emočnom vývoji. Na pubertu nie je nazerané ako na obdobie krízy, resp. patologických javov, ale ako na typické mentálne spracovanie vývinovej fázy dospievania.

Ako píše Walter (1994), pridružené povahové abnormality sú v tomto období výrazom psychického procesu reštrukturalizácie zo závislého dieťaťa do samostatného dospelého človeka. Môžeme pritom predpokladať, že deti a mladí ľudia s mentálnym postihnutím žijú v tom istom telesnom a duševnom reštrukturalizačnom procese v puberte a adolescencii ako ich rovesníci bez postihnutia. K ich znevýhodneniu v tomto období však zvyčajne vedú iné faktory. Jedná sa najmä o postoje učiteľov a izolovanú situáciu v inštitúciách alebo doma. To znižuje a obmedzuje ich šance na sebarealizáciu v hravej spolupráci s rovesníkmi. Tieto faktory zosilňujú účinok krízy na vývoji mládeže s mentálnym postihnutím.

### **Súvislosti sexuality, veku a inteligencie**

Podľa Krebsa (1992) predchádzajúce publikácie o sexuálnom vývoji ľudí s mentálnym postihnutím neustále zdôrazňujú, že s výnimkou niekoľkých syndrémov, sexuálno-biologické zrenie prebieha v závislosti na veku, bez ohľadu na mentálne postihnutie. Walter (1994) v naznačenej súvislosti hovorí o tom, že ak prijmeme tradičný pojem inteligencie veku, potom je logické, že v rozpore medzi pohlavím a vekom je mentálny vek u detí s mentálnym postihnutím v puberte problémom. Ľudia s mentálnym postihnutím z dôvodu ich zdravotného postihnutia oveľa



ťažšie spracúvajú a emocionálne zvládajú, čo sa v nich v tomto období deje. Taktiež Walker-Hirsch (2007) je toho názoru, že rozdiel medzi chronologickým vekom zrelosti a zrelosťou v iných oblastiach je väčší medzi mládežou s mentálnym postihnutím. To podľa autora znamená, že osoba, ktorá môže byť fyzicky zrelá a jej zrelosť a emócie sú charakteristické pre daný vek, nemusí mať intelektuálne schopnosti, nemusí byť sociálne a citovo zrelá, alebo nemusí mať vzdelanie a skúsenosti správať sa tak, ako jej rovesníci.

### **Každý „má“ sexualitu a každý dozrieva**

Všetky deti prechádzajú pubertou bez ohľadu na IQ a sociálne zručnosti. Ako tvrdí Dubie (2005), mozog nehovorí telu, aby prestalo rásť, pokiaľ je chlapec či dievča je na nižšej vývinovej úrovni vzhľadom k svojmu veku.

Výsledky výskumu Mandzákovej (2011) (V roku 2011 bol realizovaný výskum v domovoch sociálnych služieb na Slovensku (Mandzáková, 2011), kde bolo dotazovaných 259 odborných zamestnancov a pozorovaných 452 klientov s ťažším mentálnym postihnutím. V príspevku prezentujeme jeho parciálne výsledky), ktorý zisťoval názory odborných zamestnancov a zamestnankýň na sexuálnu motiváciu a sexuálne zrenie osôb s mentálnym postihnutím (pozri tabuľka 2, 3), však dokladajú pretrvávajúce mýty o asexualite týchto osôb i u odbornej verejnosti.

**Tabuľka 2.** Sexuálny pud u klientov s ťažším mentálnym postihnutím

<b>Odpoveď</b>	<b>Počet</b>	<b>%</b>
Rovnaký ako u osôb bez postihnutia	78	30,12
Znížený v porovnaní s osobami bez postihnutia	71	27,41
Neviem sa vyjadriť	67	25,87
Zvýšený v porovnaní s osobami bez postihnutia	43	16,60
<b>Spolu</b>	<b>259</b>	<b>100,00</b>

**Tabuľka 3** Priebeh sexuálneho zrenia u klientov s ťažším mentálnym postihnutím

<b>Odpoveď</b>	<b>Počet</b>	<b>%</b>
Neskôr ako u intaktných	94	36,30
Neviem sa vyjadriť	77	29,70
Skôr ako u intaktných	45	17,40
Rovnako ako u intaktných	36	13,90
Neuvedené	7	2,70
<b>Spolu</b>	<b>259</b>	<b>100,00</b>

Tieto mýty a mylné predpoklady o sexualite osôb s mentálnym postihnutím mali a majú obrovský vplyv na kvalitu ich života a možnosti ich plnej integrácie do spoločnosti [Gonzales-Acquaro, 2006].

Tradičná teória predpokladá, že sociálna zrelosť a pohlavný vývin sú pritom univerzálne, normálne, očakávané a nevyhnutné udalosti v živote všetkých ľudí. U osôb bez mentálneho postihnutia, rovnako ako aj u osôb s mentálnym postihnutím sa časový plán pre biologickú zrelosť zvyčajne zhoduje s chronologickým vekom (Americká akadémia Pediatrics, 1996). To znamená, že chronologický vek nástupu fyzickej dospelosti a puberty bude veľmi podobný aj pre osoby s mentálnym postihnutím. Rozdiely v celkovej vyspelosti medzi osobami s mentálnym postihnutím a ich rovesníkmi bez mentálneho postihnutia spočívajú v niekoľkých oblastiach rozvoja. Sú to: biologická zrelosť, sociálna zrelosť, emocionálna zrelosť, príležitosti na vzdelávanie, intelektuálne spracovanie životných skúseností a množstvo príležitostí učiť sa, ako zvládať skutočný život.

Uvedené treba brať do úvahy pri koncipovaní sexuálnej výchovy, ako aj zohľadniť pri posudzovaní efektivity sexuálnej výchovy osôb s mentálnym postihnutím. Smerovať by bolo potrebné k ich sociálnej integrácii, aby sa cítili sexuálne v bezpečí a aby mali radosť zo života. V rámci školského vyučovania je preto potrebné informovať o sexuálnej anatómii, aby mládež bola pripravená na niektoré fyzické zmeny spojené s pubertou.

## **Kto som? Alebo: kríza identity a bolestivá realizácia postihnutej identity**

Otázka *Kto som?* je podľa Eriksona ústredným problémom dospievania. Mladí ľudia so zdravotným postihnutím si začínajú viac uvedomovať, že sú iní. Prežívajúce rozdiely menejcennosti sú často veľmi bolestivé. Mnoho mladých ľudí s mentálnym postihnutím prekvapí svojich rodičov otázkou: *Mami, deti hovoria, že som retardovaný. Čo je to retardovaný?* Tu sa nachádza centrálny existenciálny problém mladých ľudí s mentálnym postihnutím. *Ako budú akceptovať svoje postihnutie a naučia sa integrovať svoju totožnosť, keď ich najbližší – rodičia, opatrovatelia, kamaráti – neprijímajú pozitívne ich postihnutie?* Je pravdepodobné, že pre ľudí s mentálnym postihnutím prijatie vlastného postihnutia predstavuje bolestnú skúsenosť [Walter, 1994]. Môže sa to prejavíť aj vyjadreniami ako: *Chcem ísť na rande s dievčaťom bez postihnutia. Nenávidím Downov syndróm!* Dlhé večery a víkendy bez spoločnosti môžu viesť k osamelosti, sociálnej izolácii, nude a dokonca k depresii a zúfalstvu. Deti a dospelí s postihnutím veľmi pravdepodobne pociťujú ostrú hranicu vylúčenia, pretože si uvedomujú sociálnu stigmú a odmietanie [Walker-Hirsch, 2007]. Nasledujúci príklad poukazuje na stigmatizovanie mentálneho postihnutia a jeho dôsledky: *Clarence je jediný integrovaný študent s Downovým syndrómom na strednej škole. Nemá žiadnych priateľov a nie je veľmi šťastný. Jedného rána skupinka „populárnych“ chlapcov povedala Clarenceovi, že ak s nimi chce obedovať, musí dokázať, že je toho hodný. Aby bol hodný obedovať s ostatnými, Clarence musel urobiť dve veci: dotknúť sa prs kapitánky roztlieskavačiek a spustiť požiarny hlásič. Clarence by urobil všetko, aby mohol s týmito chlapcami obedovať, dokonca aj veci, o ktorých vedel, že sú nesprávne a určite mu spôsobia problémy. Clarence spravil, čo chlapci chceli v nádeji, že s nimi bude obedovať. Kvôli priestupkom však bol dočasne zo školy vylúčený a stratil výhody aj doma. Vyťažný obed so zdanlivými priateľmi sa mu nepodarilo mať nikdy a čo bolo najhoršie, v škole sa stal terčom ešte väčšieho výsmechu, čo viedlo k ešte väčšej izolácii a sebanenávisti [Walker-Hirsch, 2007].*

Podľa Waltera (1994) sú v tomto období typické problémy so správaním, ako sú napríklad niektoré trestné činy (krádež) alebo exhibicionistické činy, často vyplývajúce z pokusu odmietnuť pozíciu outsidera a zapôsobiť na vrstovníkov bez postihnutia, a tým posilniť svoje sebave-

domie. Okrem očakávaného uznania, je to často tiež vzbura proti obmedzujúcim zákazom rodičov. Volfová [In: Volfová et al., 2008] poukazuje na pokusy o telesné zblíženie, ktoré môžu vyústiť v rizikové experimentovanie až v trestný čin. Dôsledky tohto správania autorka vidí v chýbajúcej či oneskorenej sexuálnej výchove a osvete. Nevhodné sexuálne správanie namierené proti vrstovníkom môže signalizovať tiež možné sexuálne zneužívanie jedinca, ktorý sa takto správa.

### **Problém rastúceho telesného povedomia**

Otázka identity je úzko spojená s problematikou prijatia vlastného tela aj u osôb s mentálnym postihnutím. V tomto smere ide o prijatie vonkajšieho vzhľadu. Podľa Grogana (2000) práve obdobie puberty predstavuje u osôb s mentálnym postihnutím záťažovú situáciu pri vytváraní vzťahu k vlastnému telu, kedy sa zosilňuje potreba patriť k nejakej skupine a táto príslušnosť prináša aj požiadavky na vzhľad. V prípade, že je tlak z okolia veľký, môže sa rozvinúť nespokojnosť so svojim telom, nadmerná hanblivosť, strach zo sociálnych situácií.

V puberte sa mladí bez postihnutia intenzívne venujú svojmu vlastnému telu, jeho vzhľadu, tvaru pohlavných znakov a zážitkom sexuálneho vzrušenia. Je zrejmé, že odchýlky od normy majú významné sociálne dôsledky a významný vplyv na sebaopínanie jedinca. Odlišnosť je vnímaná ako stresujúca a vedie k zablokovaniu a k fixácii na stigma postihnutia.

Podľa Waltera (1994) sú hlavnými príznakmi zdravotného postihnutia v tomto období: zhrubnutie pokožky, vyrážky, akné, zhrubnutie postavy, výraz tváre, motorická neistota, otvorené ústa sa stávajú výraznejšími. Mnoho mladých ľudí s Downovým syndrómom začína koktať. Príznaky postihnutia v dospievaní sú tak zreteľnejšie.

Približne v čase blížiacej sa puberty často dochádza k zmene v deťských priateľstvách. Mnoho mladých medzi 13. až 19. rokom vedie vlastný boj s vyššie popísanými zmenami vyvolanými pubertou. Nesmierne dôležité pre nich je, či ich prijmú vrstovníci. Walker-Hirsch (2007) uvádza, že mladí ľudia s mentálnym postihnutím sú menej spôsobilí získať vedomosti o najnovšom oblečení či hudobných novinkách. Tento „krok vonku“ môže viesť k ich izolácii. Odmietnutie priateľstva sa pre nich zdá byť smutným a nepochopeným javom. Následná túžba po ak-

ceptácii vrstovníkmi bez postihnutia môže viesť k sexuálnej poddajnosti, aby boli prijatí, či boli pochválení.

### **Biologické sprievodné znaky puberty u osôb s mentálnym postihnutím**

U väčšiny mladých s mentálnym postihnutím sa prejavujú biologické znaky dospievania počas typického vekového rozsahu ako u ich vrstovníkov bez postihnutia.

Začiatok puberty nastáva u dievčat okolo 12. roku života, u chlapcov okolo 14. roku. Fyzické zmeny puberty sú zamerané na rozvoj sekundárnych charakteristík, na nástup menštruácie u dievčat a ejakulácie u chlapcov. Mnohí mladí s mentálnym postihnutím sledujú vývin pubického ochlpenia a ďalších pohlavných znakov s veľkým záujmom. Avšak prvá menštruácia a prvá ejakulácia býva pre mnohých z nich veľkým prekvapením, pretože vysvetlenie biologické a fyziologické podstaty tohto javu sa k nim nedostalo zo strany rodičov ani učiteľov.

S prichádzajúcou pubertou sa tak potreba informácií stáva akútnou. „Normálne“ sa vyvíjajúce deti sa o zmenách rozprávajú so svojimi priateľmi či staršími súrodencami, alebo si čítajú knihy, príbehy, články v časopisoch pre dospievajúcich. V prípade, že dieťa nie je pripravené na tieto vzrušujúce zmeny, stanú sa pre nich desivými. A práve deti s mentálnym postihnutím na tieto zmeny spravidla pripravené nie sú.

Príkladom je dievča, ktoré vie len málo, alebo vôbec nič o menštruácii. Jedného dňa začne krváčať a mylne sa domnievať, že je poranená alebo chorá. Začne sa báť o svoje zdravie, myslí na smrť: *Mami, som zranená, zomieram – celá moja posteľ je od krvi*. Nevyhnutným dôsledkom prežívaného strachu a hnusu môže byť znechutenie v oblasti genitálií a sexuality. Alebo chlapec, ktorý dosiahol ťažko vydobitého úspechu s nočnikom, mal po prvýkrát tzv. mokrý sen a nechápe, čo sa to deje. Môže pociťovať sklamanie či hanbu, že klesol vo svojom toaletnom úspechu, alebo môže mať strach zo sklamania rodičov, akonáhle objavia jeho mokré pyžamo. Pre chlapcov znečistenie v spánku znamená problém a konštatujú: *Mám mokrú posteľ*. Ak nie sú v tomto smere včas informovaní, zažívajú pocity hanby a menejcennosti [Walker-Hirsch, 2007; Walter, 1994].

Výskum v Slovenskej republike [Mandzáková, 2011] potvrdil negatívne hodnotenie informovanosti osôb s mentálnym postihnutím (klientov do-

movov sociálnych služieb) odbornými zamestnancami. Pri dotazovaní sa na potrebu rozširovania vedomostí klientov a klientok s mentálnym postihnutím v oblasti sexuálnej výchovy dominoval negatívny názor na sexuálnu výchovu a osvetu u tejto cieľovej skupiny osôb. Aj napriek minimálnej informovanosti klientov väčšina respondentov uviedla, že zvýšenie ich informovanosti nie je potrebné (pozri tabuľka 4) [viac pozri Mandzáková, 2011].

**Tabuľka 4** Potreba rozširovania vedomostí klientov v oblasti sexuálnej výchovy a osvetu

<b>Odpoveď</b>	<b>Počet</b>	<b>%</b>
Nie	164	63,32
Áno	95	36,68
Spolu	259	100,00

### **Sprievodné znaky puberty u dievčat**

Fyzické zmeny u dievčat zvyčajne začínajú vo veku 7 – 14 rokov. Počas zmien dochádza za rok alebo dva k prvej menštruácii. Priemerný vek prvej menštruácie je približne 12 či 13 rokov, niektoré dievčatá začínajú menštruovať už v 9 alebo naopak až v 17 rokoch. K somatickým zmenám patrí u dievčat najmä: rast prsníkov, maternice, vaječníkov a vagíny, prítomnosť ochlpenia, ukladanie tuku a menštruácia. V tomto smere je nutné poučenie najmä od rodičov. Pokiaľ rodičia u dcéry zaznamenajú prvé fyzické zmeny puberty, mali by s ňou o menštruácii prehovoriť.

Dubie (2005) uvádza niekoľko praktických odporúčaní týkajúcich sa menštruácie pre rodičov dievčat s mentálnym postihnutím:

- Ukážte jednotlivé kroky a zmeny na hygienických vložkách. Pokiaľ je to možné, sú pri tom aj ostatné ženy v dome.
- Na spodné prádlo dcéry kvapnite červené potravinárske farbivo – tak môže vyzeráť krv pri menštruácii.
- Označte vložku a nohavičky inou farbou a predveďte, kde má byť na spodnom prádle pripevnená vložka.
- Bežte do obchodu a kúpte niekoľko rôznych druhov hygienických vložiek. Vyskúšajte rôzne veľkosti, hrúbky, s kridelkami či bez nich, rôzne vône a značky.

- Vytvorte pre vašu dcéru vizuálny plán, ako často má vložku meniť, zohľadnite školský rozvrh.
- S pomocou videa a iných pomôcok vysvetlite, k čomu je menštruačný cyklus potrebný.
- Pokiaľ sa dcéra najlepšie učí prostredníctvom faktov, kúpte jej knihu o menštruácii. Úplné vysvetlenie menštruačného cyklu jej pomôže prijať zmeny súvisiace s dospievaním. Pre niekoho môžu byť tieto informácie ohromujúce. Ako rodičia by ste mali vedieť, akým spôsobom sa dcéra učí najlepšie.
- Naplánujte oslavu prvej menštruácie – ide o oslavu ženstva.

### **Sprievodné znaky puberty u chlapcov**

Fyzické zmeny u chlapcov začínajú okolo 13. roku veku. Niektorí chlapci začínajú pohlavne dospievať predčasne vo veku 12 rokov, zatiaľ čo iní až vo veku 17, 18 rokov. K vedľajším charakteristikám pohlavných zmien chlapcov patria: rast penisu a ochlpenia, zväčšovanie semenníkov, tvorba spermii, zmena hlasu, rast fúzov, zväčšenie prsníkov, ejakulácia. Rovnako ako dievčatá, aj chlapci by sa mali každý deň sprchovať alebo kúpať. Mnohí sú nervózni z prvého výskytu spermii, ktoré sa pravdepodobne objaví počas spánku (tzv. mokré sny). Je dôležité im vysvetliť, že nejde o pomočovanie, ale erekciu, ktorá je normálnou súčasťou puberty a neskôr zmizne.

Dubie (2005) uvádza niekoľko praktických rád pre rodičov chlapcov s mentálnym postihnutím v puberte:

- Nereagujte prehnane. Nezabudnite, že váš syn zrejme nemá žiadnu predstavu o tom, čo sa s ním deje, keď má polúciu.
- Pokojným hlasom mu všetko vysvetlite – polúcia patrí k puberte, dochádza k vývoju sekundárnych znakov, dospieva v muža.
- Bežte do knižnice alebo knihkupectvá a prezrite si v dostupných knihách, ako sa v priebehu puberty menia orgány.

Nová skúsenosť z vlastnej telesnej identity vedie u väčšiny mladých ľudí v puberte k opatrnému experimentovaniu s vlastným telom – je to genitálne obdobie, ktoré v Freudovom ponímaní psychosexuálneho vývinu nastáva po období latentnom. S nástupom puberty zároveň dochádza k zmene smerovania sexuálnej motivácie z autoerotiky k sústreďeniu sa na objekt túžby. V prípadoch, keď osoba s mentálnym postihnutím nemá možnosť, resp. nevie, ako uspokojiť svoju sexuálnu motiváciu, či už vo

forme autoerotiky alebo sexuálneho styku, pociťuje sexuálnu tenziu. Jednou z odlišností v sexualite ľudí s mentálnym postihnutím a ľudí bez postihnutia je spôsob vyrovnania sa s potlačením sexuálnej tenzie a v tom, ako sa potlačenie odrazí v ich psychike.

### **Záver**

Sexualita mladých s mentálnym postihnutím má svoje špecifiká. Jej prejavy sú komplikované, pokiaľ žijú v spoločnosti, ktorá nepodporuje ich sexualitu, partnerské vzťahy, nemá o nich adekvátne informácie a priateľský a otvorený prístup. Je dôležité, aby si v prvom rade odborná verejnosť a tí, ktorí sa podieľajú na výchove týchto osôb, uvedomili špecifiká ich sexuality a našli pre nich efektívny spôsob učenia. Iba kvalitná, odborná a empatická podpora pomôže osobám s mentálnym postihnutím žiť ich sexuálny život slobodne v súlade s ich sexuálnymi a reprodukčnými právami.

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VEGA 1/0942/11: *Zvyšovanie kvality života klientov s ťažším mentálnym postihnutím v domovoch sociálnych služieb v oblasti sexuality a partnerských vzťahov.*

VEGA 2/0015/12: *Životné štýly, normy a ich prekračovanie: cesty k osobnej spokojnosti a spoločenskej prospešnosti.*

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## ***Implementation of marketing in catering services through gastro tickets***

**Key words:** *Marketing. Services. Catering. Research. Survey.*

### **Summary**

*Currently many companies engaged in the food service are struggling to win customers and gain competitive advantage. One of the ways to attract customers into a restaurant is the wider use of food tickets, through which customers have the option of daily comparison of the quality and the range of food served, which at the definitive result can lead to a good presentation of the company and building corporate reputation. The aim of paper is to analyze the different opinions of experts on the definition of marketing and catering services as well as interpretation of conducted marketing research oriented to the use of the gastro tickets in catering.*

### **Marketing versus catering services**

The term marketing has been defined by a number of experts from different angles. In the literature, but also in economic practice one can come across plenty of definitions of marketing. All definitions, however, have one common entity, which is the customer, and the main aim in

definitions is satisfying customer needs. Therefore the basis of marketing means customer orientation and customer's needs. Marketing enables better than any other process or method to identify and develop customer needs and requirements and in accordance with them to create a product that by satisfying their needs will bring the desired benefits. Nowadays marketing is the very frequently used term in the economic environment [Hvizdová, 2013].

Jakubíková states that "Marketing is a social and managerial process by which individuals and groups satisfy their needs and wants in the production process, product and values changes" [Jakubíková, 2009: 44].

Other authors define the concept of marketing as follows: "Marketing is the process of planning and implementing the concept of pricing policies, promotion and distribution of ideas, goods and services to create and exchange value and meet the goals of individuals and organizations" [De Pelsmacker, Geuens, Van Den Bergh, 2003: 23].

"Marketing is a management process that allows you to identify, anticipate and meet consumer demands in a cost-effective manner" [Foret, Walk, Vaculik, Kopřivová, Foret, 2001: 4].

„Recenty position of services is dramatically increasing in the world economy and therefore, we have to begin to address marketing services vigorously. At the beginning it is necessary to define the essence of service. Service is defined as any activity or benefit that one party may provide the other and which are essentially immaterial and do not result in the acquisition of property." [Hvizdová, 2013: 108]

„Meals can be attraction in itself." [Jakubíková, 2009: 30]

- small scale nature of production,
- broad range of products,
- production is directly related to sales,
- production volume during normal operation is variable.

The aim of catering services is to meet the nutritional needs of the population. Production of food and beverages is constituted by work processes that are bound not only to the production itself, but also to their presentation, sale and consumption. Manufacture in food service has its own specific characteristics, which are:

Since the catering has had certain specific features we need to pay more attention to its marketing services to meet customer needs while ensuring the profitability of the company. As competition in this area is considerable, it is appropriate for entrepreneurs in this sector to devote more to this issue. One possible opportunity to get friendly customer service is the provision of food through the gastro tickets. However, it is essential to realize that even such limited catering by certain price value is a good opportunity to obtain a customer outside the basic dietary regime. The question is appropriately chosen menu that will meet and even surpass the expectations of customers who are loyal to the company. Marketing research in the service sector did not attach due importance. As arguments for non-use of marketing tools were cited reasons such as:

- service-producing firms are mostly small businesses which cannot afford to conduct research,
- they do not have suitable staff for this activity, and management fails to appreciate the benefits of research,
- they have their set of customers and are familiar with their needs and preferences,
- many professional services were recommended through their trade chambers not to implement marketing research, because it was considered as being unethical [Vaštiková, 2008].

The survey of Customer Experience Report Slovakia 2010 provided by GFK Slovakia in February 2012 shows that the most common reason for customers switching to a competitor is the lower price. 41% of respondents consider it as the main reason. In the second place there is an approach to the customer, which is the incentive to change for 26% of respondents. In the third place, according to the survey there is satisfaction with the level of quality of products and services. Up to 15% of respondents are inspired to change the company by different and better product. In the case of a negative customer experience it is most often spread by word of mouth. Feedback provides about 65% of customers using means of the Internet and social networks. To win back former customers can be very challenging because, according to the survey results, 43% of them never return.

Customer analysis is an appropriate tool targeted for customer relations. Businesses can use different methods of analysis depending on

selected parameters. Indicators for consumer analysis include: the number of customers, revenue per customer, number of repeated purchases, the number of regular customers and customer loyalty. Significant changes of the last decade combined with economic growth and manifested by strong urbanization, modernization, automation, as well as the globalization of trade, strongly affect changes in behavioral patterns of individuals, families, communities, as well as the entire human population. Dynamics of changes in lifestyle increases the demand on social adaptability of man to the changed and still changing living conditions – increase of neuro-psychological burden, reduction of demands on movement and physical activity. Under these circumstances it is clear that the changes in lifestyle and living conditions necessarily imply the requirement of reasonable changes of meeting nutritional needs and forms of catering [Chudíková et al., 2005].

1. Analysis of conducted survey on regular catering through the gastro tickets Within the collection of primary data inquiry was applied as a quantitative research method. Personal interviewing was chosen as the basis for examining consumer attitudes without restrictions of written or electronic questioning. Querying - survey enabled us to obtain much information about an individual consumer at a time. This was the information like characteristics, preferences, attitudes, etc. As the type of questioning there was administered survey (face-to-face) based on direct communication of researcher with the respondent with the possibility to motivate the respondent, to clarify his interpretation of the question, i.e. there existed a direct feedback between researcher and respondent.

The research sample consisted of respondents from Prešov. Random selection was carried out in catering facilities, i.e. in restaurants, hotels, shopping malls and other catering establishments, where existed the possibility of providing catering services through the gastro tickets. It is important to note that the selection of the site for survey was not intended to address the geographical differences in catering habits of consumers from different regions of Slovakia, but to highlight the catering through gastro tickets as one of the possibilities presented by various food service operators in the market and highlight the importance of regular meals in terms of health towards the administration of a standard job performance. The town Prešov was chosen due to the best availability and diversity of the region. Major poll questions were directed to:

- satisfaction with the catering through gastro tickets,
- satisfaction with the quality and range of prepared meals.

Survey involved a total of 80 respondents, where 30% were men. 67% of respondents came from the city and 33% from rural areas. Age structure of respondents is represented in Table No. 1.

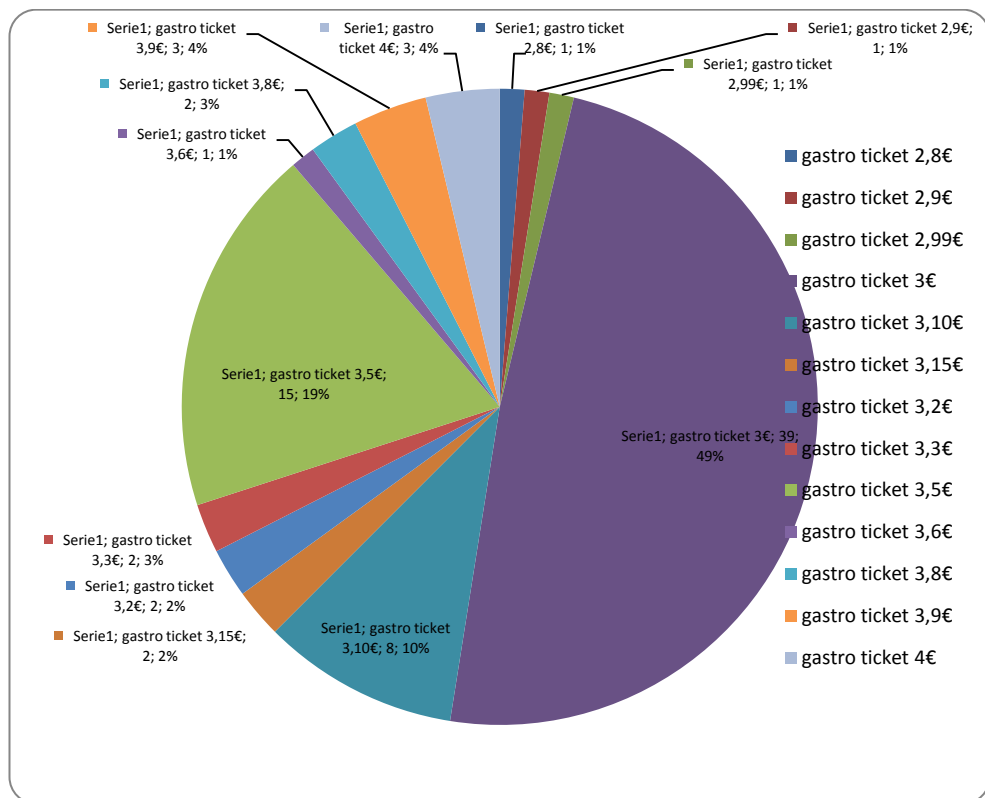
**Tab. 1. Age structure of respondents**

20 - 30 years	31%
31 - 40 years	30%
50 - 60 years	10%
More than 60	1%

One of the questions dealt with the value of gastro ticket. Respondents had used 13 different gastro tickets with different values. Brands of gastro tickets or companies were represented by: Ticket restaurant, Doxx, Le Cheque Dejeuner, Vase Slovensko, Sodexo, Edenred. Currently, there are the following values of meal tickets: € 0.2, € 0.4, € 0.5, € 0.66, € 1, € 1.3, € 1.5, € 1.75, € 1.8, € 2, € 2.5, € 2.75, € 2.8, € 2.95, € 2.99, € 3, € 3.15, € 3.2, € 3.3, 3.6 €, € 3.7, € 3.8, € 3.9, € 3.99, € 4, € 4.2, € 4.5, € 5.

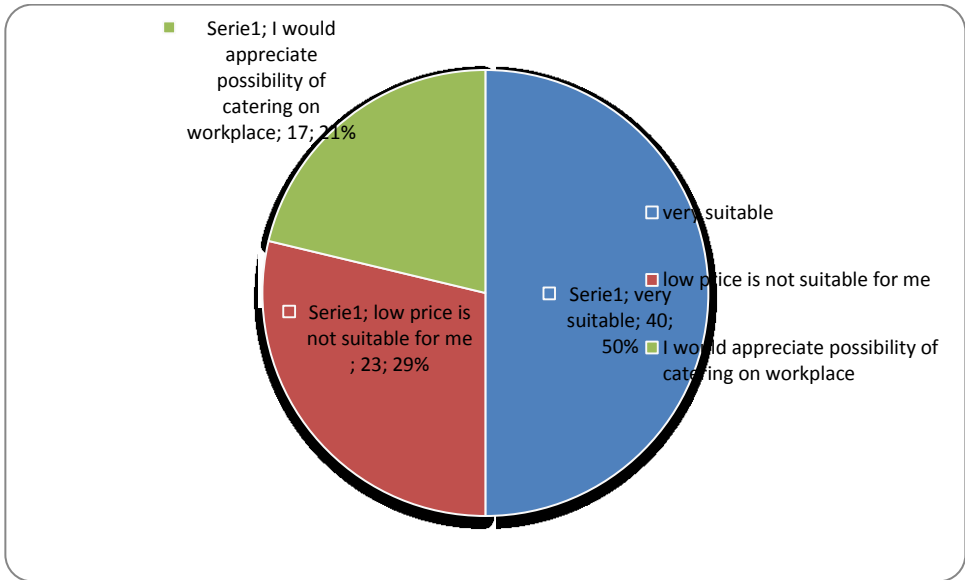
Fig. No. 2 shows customer satisfaction with catering via gastro tickets in different caterers. 50 per cent of respondents are satisfied with this way of eating, 29% of respondents stated that the way you can eat during the day is convenient, but the value of the ticket is unsatisfactory in establishments frequently used due to a necessary supplement (organization offers them tickets in the gastro value, which is not sufficient when selecting service provider that is best for them according their assessment of quality and offered menu range). 21% of respondents are not satisfied with this way of eating and would welcome the possibility of catering in their workplace.

**Fig. No. 1 : Value of gastro ticket**

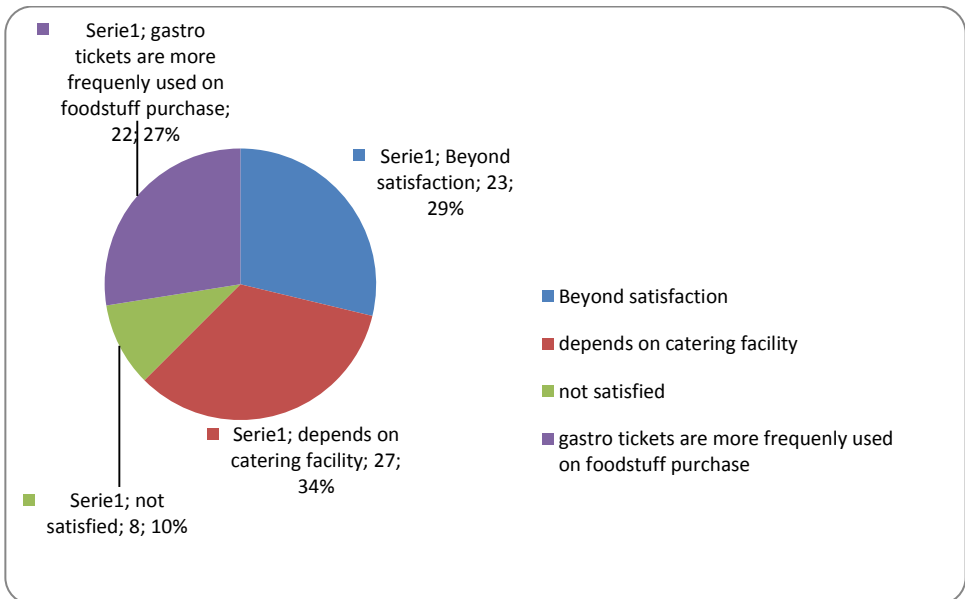




**Fig. No. 2 : Satisfaction with catering via means of gastro tickets**



**Fig. No. 3: Customer satisfaction with the quality and range of menu**



29% of respondents, answering the poll question dealing with satisfaction of respondents with the quality and range of prepared meals in various public catering, said they are very satisfied, but a high percentage of 34% said that the quality and range varies considerably in different categories of pubs, offering the possibility of such catering. 27% of those questioned use their gastro tickets to buy food, which on the one hand can be considered as a negative because these respondents do not comply with the right meal regime during the day or on the other hand, they have health problems that do not allow them eating in normal catering facilities. In the latter case, if the individual purchase of food and food preparation was related to health problems, so this form would be equally effective in terms of good diet like eating in public catering establishments.

### Conclusion

The aim of the paper was to highlight the impact of marketing on maintaining and gaining customer loyalty in common catering establishments through gastro tickets. It highlights the interdependence between advertising and healthy lifestyle (regular catering regime) towards improving communicative activities of businesses in terms of slogan "Let us do well and let's talk about it ". The word of mouth advert of customers visiting some catering company is as important as other forms of promotion and is free of charge.

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# Humanum

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## ***Psychology of volunteering***

### ***Psychology of volunteering***

**Key words:** *Volunteering, psychology of volunteering, communication, transactional analysis.*

#### **Summary**

*Volunteering (from Latin voluntarius) refers to conscious, willing acceptance of a job that one is not paid for. Volunteers do not get money for their work, but it does not mean they work for free. Their gratification is feeling good, needed, serving their altruistic needs, boosting their self-esteem. If one expects or demands thanks for the work done, at the same time behaving in a pitying or patronizing way, it contradicts the idea of volunteering. Conscious volunteering thus implies substantial self-awareness, acknowledging one's positive sides as well as limitations. Communication skills and competence are also indispensable; in this article, they are presented from the perspective of Eric Berne's transactional analysis and Schulz von Thun's conception of communication.*

What matters is not what you say, but what they hear  
What matters is not what you do, but what they see  
What matters is not what you mean, but what they get.

Volunteering (from Latin *voluntarius*) refers to conscious, willing acceptance of a job that one is not paid for. Volunteers do not get money for their work, but it does not mean they work for free. Their gratification is feeling good, needed, serving their altruistic needs, boosting their self-esteem. If one expects or demands thanks for the work done, at the same time behaving in a pitying or patronizing way, it contradicts the idea of volunteering. Conscious volunteering thus implies substantial self-awareness, acknowledging one's positive sides as well as limitations.

The interpretation of interpersonal relationships presented here, relying on the conceptions of F. Schulz von Thun (2001) and E. Berne (1961, 2012), will give a volunteer a chance to look into himself and his contribution to interpersonal relations.

Our behaviour always expresses something, is a statement, encoded message. The more understandable the code, the more effective communication. The sender will not say, "That is not what I meant, I wanted to say something else". We have to remember that silence is also a statement, a kind of message. Being silent with people who do not want any words is one of the most difficult forms of participating in another person's time and space.

The questions that every volunteer should ask himself before taking the decision to work are as follows:

WHOM? Whom do I see?

Who am I?

What do people experience when they contact me?

What is my understanding of man?

How does my experience contribute to my understanding of man?

Do I treat the people I encounter as partners, or do I treat them casually?

WHAT FOR? What precisely is the aim of a conversation, meeting?

Who is to benefit from my help? In what way?

WHAT?

What is the object of my actions?

What precisely does my action refer to?

HOW?

What methods do I choose and why?

How do I apply them?

WHO?

Who applies?

Who is the person that takes action (ME)?

How do I treat my interlocutor?

What feelings do I have for the person who needs help?

Can I control these feelings in myself and others?

What aim do I want to gain through the contact with the recipient?

An utterance in verbal or non-verbal communication reflects interpersonal relations. For a volunteer – particularly a young person – this may be an unknown ground. A beginner should therefore face his own self, analyze his attitudes and behaviour, trying to understand motives of his actions.

Every utterance in interpersonal communication may be dealt with on four planes (F. Schulz von Thun):

FACTUAL INFORMATION

Sender – SELF-REVELATION -- MESSAGE – APPEAL - Receiver

RELATIONSHIP

1. Factual information – do I communicate in a clear and comprehensible way?

2. The treatment of the interlocutor, the recipient of my actions – the quality of the encounter (mutual relation). The quality manifests itself in acceptance or lack of it (not always conscious), expressed as rejection, patronizing, pity. We must also stress the importance of the interlocutor's system of values, and of the manner in which he is addressed.

3. Self-revelation. An utterance reveals the person who produces it. It manifests self-knowledge, acceptance, the ability to express emotions. We deliver a portion of our personality. Thus, authenticity of an encounter, not putting on a mask, is important.

4. Appeal. Every utterance that we produce has an influence on our interlocutor. We always expect the recipient to accept our expectations concerning him. There is a risk of manipulation involved in this aspect of communication.

All the planes of verbal and non-verbal communication discussed above are equally important. It is inappropriate to focus on selected as-

pects only. It is vital to ensure that all four aspects play an important role. When educating volunteers, a particular emphasis should be placed on the quality of an encounter and self-revelation. These are the most often neglected areas, although they help to reduce the stress level and prevent burnout, giving satisfaction and self-actualization.

The ability to open up to a person who needs help is a desired trait. However, there is a risk involved here. An inexperienced volunteer may adopt the attitude of "I give you my heart, time, I'm all for you". Eventually, it may turn out that the volunteer himself needs specialist therapeutic help.

A volunteer must be sensitive to the quality of being together. This aspect must be viewed in a systemic way, as a dialogue. In therapeutic contact - and in my opinion every meeting of two people can be called so - a volunteer meets a person or a group of people who need help. They meet in certain context, which they themselves create. The quality of being together is different when we meet a single person, or a group of people. The relations will be yet different if we meet a couple, or a family.

The context of an encounter is an important factor in establishing appropriate relations. Volunteers work e.g. in hospitals, where special conduct is required, determined by the standards of medical treatment; or at schools, where statutes and laws regulate communication. Thus, every encounter has its institutional, spacial, chronological and material limitations.

Self-revelation and confrontation with what I know about myself and what others know about me also helps to build appropriate relations. Non-verbal aspect of every utterance must be consistent with its verbal content. In this context it is important to distinguish between coherent and incoherent utterances. A coherent utterance is characterized by harmony and clarity. An incoherent one results in confusion, misunderstanding and lack of agreement. It may stem from insufficient self-knowledge, a multitude of messages transmitted simultaneously, inadequate language, not adjusted to the recipient, inappropriate linguistic or emotional connotation.

The discussion above pertains to the sender of a message. But how is a message decoded by the recipient?

Again, let me refer to Schulz's conception. His approach is entirely sufficient as a practical solution to our considerations. Depending on what



the recipient wants or is prepared to hear, we talk about “listening with four ears”. Every plane of an utterance mentioned above is received by a different ear, the one that is most developed. The threats posed by one-sidedness of reception may be connected with the relationship as a whole, or one of its aspects.

1. The matter ear – set on receiving information only from the factual plane. In this case we may not notice that relations between people in interpersonal communication are not compatible, interlocutors do not receive messages, for example emotional ones.

2. The relationship ear – set on receiving information pertaining to mutual relation. In the recipient’s view it may indicate positive relations, thus making him feel good. It may, however, convey a negative message; in this case every piece of factual information is interpreted negatively in its emotional aspect. There is yet another manner of perceiving relations, when every message, even a neutral one, is decoded as harmful to the receiver.

3. The self-revelation ear – it is not the hypersensitive relationship ear, but one that is open to what the sender wants to say about himself. This type of listening is very helpful when building appropriate relations between the sender and the receiver, or between a volunteer and a receiver of help. It facilitates the understanding of what is behind the emotions displayed by the sender. The danger connected with self-revelation ear is interpreting every utterance as attacking the receiver, jeopardizing his self-esteem or system of values. Often the message is arbitrarily distorted, triggering a sense of inferiority, or letting your self-image depend on the context of an utterance. If this happens to a volunteer, he undoubtedly needs to work with a supervisor.

4. The appeal ear – set on hearing, seeing, reacting promptly, in other words, recognizing and fulfilling the wishes expressed by the sender.

Lack of compatibility or cooperation between the sender and the receiver, resulting from insufficient knowledge about the message that is sent and received, and about ME and YOU in interpersonal relations, may lead to concealed misunderstandings or omitting crucial elements in any therapeutic meeting, including volunteers’ work.

With regard to the I-YOU relation, it is a good idea to consider the suggestions that Eric Berne puts forward in his conception of transactional

analysis. He defines **Ego-state** as a coherent system of thoughts, feelings and corresponding behaviour. Ego states are ways and manifestations of a person's existence in relation to other people and itself. The author distinguishes 3 Ego-states: Child, Parent, Adult. Each of them expresses different characteristics of ways of functioning.

**Child Ego** state consists of experiences originating from childhood. It includes needs, wants, emotions, intuitive thinking, creativity. This state is a source of feelings, emotions and energy.

**Parent Ego** state gathers opinions, norms, rules and values. It includes opinions concerning work, men and women, students, pupils, our subordinates and superiors. The whole content of **Parent Ego** state is taken from our parents, teachers, authorities without modification, as it is treated as true and irrefutable.

**Adult Ego** state contains everything that has been worked out in the process of personality forming, namely the procedures and strategies allowing for the mature contact with the self, with other people and the here and now reality. According to Berne, the mature ego uses this state to solve problems, take decisions, gather information, express emotions in a mature and responsible way.

Functional analysis of Parent, Adult, Child Ego states (PAC Ego states) indicates ways of using the resources that we possess.

**Parent Ego** states has two varieties: **Nurturing Parent** and **Normative (Controlling) Parent**. We learn these roles from our parents, who teach us how to be caring, but also how to instill rules, norms of behaviour, values, how to bring up and support in difficult situations. Nurturing Parent cares about others, gives advice, permission, motivates.

A negative aspect of this state manifests itself in the actions of the so called **Rescuer**, who does not possess the appropriate knowledge, skills or competence, and his way of acting may bring more harm than good.

Feeling pressurized to help others, we may subconsciously feel used. In this case a volunteer may feel resentment towards the person he is helping. Another aspect of the **Rescuer** is helping when no help has been asked for. Often the **Rescuer** thinks he knows better what kind of help a person needs. He cannot administer help in reasonable doses, giving more than is needed. Moreover, he can reinforce the demand for help or deepen the state of inborn helplessness, inability to act.

Behaviours associated with **Normative Parent** pertain to building a system of values, setting limits, obligations and restrictions. A negative aspect of this state manifests itself in the **Persecutor**, who is not set on helping, but criticizing or punishing.

**The Adult Ego** state does the analytical and synthetic thinking, acts in the here and now, is objective and may have the function of negotiator or mediator between the **Parent Ego** state and **Child Ego** state.

**The Child Ego** state is manifested as a **Spontaneous Child** and **Adaptive Child**. The Child state needs instant gratification, its emotions are revealed with no internal control. The **Spontaneous Child Ego** state is in everyone of us, despite growing up and socializing (all the nurturing, internalizing actions). It depends on us if it is used. Definitely, it is advisable to take advantage of it in interpersonal relations such as: play, intimate relationships, expressing admiration. Being focused on serving one's needs and no reaction to danger reflects a negative aspect of the Spontaneous Child Ego state.

**The Adaptive Child Ego** state. When confronted with a variety of life situations, we learn to compromise and use creativity, which helps to adapt to the existing situation. Inadequate and automatic adaptation occurs in a negatively Adaptive Child – rebellious or submissive.

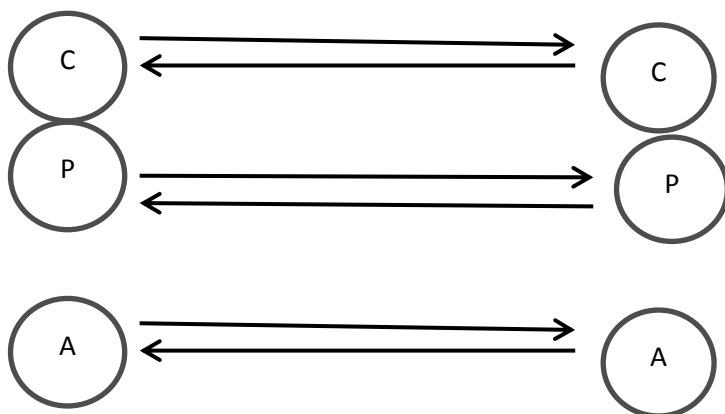
**The Creative Child Ego** state (Little Professor) is manifested in intuitive, creative, curious reactions, questions, explorations. The Creative child Ego state positively cooperates with the Adult Ego state in a way that is adequate to a situation, but more intuitive than logical. In the **Creative Child Ego** state magical thinking, as opposed to factual thinking, has an inappropriately large role. In this case a person slips into passivity, idleness, or initiating psychological games.

Relying on his conception of the Ego states, Berne put forward an innovative approach to interpersonal communication. He referred to it using the word “transactions”. According to Berne, a transaction is an exchange between two people, between their Ego states. Interpersonal relation is a sequence of transactions occurring one after another. Considering the six Ego states in their positive and negative aspects, we can talk about a multitude of possible transactions. Such an approach helps to understand the complicated exchange of messages that occurs between people.

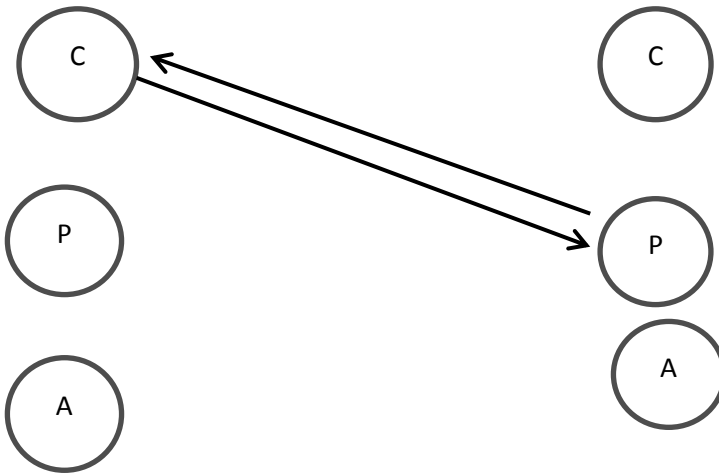
Thus, we can assume that a human being characterized by a mature personality and the ability to communicate chooses the Ego state that is the most adequate one here and now. The effectiveness of communication depends not only on the content of an utterance, but also on the manner in which it is conveyed.

Berne mentions reciprocal transactions – symmetrical and complementary. As long as transactions are reciprocal, communication may continue indefinitely.

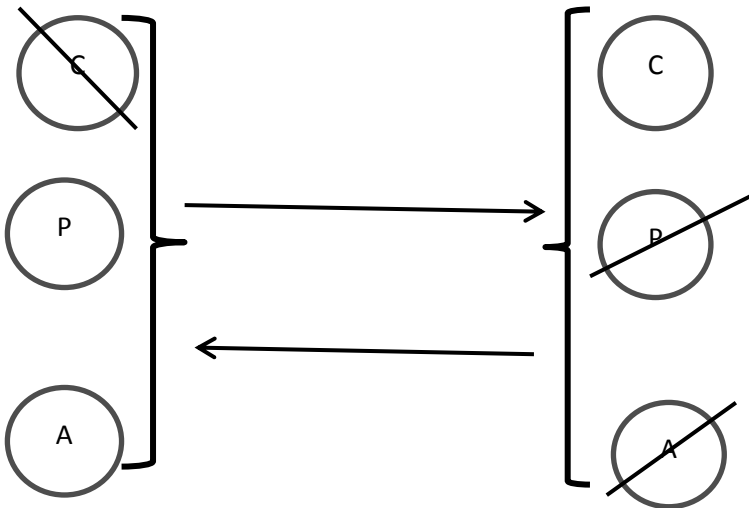
Symmetrical (reciprocal) transaction. Stimulus and response originate from the same Ego state.



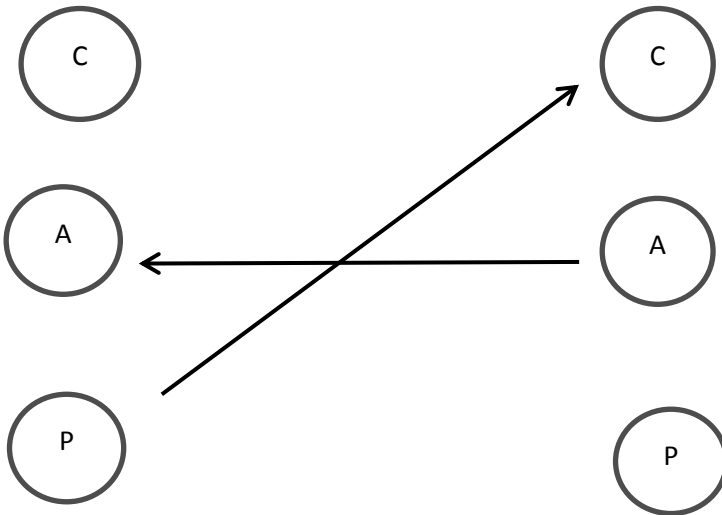
Complementary transaction. When stimulus and response in the PAC diagram are connected by parallel lines:



Symbiotic transaction – fixed, constant complementary reactions in reference to the same persons. Two people complement each other to two:

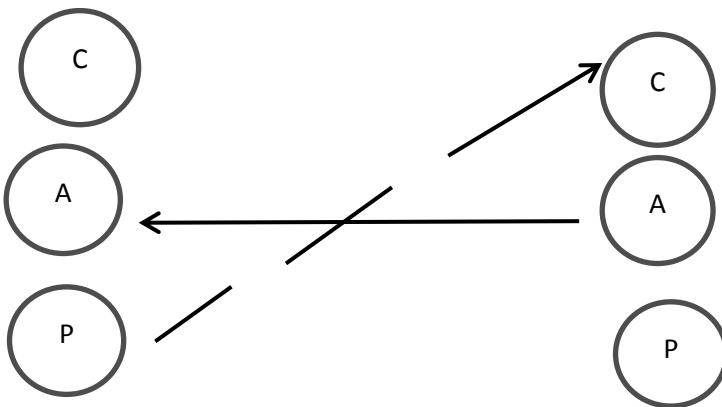


Crossed transaction – reaction directed towards a particular state, response comes from a different state:

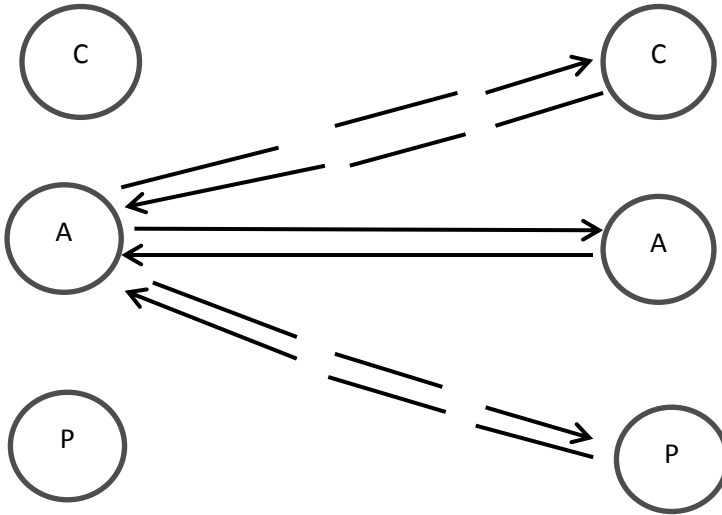


If stimulus and response in the PAC diagram are crossed, communication ceases to exist.

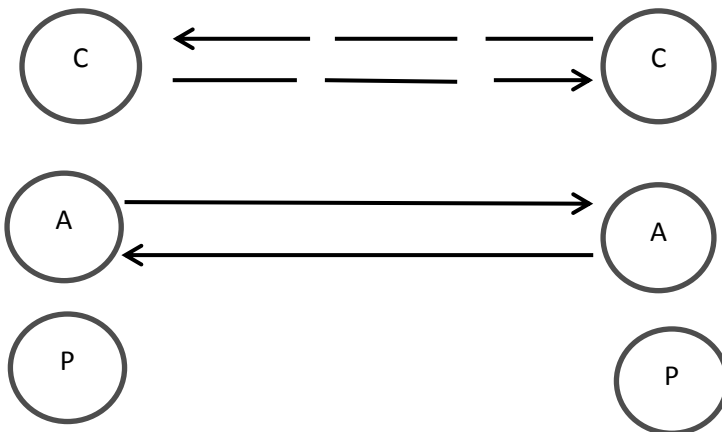
Covert transaction – what we say is a part of a transaction, “between the lines”, so in fact we say much more – it is a meta-communication level.



Angular transaction – the message is apparently delivered from an Adult to an Adult, but in fact to a Parent or Child:



Duplex transactions – the message is apparently delivered and received by Adult, but actually takes place on a different level, e.g. Child (flirtation).



Building our strong Adult – useful in mature contacts – involves:

1. Recognizing our Child - its weaknesses, fears, ways of expressing emotions, acknowledging needs.
2. Recognizing and learning our Parent – his orders, criticism, fixed attitudes, and the main ways of displaying them.
3. Becoming sensitive to the Child in others, talking to it, giving strokes, taking care of it, appreciating its need of creative expression.
4. Giving Adult the time to process data and tell the difference between Parent and Child, and real facts.
5. Working out a system of values. We cannot take any decision without ethical underpinning.

Presenting his theory, Berne warns against the so called “drivers”, who “change the soul into barracks”. Most frequently, these are messages we receive from people who are important to us, e.g.: be perfect, act quickly, demand from yourself, please everybody, be strong, powerful.

As opposed to “drivers”, “tranquilizers” instruct us: be yourself, take your time, work peacefully, live in harmony with yourself, respect yourself and your limits.

Interpersonal relations are endangered by transactional games, psychological games – several, mostly covert, messages exchanged between people, that lead to gaining psychological benefits.

A game is a defence mechanism used by people with unsatisfied need for support and appreciation, who cannot obtain it in a normal, sincere, open way. Every game contains a trap, in which the partner is to be caught. The game is a snare, which seemingly satisfies somebody’s need, but in fact has a different purpose. It is a snare, which targets the victim’s weak point, but as soon as the victim reacts, the situation changes (according to S. Karpman’s Dramatic Triangle – Rescuer, Victim, Oppressor), and the real purpose is revealed, with an unexpected ending appearing like a jack from the box. It is an ending the victim never expects.

From the psychological point of view, the less developed the Adult, the more frequently he will resort to a game, which will be his way of coping with reality and personal difficulties.

Summing up our discussion of transactions and psychological games, we cannot be blind to the positive aspect of games. The psychological tension is reduced, as the substitute needs are satisfied – these are the internal psychological benefits. The external psychological benefit is be-



ing protected from excessive closeness and involvement in relations with others. Safe distance and other people's company, as well as satisfying the stimulation need, are socially internal and external benefits.

**A volunteer's personal characteristics:**

The desired traits of a volunteer's personality presented below are my, probably idealistic, proposal. Every person doing a job that involves helping others should possess these characteristics. Thus, what should a volunteer be like?

1. A volunteer should have a mature personality:
  - it means having well developed image of himself
  - an ability to understand himself, being self-aware, conscious of his own emotions
  - being able to satisfy psychological needs without permanent inner conflicts
  - having a sense of emotional security, in other words having an emotional stability in fear- inducing situations
  - having an objective insight into himself, knowledge about his positive sides and limitations
  - to estimate situations in a proper way
  - to act with a dose of optimism, authenticity and empathy
  - to have his own philosophy of life and fully formed outlook on life.

2. A volunteer should be authentically interested in other people, he ought to have positive attitudes towards other people, he should create the atmosphere of security and mutual trust.

3. A volunteer must learn to see other people as trustworthy, valuable, capable of solving their own problems and coping with their lives.

4. A volunteer ought to have a sense of responsibility for himself and the people whom he helps.

5. It is absolutely necessary to avoid judging people and their conduct. On the contrary, a volunteer should concentrate on behaviour itself rather than motives.

The ethics of volunteer's work implies no impinging on the limits of intimacy and dignity of the needy , as well as confidentiality of each meeting.

**TIPS FOR VOLUNTEERS** [Kubacka-Jasiecka, 2010]

DO NOT PLAY ANY ROLES IN THE PRESENCE OF THE CLIENTS.

BE SPONTANEOUS – TRUST YOURSELF AND BE SELF- CONFIDENT.

DO NOT ASSUME DEFENSIVE ATTITUDES (DO NOT APPLY SELF-DEFENSE MECHANISMS).

BEHAVE IN A COHERENT AND CONSISTENT WAY (THOUGHTS, WORDS, FEELINGS, BEHAVIOUR).

BE ABLE TO SHARE YOURSELF WITH OTHERS ( BE OPEN, ALLOW OTHERS TO GET TO KNOW YOU, SHOW FEELINGS AND EMOTIONS).

And how to avoid getting involved in a psychological game? (according to Eric Berne?)

DO NOT JOIN THE GAME

BE MORE SELF-AWARE THANKS TO REFLEXION AND UNDERSTANDING OF DIFFERENT SITUATIONS, PARTICULARLY IN THE STATE OF MENTAL DISCOMFORT

DEVELOP AND USE YOUR EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

BE ASSERTIVE

BE AWARE OF USING DEFENSE MECHANISMS.

LEARN TO IDENTIFY MOTIVES THAT TRIGGER PSYCHOLOGICAL GAMES.

DO NOT ALLOW YOURSELF TO BE DRIVEN INTO A GAME, IN OTHER WORDS DO NOT SATISFY THE PARTNER'S PATHOLOGICAL NEEDS.

DO NOT LET YOURSELF BE UNDERESTIMATED AND DISRESPECTED.

GET OUT OF THE GAME BY CONFRONTING THE PERSON WHO INITIATED IT.

DEVELOP YOUR ADULT AND USE IT.

DO NOT TAKE RESPONSIBILITY FOR SOLVING OTHER PEOPLE'S PROBLEMS.

WHEN THERE IS NO OTHER ALTERNATIVE, CONSCIOUSLY RESPOND TO A GAME BY PLAYING A GAME.

The discussion above has focused only on a small fraction of the complicated issue of volunteering. I have not referred to the external conditions of volunteer work. I focused on certain, in my opinion crucial, aspects of communication and personal characteristics, that definitely depend on the person who offers help. There is also the important problem

of training, continuous support and supervision of volunteers by people who have therapeutic expertise, abilities and competence [Gilbert, Evans, 2004].

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## **Тенденции подготовки специалистов высшей квалификации в Украине в 1919-1929 гг.**

## ***Trends of specialists of higher qualification training in Ukraine in 1919-1929***

**Key words:** *aspirantura (postgraduate studies), training, research and research pedagogical staff, scientific degree.*

### **Summary**

*The historical experience of forming the national model of research and research pedagogical staff of higher qualification training in 1919-1929 is enlightened in the article. It differed from Russian one in field scheme and structure, had its own managerial vertical. The historical and educational analysis of the problem under research is made on the basis of systems and structural, historiographical, cultural, historical reconstruction of knowledge, historical and national, historical and educational approaches. Main trends influencing specialists training through aspirantura (post-*

*graduate studies) in the socio political sphere, higher education, in the sphere of scientific activities, training and attestation of research and research pedagogical staff of higher qualification are grounded.*

**Постановка проблемы и ее актуальность.** Развитие национальной системы образования в Украине в современных условиях вхождения в Европейское пространство высшего образования и Европейское исследовательское пространство требует критического осмысления достигнутого и учета национальных традиций, в частности в сфере подготовки научных и научно - педагогических кадров высшей квалификации. Заслуживает внимания вопрос определения ведущих тенденций в 1919-1929-х гг., когда происходил процесс становления и развитие отечественной профессиональной подготовки научных работников высшей квалификации в Украинской Социалистической Советской Республике (УССР).

В период 1919-1929 гг. главными направлениями развития подготовки специалистов высшей квалификации были устойчивые стремления руководства республики по установлению национальной системы подготовки научных и научно-педагогических кадров высшей квалификации в Украине, которая отличалась от России. Однако после вхождения Украинской республики в состав СССР (1922 г.), принято решение о действии на территории Украины декретов Советского Союза, которое на практике было введено с 1926-1928 гг. Несмотря на это, руководство Совета Народных Комиссаров УССР прилагало максимум усилий для формирования в образовании и науке собственного пути развития.

Выбор нижней границы 1919 г. обусловлен отменой согласно постановлению Народного Комиссариата Просвещения УССР (Наркомпрос УССР) "Об организации управления высшими учебными заведениями" научных степеней, ученых званий и отменой всех связанных с ними привилегий и преимуществ, которые существовали в дореволюционный период 1917 г. Верхний предел (1929 г.) хронологически совпадает с введением аспирантуры в научно-исследовательских учреждениях во исполнение постановления Всеукраинского Центрального Исполнительного Комитета Совета

Народных Комиссаров (ВЦИК СНК) УССР “Устава об аспирантуре научно-исследовательских учреждений УССР” (1929 г.).

**Анализ научных работ, посвященных проблеме.** В последние годы в научной среде прослеживается усиленный интерес украинских ученых к изучению событий, которые происходили в области образования и науки в 1920-х гг. В частности, в целом вопросы развития педагогической науки в УССР в указанный период освещены О. Сухомлинской; организацию управления образованием, процессы развития среднего, высшего образования исследовали Л. Березовская, И. Ликарчук, В. Ткаченко и др. Большой источниковедческий материал, накопленный в работе М. Кузьменка, помогает реконструировать ход общественно-политических процессов в Украине в 1920-х гг., установить тенденции формирования кадров научной интеллигенции в СССР [Кузьменко, 2004: 455]. В работе О. Осмоловской освещены государственная политика того времени по профессорско-преподавательским кадрам Советской Украины [Осмоловська, 2004: 19]. Проведенный анализ научных работ дает основания констатировать, что в историко-педагогической науке недостаточно освещены вопросы подготовки специалистов высшей квалификации через аспирантуру в 20-е годы прошлого века.

**Цель статьи** заключается в осуществлении ретроспективного анализа становления и развития подготовки научных и научно-педагогических кадров высшей квалификации в 1919-1929 гг. и освещение основных тенденций этого процесса.

**Методология исследования.** Теоретической основой нашего исследования являются следующие подходы: системно-структурный, историографический, культурологический, исторической реконструкции знания, историко-национальный, историко – образовательный.

*Системно-структурный* подход в анализе исследуемого феномена (П. Анохин, М. Каган, В. Беспалько, Е. Юдин и др. ) [Анохин, 1991: 384]; [Беспалько, 1977: 304]; [Юдин, 1978: 70] предполагает выявление сущности явления и процесса как самостоятельных систем определенного порядка, имеющих различные структуры связей с экономическими подсистемами, системой и средой; разработку синтетических и аналитических показателей, характеризующих

количественную сторону явлений и процессов в неразрывной связи с их качественными параметрами; изучение законов, закономерностей и тенденций их развития на основе отбора и преобразования информации с учетом динамичности системы подготовки научных и научно- педагогических кадров высшей квалификации.

*Историографический* как общетеоретический подход по осуществлению историко-педагогических поисков (Н. Гупан) [Гупан, 2002: 224] направлен на исследование этой проблемы в течении 1919-1929 гг.

Содержание исторической памяти должно определяться естественнонаучным знаниям и соотноситься с конкретной предметной реальностью. Этот тезис детерминирует еще с одним базовым принципом нашего исследования – *историзма знания* (Дж. Лакатос) [Lakatos, 1970: 87-98], поскольку теоретическое понимание возможно лишь при условии исторического взгляда на динамическую структуру знания. В нашей работе такое знание зафиксировано в историографических источниках и архивных документах.

*Историко-национальный* подход (С. Равкин, В. Пряникова) [Равкин, Пряникова, 1996: 5-10] призван раскрыть опыт Украины в контексте социально-политического развития страны, социокультурных традиций украинской высшей школы и истории развития педагогической мысли.

Системообразующей идеей *историко-образовательного* подхода (Р. Исхакова) [Исхакова, 2002: 20] является раскрытие истории образования через анализ функционирования учебных заведений в тесной взаимосвязи с различными процессами общественной жизни, и в частности с высшими учебными заведениями, в которых осуществляется подготовка большей части специалистов через аспирантуру.

**Изложение основного материала.** Осуществляя анализ процесса становления системы подготовки специалистов через аспирантуру, выявлены тенденции, которые влияли на ее формирование и были характерны для социально-политической сферы, высшего образования, научной деятельности, подготовки научных и научно-педагогических кадров высшей квалификации, аттестации специалистов.



**Для социально-политической сферы** в первые годы советской власти в Украине присуще *усиление коммунистической идеологизации* образовательно-духовной жизни общества. Следует напомнить, что в 1917-1920 гг. происходила национально-освободительная борьба против большевизма, которая длилась десятилетия. С целью реализации плана поддержки советской власти было *проведено политику “украинизации”*, якобы для возрождения культуры нерусских народов, и в частности украинской, так, например, среди научных и научно-педагогических работников украинским языком владела лишь третья ее часть. Это отражалось на введении во всех учреждениях и заведениях украинского языка, в подборе кадров партийного и государственного аппарата, общественных организаций, организации сети школ, высших учебных заведений, издательского дела на украинском языке, развития украинской культуры и т.д. [Чехович, 1991: 96-122] Однако в 1930 г. украинизация была прекращена и все заведения и учреждения переведены на русский язык общения и делопроизводства [Горбань, Шевчук, 2012: 96-106]. В целом украинизацию можно назвать в большей степени периодом провозглашения или декларирования, хотя определенные шаги в этом направлении были осуществлены. Именно таким образом, с одной стороны, прослеживается утверждение “советизации” в духовной жизни украинского общества, с другой – начинаются *политические преследования, массовые репрессии и физическое уничтожение украинской творческой научной интеллигенции*, чтобы предотвратить, по мнению большевистской власти, установлению украинским народом национальной государственности [Кульчицкий, 2007: 278]. Это приводило к кадровому вакууму и выдвигало одну из приоритетных задач – воспитание новой “советской” интеллигенции, в том числе специалистов высшей квалификации, что отмечалось на всех партийных пленумах и съездах.

**В сфере высшего образования** определяющим, по примеру России, было разрушение “старой царской системы”, в частности, классических гимназий, университетов, духовных учебных заведений, а также характерной чертой и признаком модернизации по-большевистски [Кузьменко, 2004: 66-80]. Однако руководство Наркомпроса УССР не намеревалось копировать опыт Российской

Федерации, а хотело осуществить свой собственный, с учетом специфики Украины, путь развития высшего образования. Учитывая это, утверждена новая модель высшего образования УССР, согласно которому на базе ликвидированных университетов в Киеве, Харькове, Одессе, Екатеринославе и Каменец-Подольске *создавались институты народного образования*, которые стали основным типом высшего учебного заведения того времени и требовали новых научных и научно педагогических кадров высшей квалификации.

Неоднозначным было отношение советской власти к профессорско-преподавательским кадрам в начале 20-х гг., поскольку партийное руководство не могло уступить идеологией и считало дореволюционную профессию носителем враждебной буржуазной идеологии, которая лишь замаскировалась и ожидает подходящего времени для свержения советской власти. Порядок назначения на педагогические должности в высшей школе демонстрировал полное бесправие профессуры, и профсоюзам было предоставлено право рекомендовать или давать мотивированное предостережение против того или иного кандидата на педагогическую должность с учетом наличия рекомендаций партийных ячеек. При таких условиях комплектования педагогического состава высшей школы прежде оценивалась не профессиональная подготовка или научная квалификация специалиста, а политическая благонадежность. Именно поэтому основным требованием времени стали подготовка новых преподавательских кадров, с одной стороны, по социальному признаку – преимущественно из рабочих и крестьян, которые постепенно вытеснили дооктябрьскую профессию, с другой – принадлежность к комсомольской организации или большевистской партии [Центральний державний архів вищих органів влади та управління України]. В целом прослеживается *классово-партийный принцип в подборе кадров на научно - педагогическую работу* в высшие учебные заведения республики.

После закрытия университетов нерешенными в СНК УССР оставались вопросы **в сфере научной деятельности**, в частности, где должны осуществляться научные исследования, кто будет заниматься управленческой деятельностью и т.п. Для организации, обеспечения и контроля за научно-исследовательской работой учреждений и подготовкой научных кадров высшей квалификации в

1921 г. *создан Научный комитет* при Наркомпросе УССР [Цдаво України, 166]. Решено научные исследования проводить в научно-исследовательских кафедрах на базе тех ресурсов, которые были в университетах. *Главная задача научно-исследовательских кафедр* заключалась в “разработке под руководством наиболее известных ученых-исследователей научных проблем и подготовке к научной и преподавательской деятельности лиц, которые стремятся заниматься научной деятельностью и имеют для этого необходимые знания и умения” [Ряппо, 1922: 112-116]. Была установлена предельная численность аспирантов в количестве 10 человек, которые могли быть прикреплены к кафедре. В 1921-1922 гг. были открыты первые 53 кафедры, где насчитывалось 295 научных работников и 121 аспирант. Уже на начало 1927 г. в 86 научно-исследовательских кафедрах насчитывалось 866 аспирантов, из которых 51 аспирант учился в области педагогических наук [Цдаво України, 2717], [Всеукраїнський комітет Всесоюзної професійної спілки правників освіти. Оп. 1. Спр. 1051.- 219 арк. – Арк. 63]. Увеличение численности аспирантов в 1920-х гг. дает основания для выявления *образовательно- динамической* тенденции в подготовке кадров высшей квалификации, впрочем во всех отчетах Наркомпроса УССР подчеркивалась необходимость специалистов высшей квалификации в области педагогических и медицинских наук. В целом создание научно-исследовательских кафедр послужило фундаментом для подготовки специалистов высшей квалификации и преодоления кадрового дефицита в республике.

Одним из весомых достижений руководства УССР, которое повлияло на подготовку научных и научно-педагогических кадров через аспирантуру и определило творческий потенциал украинской науки на века вперед, оказалось *создание Украинской академии наук* (1918 г.). Главными ее задачами согласно уставу была поддержка, координация и организация научно-творческой деятельности всех научных институтов, отделов, объединений, студий и лабораторий, а также отдельных граждан УССР в пользу коммунистического общества [Цдаво України, 166], [Народний комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 2. Спр. 451. – 634 арк]. При Академии существовала *Научно-педагогическая комиссия*, которая перешла от Украинского научного общества и осуществляла обеспечение

научного обоснования историко-теоретических проблем образовательного процесса в Украине. В комиссии образовалось две секции - методики педагогической работы секция охраны здоровья детей с Институтом физической культуры [Історія Академії наук України 1918-1993, 1994: 318].

Исключительно важным в контексте нашего исследования является становление и *развитие педагогической науки и образования*, теоретические основы которой провозгласил заместитель Наркомпроса УССР Я. Ряппо в своем докладе “Новый этап реформы педагогического образования” (1923 г.) [Цдаво України, 166], [Народний комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 2. Спр. 778. – 673 арк.]. Он предложил новый этап *реформирования педагогического образования*, который предусматривал изменение в: структуре, учебных планах и программах институтов народного образования, преподавательском составе, учитывая его соответствие и пригодность, студенческом контингенте и его готовности как потенциальных педагогов и методах работы в области педагогического образования. Отмечалось, что подготовка преподавателей (новой профессуры) для институтов происходит “при научно-исследовательских кафедрах в лице аспирантов” [Цдаво України, 166], [Народний комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 2. Спр. 778. – 673 арк. – Арк. 189].

Одними из первых учреждений в области педагогической науки в Украине было создание Киевской научно-исследовательской кафедры педологии (1921 г.) [Цдаво України. 166], [Народний комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 2. Спр. 463. – 231 арк.], а также научно-исследовательской кафедры педологии при Одесском Педологический институте и Ассоциации научной педагогики при Одесском губернском отделе народного образования. Следует напомнить, что в 1920-х гг. особенно распространена была именно педология (не педагогика) – это комплексная наука о ребенке и охватывала своим содержанием анатомию, физиологию, биологию, психологию, педагогику и социологию ребенка [Сухомлинська, 1994: 107-116].

Стратегическим шагом в развитии педагогической науки была реорганизация основанной в 1923 г. Харьковской научно-исследовательской кафедры педагогики в Научно-исследовательский институт педагогики (1925 г.) [Цдаво України, 166], [Народний

комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 4. Спр. 231. – 169 арк]. В состав Института входили четыре секции (рефлексологии, социальной педагогики, истории педагогики и образования, методики и дидактики, с подсекциями социального воспитания, профессионального образования и политического образования) и одна постоянная программно-методическая комиссия [Цдаво України, 166], [Народний комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 2. Спр. 1206. – 113 арк.]. В 1929 г., когда структура Института окончательно сформировалась, научную работу в нем проводили 9 действительных членов Академии педагогических наук СССР, 11 руководителей отделов и секций, 21 научный сотрудник, 75 аспирантов – всего 116 человек [Научно-исследовательский институт педагогики Украинской ССР (1926 – 1976 гг.), 1976: 111]. Основными функциями Института были: научные разработки актуальных вопросов единой науки о воспитании и обучении детства, юношества и взрослых; подготовка квалифицированных работников педагогической науки и преподавателей высших учебных заведений в области педагогики; проведение научных консультаций по всем педагогическим вопросам, возникающих в процессе труда соответствующих государственных и общественных институтов; содействие объединению научно-педагогической работе, которую проводили в научно-исследовательских кафедрах, кабинетах, станциях, лабораториях, педагогических институтах [Цдаво України, Ф.166. Народний комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 4. Спр. 231. – 169 арк.]. В дальнейшем на протяжении всего прошлого века и в настоящее время именно Научно-исследовательский институт педагогики считается научным центром украинской советской педагогики и обеспечил рост многих поколений выдающихся ученых, педагогов Украины.

Рассматривая сферу подготовки научных и научно-педагогических кадров высшей квалификации, следует обратить внимание на стремление руководства республики развернуть ее в плоскость самостоятельной системы, которая была отражением тогдашних вызовов с характерными противоречивыми тенденциями. Прежде всего принимаются *первые нормативно-правовые акты*, которые регламентировали подготовку научных кадров через аспирантуру. В частности, Научный комитет Наркомпроса УССР разработал Правила

поступления в аспирантуру (1922 г., 1925 г.), в которых представлены требования к поступающим и процедуру зачисления [Справочник аспиранта, 1928: 56]. Претенденты в аспирантуру должны были составить коллоквиумы с “марксовского минимума” – марксистско-ленинской методологии, украинского и одного или двух иностранных языков. Однако при приеме в аспирантуру большая часть кандидатов (коммунисты, выходцы из рабочих и крестьян, которых принимали в первую очередь) показывали низкий уровень знаний [Цдаво України, 166], [Народний комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 8. Спр. 440. – 186 арк.]. Особенно важным для зачисления в аспирантуру было наличие рекомендаций профсоюзных, партийных и комсомольских ячеек. Впоследствии представления общественно-политической характеристики на кандидата в аспиранты от администрации заведения или учреждения стало обязательным требованием при утверждении в Научном комитете Наркомпроса.

Одна из важных проблем, которая возникла и нуждалась в неотложном решении – обеспечение организационной формы аспирантуры. Учитывая это, утвержден “Общий план работы аспирантов” на каждый год подготовки и соответствующая отчетность [Цдаво України, 166], [Народний комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 2. Спр. 1206. – 113 арк., арк. 45-46]. Аспиранты привлекались к педагогической работе и готовились к преподавательской деятельности, поскольку последняя считалась одной из составляющих в подготовке аспиранта.

После завершения обучения и публикации объявления в газете “Коммунист” аспирант должен публично на заседании кафедры защитить свою научную работу. Если принималось решение о том, что научная работа была выдающимся исследованием, кафедра после утверждения президиумом Управления науки Наркомпроса могла перевести аспиранта на должность ее научного сотрудника и выдать удостоверение об обучении в аспирантуре.

Аспиранты пользовались всеми правами научного сотрудника, в том числе, получение отпусков, командировок, участие в конференциях, освобождение от военных обязательств в установленном законодательством порядке. Впрочем главными проблемами подготовки научных и научно- педагогических кадров

через аспирантуру, которые требовали существенного решения, были: загруженность аспирантов другими видами работ; неудовлетворительное состояние материального и квартирного обеспечения; отсутствие библиотечных фондов, особенно в научных учреждениях; своевременность выполнения программы запланированных занятий и т.п. [Цдаво України, 166], [Народний комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 2. Спр. 458. – 224 арк. – арк. 201].

Новые перспективы по подготовке ученых открылись после образования института аспирантуры при высших учебных заведениях в соответствии с “Положением о руководстве делом подготовки научных работников”, которое было принято в 1925 г. Советом Народных Комиссаров СССР [Справочник аспиранта, 1928: 14], а также при научно-исследовательских учреждениях в соответствии с постановлением СНК УССР “Устава об аспирантуре научно -исследовательских учреждений УССР” (1929 г.) [Цдаво України, 166], [Народний комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 6 т. 5. Спр. 7717. – 229 арк. – арк. 161]. Аспирантами впервые официально стали называть лиц, являющимися подготовленными к научно-педагогической деятельности. Перед ними выдвигались задачи обязательного изучения иностранного языка и общественного минимума, вместе с овладением методологии и методики исследования и теоретических основ выбранного направления науки. Этими документами фактически были заложены основы государственной системы подготовки научных кадров через аспирантуру в Украине.

С образованием института аспирантуры с 1922 г. *введено планирование* и прочно утвердились соответствующие плановые показатели по подготовке научных кадров. Со временем указанное направление выделилось в самостоятельную отрасль и стало рассматриваться в общегосударственном масштабе, начиная со второй половины 20-х годов прошлого века. Так, в 1926 г. был утвержден Пятилетний план подготовки научных работников и преподавателей высших учебных заведений Украины, в котором предусмотрены показатели приема и выпуска аспирантов в научно-исследовательских учреждениях [Цдаво України, 166], [Народний комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 6 т. 1. Спр. 605. – 190 арк.–

арк.185]. В частности, показатели приема в аспирантуру выросли с 113 человек в 1926 г. до 296 человек в 1929 г.

С целью всестороннего изучения социального, партийного и продуктивного состава и освобождение учебных заведений от “малополезных советской власти” элементов систематические “чистки” проводились и среди аспирантов. На аспирантов, которые были на учете в управлении науки, были заведены специальные карточки для перерегистрации, содержащие данные о национальности, родном языке, семейном положении, партийности, принадлежности к профсоюзам, социальном происхождении, материальном положении и т.д. [Цдаво України, 166], [Народний комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 2. Спр. 458. – 224 арк].

В **сфере аттестации специалистов высшей квалификации** реформирования начались в 1919 г. изданием декретов СНК УССР, согласно которым, как и в России, отменены научные степени, ученые звания и все, связанные с ними привилегии и преимущества, которые существовали до 1917 г. [Цдаво України, 166], [Народний комісаріат освіти Української РСР. Оп. 1. Спр. 276. – 66 арк]. То есть, были отменены ученые степени: магистр – доктор наук, и ученые звания: приват-доцент и профессор. Однако в отличие от России, СНК УССР понимал, что ученая степень играет роль “стимула для работников науки”, поэтому в Кодексе законов о народном образовании УССР (1922 г.) утверждено ученую степень, что определяет “высшую ученую квалификацию, и присуждается лицам, зарекомендовавшим себя научными исследованиями” [Кодекс законов о народном просвещении УССР от 1 ноября 1922 г., 1922: 729]. Во исполнение этого Кодекса Наркомпрос принял “Положение об ученой степени” (1922 г.) [О порядке присуждения ученой степени, 1922: 23-24] и “Инструкцию по проведению Положения об ученой степени” (1922 г.) [Инструкция по проведению положения об ученой степени, 1923, 23], которые в 1925 г. были усовершенствованы. Согласно этим нормативно-правовым актам регламентировано процесс присуждения ученой степени, что на протяжении многих лет вперед оставалось неизменным, в частности, определены требования к претендентам, перечень отраслей наук, в том числе, педагогики (педологии), из которых присуждалась ученая степень, процедуру проведения защиты на соискание ученой степени, внедрена



деятельность комиссий, которые присуждали ученую степень и т.п. Так в УССР в 1920-х гг. было начато возрождение национальной системы аттестации научных и научно-педагогических кадров высшей квалификации и, в отличие от России, введено присуждение единственной в то время ученой степени – доктора наук, которое действовало до 1934 г., когда было утверждено соответствующее положение в СССР.

**Выводы.** Таким образом в 1919-1929-е гг. в Украине были заложены основы национальной модели подготовки научных и научно-педагогических кадров высшей квалификации, которая отличалась от российской отраслевой схемой и структурой, имела собственную управленческую вертикаль. Функционально и организационно она была советской с усиленной идеологизацией образовательно-духовной жизни общества, поэтому принципы самоуправления обусловили и соответствующий статус республиканской номенклатуры, которым был Народный Комиссариат Просвещения Украины.

Осуществленный историко-педагогический анализ исследуемой проблемы на основе системно-структурного, историографического, культурологического, исторического реконструкции знания, историко-национального, историко-образовательного подходов позволил обосновать противоречивые тенденции, которые способствовали или препятствовали реализации подготовки научных и научно-педагогических кадров высшей квалификации.

К первой прогрессивной группе тенденций подготовки научных и научно-педагогических кадров высшей квалификации периода 1919-1929 гг. относятся следующие. В социально-политической сфере: проведение политики украинизации во всех сферах жизни и восстановления национальной культуры. В сфере высшего образования: формирование национальной системы образования; нормативно-правового обеспечения деятельности высших учебных заведений и создание нового типа высших учебных заведений – институтов народного образования. В сфере научной деятельности: основании Академии наук Украины; создание научно-исследовательских кафедр и научно-исследовательских институтов; начало развития педагогической науки и создание кафедр педагогики (педологии) и Научно-исследовательского института

педагогике Украины. В сфере подготовки научных и научно-педагогических кадров через аспирантуру: принятие первых нормативно-правовых актов, регламентирующих государственную систему подготовки специалистов высшей квалификации; организационное обеспечение деятельности аспирантуры; предоставление аспирантам прав научного сотрудника; рост планов набора в аспирантуру и общей численности аспирантов. В сфере аттестации специалистов высшей квалификации нормативно-правовое обеспечение присуждения ученой степени доктора наук; утверждении перечня научных специальностей для присуждения ученой степени; принятие требований к соискателям ученой степени и процедуры защиты диссертации.

Ко второй регрессивной группе тенденций, которые присущи процессу подготовки научных и научно-педагогических кадров высшей квалификации периода 1919-1929 гг., относятся следующие. В социально-политической сфере: усиление коммунистической идеологизации образовательно-духовной жизни общества, внедрение политических преследований, массовых репрессий и физического уничтожения украинской творческой научной интеллигенции. В сфере высшего образования: ликвидация университетов, провозглашение классово-партийного принципа в подборе кадров на научную и научно-педагогическую работу. В сфере научной деятельности и аттестации специалистов высшей квалификации: создание Научного комитета при Наркомпросе УССР и комиссий по присуждению ученой степени, что послужило началом централизованного партийно-государственного механизма контроля и управления в сфере образования и науки. В сфере подготовки научных и научно-педагогических кадров через аспирантуру: введение централизованного планирования; провозглашение классово-партийного принципа в подборе кадров в аспирантуру; осуществление контроля за персональным составом аспирантов и проведение аттестаций с целью политических преследований.

Учитывая указанное выше, требует отдельного изучения вопрос о подготовке научных и научно-педагогических кадров высшей квалификации в Украине в период 1930-1939 гг., что и будет предметом наших дальнейших научных поисков.

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# Humanum

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## ***Die Rolle des Krisenmanagements bei einer Prädiktion von Betriebskrisen***

### ***The role of crisis management in a prediction of operational crises***

**Key words:** *Crisis management. Corporate crisis. Risks*

#### **Summary**

*The business environment today is characterized by an increase in globalization and the growing competitive pressures. Above mentioned issues increased number of business crises as well as the extension of the risks to the stability of the business environment. The company management must therefore currently manage the increased demands, flexibly respond to the first signs of the crisis and also prove to assess imminent danger and even eliminate this danger. If an enterprise undergoes a crisis it must provide the necessary tools to overcome crisis. Business management in a crisis is forcing business managers to use innovative methods and management techniques that are adequate in a crisis environment. The paper deals with the description of potential crises in the company*

*under the curve of the business life cycle, with possible causes and their coping.*

### **Einleitung**

Das Krisenmanagement stellt ein Manager-Werkzeug vor, dessen effektive Nutzung und richtiges Timing die Bedingung des Erfolges und der Umwandlung ungünstiger Lage im Betrieb ist. Eine Realisierung von Praktiken des Krisenmanagements während einer langen Zeitperiode bringt aber einen negativen Einfluss auf die Betriebskultur mit sich, es ist also vorteilhaft, wenn eine Nutzung von Krisenmanagement in einer Firma nicht länger als ein Jahr dauert. Bei einer markanten Überschreitung dieser Periode entsteht ein Problem mit der Entwicklungsrichtung des Betriebes und der Befreiung des kreativen Potenzials. Es ist nicht selten, das eine schnelle und wirkungsvolle Überwindung einer Krise das Betrieb noch verstärkt und trägt zu Erhöhung seiner Integrität und der Loyalität der Angestellten zu der Firma bei. Auch wenn eine Betriebskrise ein organischer und natürlicher Bestandteil des Lebenszyklus einer Firma ist, ist sie trotzdem ein aktuelles und wichtiges Problem der Wirtschaft auf ganzer Welt. Vielen Firmen gelingt es nämlich nicht eine Krise zu überwinden, und in seiner Tätigkeit weiterzumachen. Für viele Firmen stellt eine Krise eine Situation vor, dass eine weitere Existenz des Betriebes bedroht ist, und der Betrieb zu einem Zusammenbruch oder Liquidation tendiert.

### **Eine Betriebskrise**

Bei der Definierung des Begriffes Krise kann man [nach Gozora, 2000] sagen, dass *eine **Krise** irgendwelche Situation ist, die die Gesamtheit einer Firma, ihre Reputation oder ihre Beziehungen mit den Schlüsselzielgruppen bedroht, die manchmal auch durch ungünstige oder negative Medienwirkung verursacht wird.*

Eine Krise stellt vor:

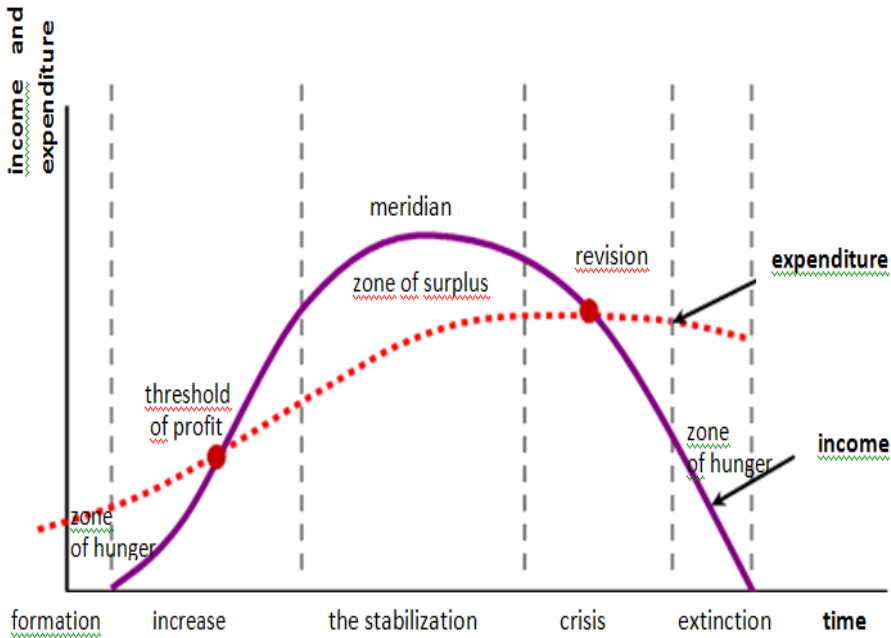
- einen Zustand, der von der normalen Situation abweicht,
- einen Zustand, bei welchem eine prinzipielle Umwandlung in den Monitoring Prozessen oder der Gesamttätigkeit entstehen kann,
- einen Zustand, der aufgrund der negativen, aber auch der positiven Informationen und Folgen entstehen kann.

Es ist möglich, sechs Grundmerkmale einer Betriebskrise wie folgt zu definieren:

- Der Betrieb hat oft weniger Informationen, als seine Gegenseite,
- Es ist ein enormes Interesse der Öffentlichkeit und der Medien an dem Problem entstanden,
- Es entstehen neue überraschende Situationen,
- Die entstandene Situation hat unerwartete und schnelle Entwicklung,
- Es ist nicht ganz möglich, die Publizität zu entstandenem Thema aus der Seite der Firma zu beeinflussen,
- Die Manager und verantwortliche Mitarbeiter spüren Panik und Angst aus nächster Entwicklung.

Allein das Entstehen einer Krise muss man gleich bei ihrer Geburtsstunde suchen. Ein Erreger kann zum Beispiel ein Fehler in der Produktion sein, aber genauso auch ökonomische Problemen in dem Betrieb, eine Naturkatastrophe, eine Attacke der Konkurrenz usw. Alle Krisen noch früher als die entstehen zu erkennen, zu definieren und zu stoppen, stellt die Bemühung der Mehrheit von den verantwortlichen Manager. Die Wirklichkeit, dass sich ein Betrieb in einem Stadium der Krise befindet, kann man aus eigener Definition der Krise ablesen, die eine zukünftige Existenz und Prosperität bedrohende Situation vorstellt. Es kommt zur Vertrauenswürdigkeitssenkung, es verschlechtern sich ökonomische Prognosen, oder ist sogar eigene Existenz der Firma bedroht. Lebenslauf eines Betriebes stellt sich in den Zyklen vor, und die Krisensituation kann in jeder Phase der Tätigkeit des Betriebes entstehen, weil sich in solchen Zyklen der Produkte oder Dienstleistungen der Lebenslauf eines solchen Betriebes abspielt.

Auf dem Bild 1 befindet sich graphische Darstellung eines Lebenszyklus eines Betriebes mit der Hilfe von Einkommen und Ausgaben in Abhängigkeit von der Zeit.

**Bil.1** Die Kurve des Lebenslaufes des Betriebes

Quelle: eigene Verarbeitung nach Mihok, J.-Kádarová, J.

Die Kurve des Lebenslaufes des Betriebes beeinflusst das Lebenszyklus der Produkte, die das Betrieb produziert und verkauft, oder der Dienstleistungen, die das Betrieb auf dem Markt anbietet. Folgend kopiert der Markterfolgreich der Produkte und der Dienstleistungen des Betriebes den Erfolgreich und die Effektivität von eigenem Betrieb.

Ein Grundmodell des Lebenszyklus des Betriebes beinhaltet manche Phasen. Durch diese Phasen kann ein Betrieb, muss es aber nicht, während seiner Existenz durchgehen. Zu den **Grundphasen des Lebenszyklus des Betriebes** gehören:



- die Gründung und das Entstehen des Betriebes,
- ein Wachstum des Betriebes,
- eine Stabilisierung des Betriebes,
- eine Krise des Betriebes
- eine Auflösung des Betriebes

Die Betriebe unterscheiden sich voneinander durch eine Gesamtlänge des Lebenszyklus des Betriebes, und auch die Länge von einzigen Phasen des Lebenszyklus, der in einzelnen Betrieben verschieden ist. Die Etappe zwischen dem Entstehen und der Auflösung muss nicht unbedingt alle Phasen des Lebenszyklus beinhalten. Ein Verlauf des Lebenszyklus der Betriebe [Mihok und Vidová, 2007] beeinflussen verschiedene interne und externe Bedingungen fürs Unternehmen, z.B. die unternehmerische Aktivität von Konkurrenzfirmen, die Fiskalpolitik des Staates, die Innovationspolitik des Betriebes, die Qualifikation der Mitarbeiter, der Kostenaufwand von logistischen Tätigkeiten, der Kostenaufwand des Transformierungsprozesses, usw., die die Tätigkeit und den Erfolg der Firma beeinflussen. Ein Lebenszyklus spricht über die Stufe der Entwicklung des Betriebes, seiner Positionierung auf dem Markt aus, und bildet die Ausgangsinformationen für die Prognostizierung von zukünftiger Existenz und Entwicklung des Betriebes. Zu einer Krise oder einem Untergang kann noch früher kommen, als der Betrieb die Phase der Stabilisierung erreicht.

Bei dem Wachstum des Betriebes, der sich durch zwei Grundverfahren, nämlich internes und externes Wachstum erzielen kann, muss das Management die folgende Wachstumskurve früher bilden, als die vorgehende zu senken beginnt. Man setzt ständiges Innovationswachstum voraus. Die Betriebe müssen jede Chance für das Wachstum aussuchen und ausnutzen. Die Phase der Krise kann sich teilweise in der Zone des Überflusses befinden, teilweise auch nach dem Punkt der Revision in der Hungerzone. Ein Einstieg der Krise in der Zone des Überflusses ist nur schwer zu entdecken. Man kann ihn nur mit der Hilfe der Senkung der Einkommenskurve, und damit auch der Senkung der Gewinne zu identifizieren. Es kann durch schwache Marktposition, höheren Aufwand im Vergleich mit der Konkurrenz, oder andere schwache Seiten der unternehmerischen Aktivitäten verursacht werden.

Oft kommt es zu einer Krise und einem Untergang ohne die Phase der Stabilisierung zu erzielen, oder nach einer Phase der Krise muss nicht ein Untergang kommen, sondern es folgt weiteres Wachstum.

Die Betriebskrisen sind nicht immer eine Widerspiegelung von schwacher Führung des Betriebes, sondern manchmal die Widerspiegelung des Bedürfnisses der wichtigen Veränderungen in dem Betrieb. Die Praxis bestätigt, dass sich die Betriebe in die Situation der Krise jedes vierte oder fünfte Jahr geraten können. Eine Krise ist dafür ein natürlicher und unvermeidlicher Bestandteil der Existenz von jedem Betrieb. Die Betriebe kann man folgend je nach ihren Leistungsfähigkeit und ihrer Effektivität auf vier Grundgruppen verteilen:

- **Scheinbar erfolgreiche Betriebe**, die gute Resultate erzielen, das Management arbeitet in einer Vorstellung, dass man nichts zu verbessern und zu ändern braucht. Nach einem problemlosen Lebenszyklus des Betriebes kommt plötzlich eine Krise, auf die die Betriebe nicht vorbereitet sind. Auch in dem besten Betrieb gibt es die Dinge, die zu verbessern sind.

- **Die Betriebe, die die Probleme mit der Leistungsfähigkeit und Effektivität** im Vergleich mit der Konkurrenz haben. Management des Betriebes ist sich bewusst, dass etwas nicht in Ordnung ist, oft aber keine exakten Kennzahlen für die Auswertung der Leistungsfähigkeitsparameter hat. Es fehlt oft eine sorgfältige Analyse von Bereichen und Ursachen des Rückstands im Vergleich mit der Konkurrenz. Wenn sich ein Betrieb in einer so beschriebener Situation befindet, braucht man ein durchdachtes Vorfahren der Lösung so vorzubereiten, damit die einzelnen Methoden an richtigen Orten und in richtiger Reihenfolge verwendet werden.

- **Die Betriebe, die die Leistungskrise ignorieren**, die zu eigenem Untergang tendieren. In solchem Betrieb vermehren und konservieren sich unnötige Prozesse und Tätigkeiten, die durch Teams von Mitarbeitern realisiert sind. Es wachsen die Bestände, Fixkosten, es stockt die Kommunikation an den Arbeitsplätzen, und es wächst die Unbereitschaft die Probleme zu lösen. Die Mitarbeiter halten solchen Zustand für normal. In solchem Fall ist es nötig, ein schnelles Projekt der Reduzierung des Betriebes vorzubereiten, der sehr gut durchdacht, und auf der Basis von gründlicher Analyse von allen Teilen des Betriebes zusammengesetzt

sein sollte, um eine weitere Senkung der Funktionsfähigkeit zu verhindern.

- **Die Betriebe mit einer akut bedrohten Existenz**, die stufenweise die Probleme mit der Liquidität haben, und beginnen zu untergehen. Es entstehen die Probleme mit den Inhabern, Gewerkschaften, Gläubigern, Kunden, und es droht ein Bankrott.

### **Krisenmanagement**

Die Betriebe, die sich mit externen und internen Faktoren der Veränderungen nicht ausgleichen können, geraten in einen Krisenzustand. Das Verhältnis von subjektiven (internen) und objektiven (externen) Faktoren schätzt man meistens auf 80:20 zugunsten subjektiver Faktoren.

Dabei kann man zu den subjektiven Quellen der Krise meistens die Leitung des Betriebes rechnen, d.h. Topmanagement (40 %) und die Eigentümer (40%). Es beeinflusst sie auch interne ökonomische Struktur des Betriebes. Oft ist es eine chaotische Führung, Unkenntnis des Marktes und eigenen Unternehmens, Fehlentscheidungen, Spekulationen, niedriges Niveau von Kapitalausstattung, hohe Kosten fürs Gewinnen von fremden Ressourcen, ungenügende Auswertung von Produktionsprozessen, usw.

Zu den objektiven Quellen der Krise gehört meistens die unternehmerische Umgebung (eine Krise von gesellschaftlich-ökonomischem Charakter). Man kann hier zum Beispiel unerwartete Marktentwicklung, Kapazitätsüberhang der Produktion in der Branche, ungünstige Entwicklung der Steuern, des Zinsensrates, der Währungskursen, der Kriegskonflikte, aber auch heutige weltliche wirtschaftliche und finanzielle Krise, staatliche Wirtschaftspolitik, Entwicklung der politischen Situation in entscheidenden Regionen der Welt, die Situation auf den Kapitalmärkten u. a. anordnen. Eine Krisensituation entsteht stufenweise und es existieren verschiedene Andeutungen eines unerwünschten Zustandes. Zu objektiven Quellen der Krise rechnet man auch höhere Macht (sachliche Krise), vor allem Natureinflüsse - die Brände, Überflutungen, Schneekalamitäten, Eruptionen, Epidemien, aber auch verschiedene technische Krisen, zum Beispiel Stilllegung der Gasversorgung, flächendeckende Stilllegungen der elektrischen Versorgung usw. Hier fehlen meistens die Krisensymptome, sie sind schwer vorherzusagen und fordern sofortige Reaktion.

Wenn es empirisch bewiesen ist, dass in 80% der Fälle gerade die Wirkung von subjektiven Faktoren verantwortlich fürs Entstehen einer Betriebskrise ist, musste man folgend eine Systemlösung applizieren - das **Risikomanagement**.

Wir verstehen es als ein Gesamtprozess, der die Risiken schätzt und alle möglichen Faktoren des Risikos in der Betriebsstruktur berücksichtigt. Neue entstehende Kategorien des Risikomanagements ja nach Autorinnen Varcholová, T. und Dubovická, L. (2008) in den Bedingungen der nicht finanziellen Betriebe: Management des unternehmerischen Risikos (Business Risk Management, BRM), Risikomanagement in den Firmen (Enterprise Risk Management, ERM) und Gesamtbetriebliches Risikomanagement (Enterprise- Wide Risk Management, EWRM) vergrößern die Bedeutung einer Systemlösung. Neue Aufgabe des Risikomanagements ist das eigene Risiko in die unternehmerische Tätigkeit als seinen aktiven Bestandteil zu integrieren, und das mit dem Ausgleich von seinen sowohl positiven, als auch negativen Seiten. In der Gegenwart gehört dem Krisenmanagement schon eine bedeutsame Stelle in den Betrieben. Alle erwähnten Strömungen des Krisenmanagements haben versucht, die Lösungen für dieselben Probleme anzubieten:

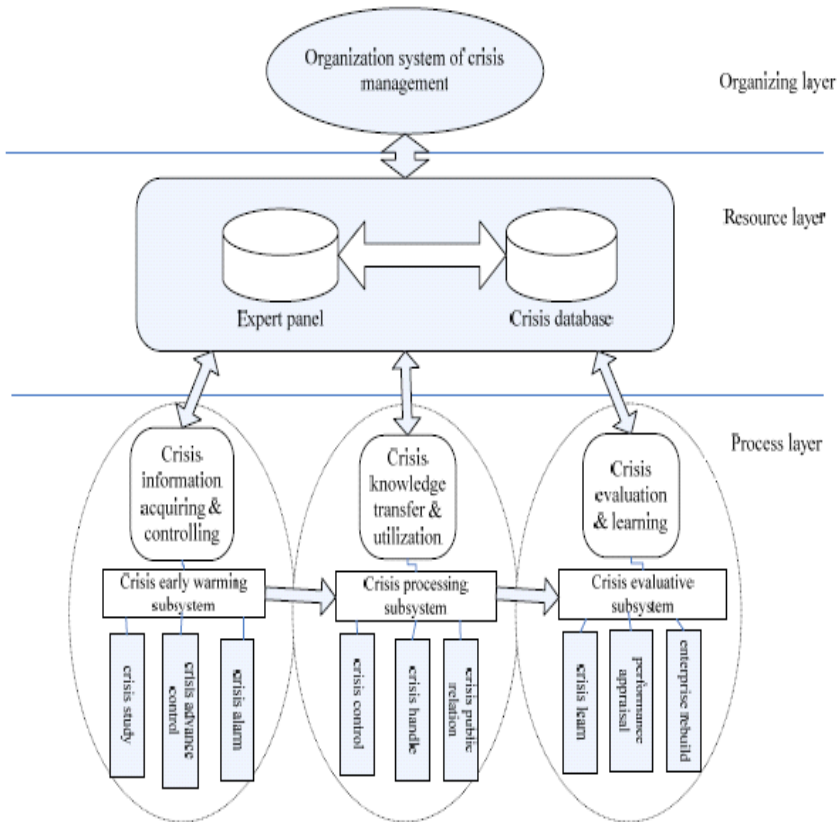
- zu verstehen, warum es schwer ist, die Krisen vorherzusagen,
- die reale Bemühung um die Prävention zu beginnen,
- die Kontrolle über der Tätigkeit des Betriebes wiederzuerwerben

Eine Praktizierung des Krisenmanagements wurde auf die Realisierung von prioritären Risikoanalysen, Planungsbildung, wie man in dem Notzustand reagiert, die Vorbereitung und die Schulung der Manager, Realisation von Simulationsübungen, Absolvierung eines Trainings im Bereichen Massenmedien und Kommunikationstechniken gerichtet.

Je nach Zhihong, L.- Haiyan, W. (2009) Krisenmanagement Bild. 2 stellt ein komplexes Netz vor, das aus einer Organisationsschicht, einer Ressourcenschicht und einer Prozessschicht besteht.

*Die Organisationsschicht (Organizing layer)* stellt eine Struktur und Funktion des Personalnetzes des Betriebes vor

**Bild 2.** Struktur des Krisenmanagements aufgrund der Anforderungen der Kenntnisse.



Quelle: Zhihong Li -Haiyang Wang: Research on the Enterprise Crisis Management System Basic on Knowledge Demand

*Ressourcenschicht (Resource layer)*, oder die Schicht der Kenntnisse, die implizite und explizite Kenntnisse der Fachleute beinhaltet, wo vor allem die Kenntnisse die Unsicherheit verkleinern, und eine Unterstützung bei dem Entscheidungsprozess anbieten.

*Prozessenschicht (Process layer)* beinhaltet drei Subsysteme, wie Frühwarnungssystem vor der Krise, System der Verarbeitung der Krise und dann Auswertungssystem nach dem Ende der Krise. Sie beinhaltet riesige Mengen der Informationen über die Krise. Bedeutender Teil von ihnen ist dann unter verschiedene Subjekte verteilt.

*Panel der Experten* stellen die Fachleute im Krisenmanagement vor, technische Experten mit einer wichtigen Aufgabe bei den Entscheidungsprozessen, Vertreter für Public Relations, Vertreter der Kunden, Verbraucher und andere. Manche Experten bilden einen Teil des Teams des Krisenmanagements, die Anderen stellen externe Spezialisten vor, die während der Lösung der Krise eingeladen sind. Sie bieten nur Referenzen oder technische Beratung an, die Entscheidungskompetenzen hat nur das Team des Krisenmanagements des Betriebes.

*Krisendatenbank* stellt den Kern des Systems des Managements der Betriebskrise. In der Datenbank sind die Kenntnisse über der Krise versammelt und aufbewahrt, die eine wirkungsvolle Art anbieten, die Kenntnisse zu übergeben und auszutauschen. Es ist eine Basis von vertraulichen Kenntnissen und Innovationen. Sie anerkennt das Erwerben der Krisenkenntnisse, appliziert die Forderung der Technologiekenntnisse, Ausnutzung und Nachvollziehung der Technologien.

Die Internationale Organisation für die Normalisierung (ISO) hat im November 2009 lang erwartete erste internationale Norm für das Management der Risiken ISO 31000:2009 unter dem Namen Risikomanagement - Grundsätze und Anweisungen veröffentlicht. ISO 31000 wurde mit der Hilfe von Fachleuten aus der ganzen Welt entwickelt, aus verschiedenen Bereichen und Fächern. Sie hat den Organisationen allgemeine Anweisungen fürs Risikomanagement angeboten, ohne spezielle Berücksichtigung der Größe, des Typs der Organisation, Komplexität der Struktur, Tätigkeit oder Allokation. Wenn auch alle Organisationen das Risiko ein bisschen anders leiten, stellt diese internationale Norm die Grundsätze vor, die man beibehalten muss, damit das Risikomanagement erfolgreich sei. Diese internationale Norm kann beliebige öffentliche, private oder gesellschaftliche Organisation, Assoziation, Gruppe oder Individuum ausnutzen. Deshalb ist sie nicht für manche Industrie-richtung oder Branche spezifisch.

Man kann sie während der Existenz der Firma für einen breiten Horizont der Tätigkeiten verwenden, inklusive der Strategie, der Entschei-

dungen, des Betriebes, der Funktionen, Projekte, Produkte, Dienstleistungen und des Eigentums. Man kann sie auf irgendwelchen Typ des Risikos, mit beliebigem Charakter applizieren, ohne Rücksicht darauf, ob es positive oder negative Wirkung hat.

Dann bei der Auswertung des Risikos verläuft eine Phase der Identifizierung des Risikos, eine Analyse des Risikos und seine Auswertung. Über sich nähernde Krise des Betriebes zeugen manche Warnsignale. Die kann man zum Beispiel aus Finanzbilanzen der Betriebe, oder aus der Ebene der Führung des Betriebes durch das Management, oder anderer laufenden Erscheinungen entdecken.

### **Warnsignale einer Betriebskrise**

Eine Analyse der Finanzdokumente ermöglicht existierende, oder sich nähernde Probleme der Firma zu entdecken. Die Informationen kann man aus der Bilanz, Gewinn- und Verlustrechnung und auch aus Cash flow - Übersicht erzielen. Die präventiven Maßnahmen, die selbst das Betrieb realisieren kann, stellen direkte Leitung von Finanzströmen in den und aus dem Betrieb, oder die Kenntnisse über Aufwandkosten. Sehr wichtig ist nach Hvizdová, E. (2013) auch die Bewältigung der Krisenkommunikation in einem Betrieb, der durch eine Krise betroffen ist, und das sowohl von interner Kommunikation im Bezug zu den Angestellten, als auch im Bezug zu der breiten Öffentlichkeit.

Wenn die Probleme mit Cash flow entstehen, ist es nach Zuzák.- Königová (2009) nur eine Abspiegelung der Mängel in einem anderen nicht Finanzbereich, die in der Vergangenheit entstanden sind, und nicht adäquat, oder erfolgreich gelöst waren. Das Management der Finanzflüsse kann man dann zur präventiven Schlussmaßnahme vergleichen, die der Betrieb noch imstande ist zu realisieren, zu dem letzten Rettungsboot vor einer akuten Krise.

**Tab. 1. Warnsignale scheinbare aus der Bilanz**

<b>Äußerung der Warnsignale aus der Bilanz</b>	<b>Identifikation möglicher Ursache</b>
Das Volumen des langfristigen Kapitals senkt	Symptome des Konsums von Fixkapital
Die Amortisation des langfristigen Kapitals wächst	Die Lösung der Probleme des Betriebs auf die Kosten von Beschaffung des langfristigen Kapitals
Die Beschaffung von langfristigem Kapital stagniert oder senkt	
Die Finanzflüsse im Bereich der Betriebsaktivitäten sind noch ohne ernste Probleme	Es droht eine Senkung der Produktivität der Arbeit im Betrieb
Die Erhöhung von Gesamtvolumen der Anforderungen nach der Fälligkeit	Verschlechterung von strukturellen Liquidität der Aktiva
Der Anstieg von Gesamtvolumen der Vorräte, vor allem Material	Verkaufsstörungen
Der Anstieg von kurzfristigen und langfristigen Schulden	Die Senkung der Zahlungsdisziplin der Kunden. Komplikationen der Beziehungen mit Kreditgeber (Banken)
Die Senkung der Schöpfung von Eigenkapital	Die Senkung der Effektivität der Prozesse der Verwertung
Steigende Bildung der Reserven für die Kursverluste	Die Verschlechterung von Export - Umgebung
Die Steigerung des Volumens von fremden Quellen, vor allem kurzfristige Verbindlichkeiten aus der Geschäftsverbindung nach der Fälligkeit	Die Substitution von legalen Schulden (zum Beispiel Bankkredite) für illegale Schulden (eigenwillige Verlängerung der Zahlungsfristen der Verbindlichkeiten Schlechtere Kundenbeziehungen

Quelle: Eigene Verarbeitung nach Mihok, J.-Vidová, J.: Ríadenie podniku v kríze, SĵF TU v Košiciach, Košice 2006 , ISBN 80-8073-533-6



**Tab. 2. Warnsignale aus der Gewinn- und Verlustrechnung**

<b>Die Äußerung der Warnsignale aus der Gewinn - und Verlustrechnung</b>	<b>Identifizierung der möglichen Ursache</b>
Die Senkung der Erlöse	Die Abschwächung der Vertriebsmöglichkeiten
Die Senkung der Handelsmarge	Langsame Innovation der Produktion
Die Senkung des Mehrwertes	
Der Anstieg von direkten Regie-Aufwendungen	Niedrigere Transparenz der Aufwandprozesse
Der Anstieg von indirekten Regie-Aufwendungen	Potentioneller Verlust des Vertrauens in eine mehr perspektive Entwicklung des Betriebes aus der Seite des Managements
Die Unfähigkeit immer größere Volumen der Aufwendungen auf Einzellprodukte, Arbeit und Dienstleistungen	
Höhere Bildung von Korrekturposten durch den Wirtschaftsprüfer empfohlen	
Höhere Bildung der Reserven durch den Wirtschaftsprüfer empfohlen	
Der Anstieg von Finanzkosten, vor allem Aufwandzinsen	Die Erhöhung von Kreditverschuldung, resp. schlechtere makroökonomische Position der Ökonomik mit folgender Steigerung der Kreditzinsen

Quelle: Eigene Verarbeitung nach: Mihok, J.-Vidová, J.: Riadenie podniku v kríze, Sjf TU v Košiciach, Košice 2006 , ISBN 80-8073-533-6

**Tab. 3. Warnsignale, die das Niveau der Professionalität der Leitung des Betriebes identifizieren**

Die Äußerung der Warnsignale von Betriebsmanagement	Identifikation der möglichen Ursachen
Unangemessener Druck auf den Vertragspartner zu äußerst Risiko-Maßnahmen	Niedriges professionelles Niveau des Managements in der Anfangsphase der Schuldner-Position
Die Verlust der Fähigkeit Risiken real zu sehen	Niedriges Niveau des Rechtsbewusstseins führend zum Verlust der Glaubwürdigkeit des Managements
Die Neigung zu nachträglichen Veränderungen der Verträge mit der Bedrohung ihres Nichteinhaltens	
Unzuverlässliches Einhalten der Verträge (sachlich auch zeitlich)	
Kleine Bereitschaft dem Kreditgeber die vorher verabredeten Informationen zu geben, resp. die zu korrigieren	
Große Schwankungen im Geldzufluss in den Betrieben, die nicht Saisoncharakter der Produktion haben	Die Bedrohung die Schuldnerpflicht nicht zu erfüllen
Die Lösung der Versicherungsbeziehungen mit abgetretener Vinkulation, resp. Zahlungsausfall der Versicherung	
Die Störungen in den Zahlungen für die Subjekte, die bei der Eintreibung so genannte 1. Gruppe der Gläubiger (Steuer, Sozialversicherung,...) bilden	
Die Auflösung (Liquidation) des Betriebes, resp. seine Transformation ohne Übernahme der Verbindlichkeiten des ursprünglichen Betriebes	Der Verlust der Interessen um den guten Namen des Betriebes oder direkte Defraudation des Betriebigentums
Negative ethisch-moralische Verän-	

<b>Die Äußerung der Warnsignale von Betriebsmanagement</b>	<b>Identifikation der möglichen Ursachen</b>
derungen in der Tätigkeit von Top-Management	
plötzliche Senkung von Kontokorrentkonto durch Umorientierung der Zahlungen auf ein anderes Konto in einer anderen Bank, die dem Betrieb keine Kredit- Dienstleistungen gewährt	Die Vorbereitung auf das Prozess der Verschlechterung der Zahlungsdziplin zu einem, oder mehreren Gläubigern
Keine Bereitschaft der Manager persönliche Verbindlichkeiten zu erfüllen	Der Verfall des rechtlichen Bewusstseins von Betriebsmanagern
Die Signale über Steigerung der gerichtlichen Verfahren	Der Verfall der Arbeits- und Rechtsbeziehungen zu den Mitarbeitern und den Vertragspartnern
Die Signale über die Steigerung der Unstimmigkeit in den Handelsbeziehungen	
Unangemessene Veränderungen im Gesellschaftszweck	Professionelle Unreife der Manager
Niedrige Arbeitsmoral	
Unwirksames Motivationssystem der Mitarbeiter	
Leichtsinniges Verlust von den entscheidenden Partnern	Die Bedrohung des Untergangs des Betriebes

Quelle: Eigene Verarbeitung nach: Mihok, J.-Vidová, J.: Riadenie podniku v kríze, SjF TU v Košiciach, Košice 2006 , ISBN 80-8073-533-6

## Schlufwort

Das Risikomanagement, so wie alle Manager - Systeme, hat während einer gewissen Periode entstanden, und der Prozess seiner Entwicklung ist noch nicht beendet. Mit der sich ändernden Gesellschaft, mit neuen Tatsachen, mit der Entwicklung des Lebenszykluses von eigenem Betrieb, ist es nötig das Entstehen von neuen Quellen der Risiken zu erwarten, die die Organisation noch vor ein Paar Jahren nicht lösen musste. Nur auf einer Basis von ständigen Diagnostizierung und Pflegen der Risiken kann sich ein Betrieb erfolgreich entwickeln in sich ändernden Umgebung.

Die Tätigkeit des Krisenmanagements im Betrieb endet nicht mit der Bewältigung der Krise, weil jede Krise solche Erfahrungen vorstellt, die mit den Informationen darüber verbunden sind, wie die Quellen der Krise abzuschaffen, oder wie die Schneide stumpf machen, wie für die Zukunft das Entstehen einer Krise zu verhindern, und auch wie man sich in der zukünftigen Krise verhalten soll. Nach der Lösung der Krise ist es vorteilhaft die Mitglieder des Projektteams einberufen, die auf der Lösung der Krise teilgenommen haben, und die erworbene Kenntnisse aus der Lösung des Krisenzustandes auszuwerten. Wenn diese Beratung so konzipiert ist, dass sie als eine gerichtete Aktivität zur Bildung des guten Rufes des Betriebes führen soll, und zur Dämmerung der Wirkungen von zukünftiger Krise, dann kann auf diesem Treffen auch die Öffentlichkeit teilzunehmen.

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## Wojciech Słomski

Wyższa Szkoła Finansów i Zarządzania w Warszawie  
ISM Słowakia

## Юрий Михайлович Лотман – человек, мыслитель, педагог

## Yuri Lotman – a man, a thinker, teacher

**Key words:** *teacher, Yuri Lotman, philosophy*

### Summary

*In the history of Soviet philosophy of science Yuri Lotman has a place because it is a world-class thinker, whose writings and in its content and in its form received recognition as a literary and philosophical communities. As usual in the stencil write articles for the general public, journalists, name YM Lotman needs no introduction. Indeed, a broad post-Soviet space of literary, cultural and educated middle-aged and older few such who would have never heard or seen his name in print. However, that should also be taken as a fact, and the name of the sphere of professional activity Juri Lotman likely know firsthand, having little idea about the main topics of the nature and philosophical and ideological direction of his works. However, educated people and those who have a clear idea about this*

*thinker, probably not quite imagine what is actually was a multiplicity of interests and scientific research Yuri Mikhailovich Lotman.*

В истории советской философской науки Юрий Михайлович Лотман занимает достойное место, поскольку он является мыслителем мирового уровня, чьи труды и по своему содержанию, и по своей форме получили признание как литературного, так и философского сообществ. Как обычно пишут в трафаретных статьях для широкой публики журналисты, имя Ю.М. Лотмана не нуждается в представлении. Действительно, на широком постсоветском пространстве среди литературно и культурно образованных людей среднего и старшего возраста мало таких, кто бы никогда не слышал или не встречал его имя в печати. Однако, что следует также принять как факт, имя и сферу профессиональной деятельности Юрия Лотмана скорее знают понаслышке, имея отдаленное представление об основной тематике, о характере и философско-мировоззренческой направленности его работ. Впрочем, и те образованные люди, кто имеет более явное представление об этом мыслителе, едва ли вполне представляют себе какова же на самом деле была разносторонность интересов и научных поисков Юрия Михайловича [Лотман, Успенский, 1974: 259-282]; [Лотман, Минц, 1974: 168-175]; [Лотман, 1976: 67-70]; [Лотман, 1981: 599-610]; [Лотман, 1986: 76-77]; [Лотман 1986: 155-163]; [Лотман, 1987: 10-21]; [Лотман, 1987: 7-11]; [Лотман, 1990: 2-3]. К тому же, что вне всякого сомнения, пониманию феномена Лотмана препятствует сложность проникновения в его мир высокой филологии и семиотических штудий, который был средой его научного бытия, миром в котором он жил. Обширный и значимый для лингвофилософии комплекс идей, который был выработан Ю.М. Лотманом и другими участниками Тартуско-московской семиотической школы, сегодня находит все большее число последователей и получает всё более широкое освещение как в отечественной научной литературе, так и в ряде диссертационных исследований [Александров, 1998: 180-192]; [Автономова, 2009: 338-369]; [Бетеа, 1996: 14-29]; [Библер, 1994: 278-286]; [Васильева, Лотман, 2005]; [Публикация, 1995: 175-179]; [Гаспаров, 1994: 299-303]; [Гаспаров, 1999: 415-426]; [Григорьев, Даниэль, Парадокс, 1998: 5-12]; [Егоров, 1999]; [Зайнетдинова, 2010]; [Каменская, 1995: 160-



174]; [Ким Су Кван, 2003]; [Киселева, 1996, 9–19]; [Козлов, 2000]; [Лахман, 1994: 192-214]; [Леута, 2003].

Родился Ю.М. Лотман 28 февраля 1922 года в Петрограде. Высшее университетское образование он получил на филологическом факультете Ленинградского университета, поступив туда в 1939 году без вступительных экзаменов по окончании средней школы с золотой медалью. Поскольку, начиная уже со школьной скамьи, он посещал лекции известных профессоров-филологов университета, то Юрий Лотман был посвящен в интересы филологических студентов и сразу оценил высокие достоинства преподавателей, которые читали лекции и вели семинары уже на первых курсах: М.К. Азадовского (курс фольклора), В.Я. Проппа (семинар по русскому фольклору, спецкурс по волшебной сказке), Г.А. Гуковского (курс «Введение в литературоведение»). Не удивительно поэтому, что уже тогда некоторые преподаватели университета заметили этого студента. Сестра Ю.М. Лотмана в своих воспоминаниях отмечает: «Гуковский, со свойственной ему горячностью заявивший как-то, что нет у нас ученого, который смог бы достаточно глубоко проанализировать творчество Баратынского, задумчиво добавил: «Впрочем, на экзамене мне отвечал мальчик – разбирал «Осень» Баратынского – он, пожалуй, сможет». Речь шла о восемнадцатилетнем Юре. Пропп, встретив Юру в университете после войны, обратился к нему в коридоре: «Постойте, Вы брат Лиды Лотман... Нет, Вы сами Лотман!» Этот оригинальный комплимент Юрий Михайлович запомнил на всю жизнь, он составлял предмет его гордости» [Лотман, 1995: 135]. Вскоре на научном семинаре Проппа на первом курсе Ю.М. Лотман сделал свой первый доклад.

В университете Юра познакомился с доцентом Николаем Ивановичем Мордовченко, исследователем творчества Белинского, журналистики и литературы первой половины XIX века. В последующем портрет Н.И. Мордовченко, человека исключительного обаяния, образцового ученого, безукоризненно порядочного, предельно строгого к себе Юрий Михайлович всегда держал у себя на рабочем столе. Но учёба в университете продолжалась не долго. В самом начале второго года студенчества Юрий Лотман был призван на срочную службу. Как известно, вторая половина 1930-х годов для людей, живших в Советском Союзе, ознаменовалась массовыми

арестами, почти в каждой семье были потери, все их видели, видел и Лотман, отмечая впоследствии, что в его классе у половины одноклассников родители были арестованы. Радость молодости поколения Ю.М. Лотмана омрачалась и другими политическими событиями: гражданской войной в Испании, укреплением и экспансией немецкого национал-социализма и постоянной угрозой войны. Поэтом подобно многим своим ровесникам-студентам, когда появился «ворошиловский указ», согласно которому призыву подлежали те, кому исполнилось 18 лет и несколько месяцев, а студенты лишались отсрочки, Юрий понял, что война стоит на пороге.

Для Юрия Михайловича, который вступил в войну рядовым-связистом самым важным периодом в его жизни, действительно, была война. Он был в войну рядовым, а позже стал сержантом. Имел боевые награды: 2 ордена и 7 медалей. Как вспоминают его младшие коллеги, он часто перед студентами вспоминал события военных лет, переживая их. Рассказывал о том, какими способами можно бить вшей. Как надо украсть у танкистов бочку, как эту бочку надо промыть, как туда чего напихать и так далее. Были и рассказы о самоубийстве. И это был какой-то важный для него момент. О том, как он понимал, что он не должен сдаться в плен и надо кончить жизнь самоубийством. А как кончить жизнь самоубийством, когда зима? Из чего можно застрелиться, из винтовки? Он же рядовой, у него нет пистолета, и сапогом невозможно надавить на курок. Это всё, наверное, шло от свирепого содержания приказа №227, попросту говоря, «Ни шагу назад!» Советский человек не должен попасть в плен к врагу, а особенно еврей, еврей-коммунист, а Юрий Михайлович стал коммунистом в 1942 году.

Говоря о боевых буднях Ю.М. Лотмана важно отметить, что он служил в связи артиллерии Резерва главного командования, которую часто перебрасывали с одного фронта на другой. Он участвовал во многих кровопролитных и страшных сражениях и почти все время был на передовой. Сестра вспоминает об одном из эпизодов из боевых будней брата, о котором он с улыбкой и как бы мимоходом поведал ей уже в конце 1980-х годов: «Дело было зимой, на Украине. Мороз страшный, градусов 30, ветер, поземка, и все время от пулеметных очередей рвется связь. Я ползаю по полю, уши завязаны

ушанкой. Чтобы соединить порванные пулеметными очередями провода, приходится работать без перчаток. Руки деревенеют, и только починишь в одном месте, перебивают провод в другом. Вдруг я что-то почувствовал. Оглянулся – надо мной стоит мой командир с револьвером и целится мне в затылок. Раз стрельнул – осечка, второй раз стрельнул – осечка. Он, представляешь, заплакал, и мне стал жаловаться: "Сволочи! Не могут командиру оружие почистить!" Я вскипела – эпический тон рассказа меня возмутил – и выкрикнула: «Его самого надо было расстрелять, гада!» – «Что ты, что ты, – возразил Юра, – а мне, представь, его жалко стало: только я налажу связь, ему звонят из штаба и матерят, что связи нет, и тут же связь обрывается. И вообще, я его понимал – он детдомовец, в детстве его били, недоедал, учиться было трудно – учился плохо, много в жизни было плохого, мало хорошего. У солдат нет авторитета» [Лотман, 1995: 138]. Уже один этот эпизод говорит невероятно много о человеке и солдате Ю.М. Лотмане, о его мужестве, истинно философском стоицизме, сопереживании о «другом».

По окончании войны Лотман не был сразу демобилизован, поскольку считалось, что он «не дослужил» требуемого, хотя из поколения солдат 1922 года рождения лишь 5% дожили до победы. В 1946-1950 годах Юрий Лотман завершал учёбу в Ленинградском университете. Но в силу известных причин (национальность), несмотря на то, что он всю войну воевал на передовой, был коммунистом с 1942 года, ему пришлось оставить Ленинград и уехать на периферию, чтобы где-то «затеряться». Так Ю.М. Лотман попал в Тарту, в сложную ситуацию: страна (Эстония) недавно оккупирована, есть университет с давними традициями [Тартуский университет имеет длительную историю. Основан шведским королём Густавом II Адольфом в 1632 году на территории Ливонии под именем *Academia Gustaviana*. Стал вторым университетом Швеции (после Уппсальского) — *Universitas Gustaviana*. Первым ректором Академии король Густав II Адольф назначил своего учителя и наставника, генерал-губернатора Ливонии, Ингрии и Карелии Юхана Шютте. В XVIII веке, после присоединения Эстляндии к России, не действовал, но был вновь открыт Александром I в 1802 году как немецкий *Universität Dorpat* (1802–1893). Позже назывался Дерптский, Юрьевский (1893–1918). С 1918 года – эстонский *Tartu Ülikool*. Ныне университет

входит в ассоциацию университетов Европы, Утрехтская сеть], но не понятно, что с ним происходит: отчасти он восстанавливается из довоенного состояния, но под влиянием новой власти, естественно, система образования идеологически ломается. Лотману удается выстроить кафедру в Тарту, в общем, на пустом месте, хотя в университете, конечно, были традиции и исследования русской литературы и русистики. Однако к тому моменту, когда Ю.М. Лотман здесь появился, ничего в этой области не делалось. Он сначала работал в Учительском институте, потом перешел в университет. Лотману удалось выстроить Школу в разных смыслах, и как школу научную, которая имеет множество учеников и последователей, и как школу педагогическую.

Научная карьера Юрия Михайловича складывалась с самого начала вполне успешно. В 1952 году он защитил кандидатскую диссертацию на тему «А.Н. Радищев в борьбе с общественно-политическими воззрениями и дворянской эстетикой Н.М. Карамзина». С 1954 года Юрий Михайлович – доцент ТГУ на кафедре русской литературы. В 1958 году он опубликовал свою первую монографию «Андрей Сергеевич Кайсаров и литературно-общественная борьба его времени», а в 1960 году защитил докторскую диссертацию «Пути развития русской литературы преддекабристского периода». В том же году Лотман становится заведующим кафедрой русской литературы Тартуского государственного университета.

Тема структуральной поэтики давно привлекала интерес Ю.М. Лотмана, который реализовался в его тартуских «Лекциях по структуральной поэтике», изданных в 1964 году. В этой работе еще больше проявилась индивидуальная манера Лотмана-аналитика, которая особенно отчетливо вырисовывается на фоне других подходов того времени и нашего времени к анализу поэтического текста. Ю.М. Лотман исходит из того, что современная стадия научного мышления все более характеризуется стремлением рассматривать не отдельные, изолированные явления жизни, а обширные единства, видеть, что каждое, казалось бы простое, явление действительности при ближайшем рассмотрении оказывается структурой, состоящей из более простых элементов, и само, в свою очередь, входит как часть в более сложное единство. Он

отмечает: «С этим связано глубоко диалектическое представление о том, что для понимания явления недостаточно изучать его изолированную природу – необходимо определить его место в системе. Изучение номенклатурно-морфологическое сменяется функциональным. Это стремление перейти от наблюдения отдельных феноменов и их описания к анализу *систем*, давно уже утвердившееся в так называемых «точных» науках, все более проникает в естественные и гуманитарные, практически означая, что диалектический способ мышления из сферы исследовательских деклараций переходит в самую ткань исследования. Такой научный метод и получил название структурного» [Лотман, 1994: 17].

Особенности эпохи, социально-политические реалии окружающей Лотмана действительности, накладывали определённый отпечаток на стиль его изложения. Иной возможности изложить свои мысли тогда не существовало, поэтому понятие структуры рассматривалось Лотманом как категория диалектическая, о чём, по его мнению, всё более ясно говорят философы Советского Союза, стран народной демократии и за рубежом. Чтобы не быть голословным, Лотман ссылается на ряд работ, в которых он находит подтверждение своим взглядам [Лотман, 1962]; [Зелькина, 1959]; [Вольф 1962]; [Карагеоргиев 1960]; [Levi-Strauss, 1956.]

Исходя из складывающихся в научной среде представлений о структурном изучении явлений, особенность такового Лотман видит в том, что оно подразумевает рассмотрение отдельных элементов не в их изолированности или механическом соединении, а как конкретное соотношение элементов между собой и их отношение к структурному целому. «При этом, естественно, открывается возможность анализа структуры на двух уровнях – «физическом», при котором изучение функций и отношений элементов должно привести нас к пониманию их материальной природы, а сама структура рассматривается как некая материальная данность, и «математическом», при котором изучаться будет природа отношений между элементами в абстракции от их материальной реализации, а сама структура предстанет в качестве определенной системы отношений» [Лотман, 1994: 17-18].

Говоря о предмете литературного анализа, Ю.М. Лотман отмечает особое место литературы в ряду других искусств, которое в значительной мере определено специфическими чертами материала,

который она использует для воссоздания окружающей действительности. Природа языка как общественного явления достаточно сложная, поэтому своё исследование Ю.М. Лотман ограничивает только теми его сторонами, которые существенны для интересующего его вопроса. Важно, что по отношению к литературе язык выступает как материальная субстанция, подобно краске в живописи, камню в скульптуре, звуку в музыке. Однако сам характер материальности языка и материалов других искусств различен. Краска, камень и т. п. прежде, чем они попали в руки художника, социально индифферентны, стоят вне отношения к познанию действительности. Каждый из этих материалов имеет свою структуру (фактуру), но она дана от природы и не коррелирует с общественными идеологическими процессами. Язык в этом смысле представляет особый материал, отмеченный высокой социальной активностью еще до того, как к нему прикоснулась рука художника. Язык – это средство передачи информации, а отсюда и его специфическое качество. Языковая структура входит в вещественную природу того явления, которое составляет материю словесного искусства. Здесь М.Ю. Лотман ссылается на Ф. Де Соссюра, который писал: «Язык не субстанция, а отношение». Справедливость этого положения не означает, что применительно к литературе язык не выступает как материальная стихия. Лотман внимательно исследует подход де Соссюра, направленный против физической интерпретации явлений языка и обоснованно подчеркивающий, что не физическая природа элементов (например, звуков), а система их соотношений позволяет превратить речь в средство передачи информации. Из этого следует, что мы можем исследовать язык на разных уровнях абстракции, включая и такой, когда внимание наше будет привлекать лишь математическая система отношений при полном отвлечении от входящих в эти отношения материальных элементов.

Таким образом, индивидуальная манера Лотмана-аналитика в известной мере отличалась от общепринятых канонов литературно-критических исследований. В 1960-е годы в советском литературоведении существовала и господствовала иная практика анализа литературно-художественных произведений. В основе ее лежали упражнения вузовских лекторов, для наглядности

предлагавшиеся студентам; прежде они замыкались в стенах семинаров, теперь выплеснулись в печать. «Это был прогресс, последствие хрущевской оттепели, – отмечает М.А. Гаспаров. – До этого, в эпоху догматического литературоведения, единственной отдушиной из мира идейного содержания были книги под заглавием «Мастерство Пушкина» (или Островского, или Маяковского), где показывалось, какими художественными особенностями писатель доносит до читателя это свое идейное содержание. («Мастерствоведение» – иронически называл этот жанр Н.К. Пиксанов). По сравнению с этим анализы отдельных стихотворений, конечно, были достижением: на маленьком поле одного стихотворения идейное содержание отступало назад, а его средства-носители выдвигались вперед и даже – у хороших аналитиков – складывались в структуру. Лотман здесь сделал последний шаг: понятие структуры, в которую складываются все элементы стихотворения, от идейных деклараций до дифференциальных признаков фонем, стало у него основным» [Гаспаров, 1997: 485].

Оригинальные идеи Ю.М. Лотмана, изложенные в его книге «Лекции по структуральной поэтике» официозным советским литературоведением были приняты явно неприязненно. Разговор о подборе фонем, переключках ритмов, антитезах глагольных времен, мельчайших смысловых оттенках слов, пересекающихся семантических полях, – все это было слишком непривычно, особенно в применении к классическим стихам Пушкина, Тютчева, Некрасова, в которых издавна полагалось размышлять только над высокими мыслями и чувствами. В то же время законных поводов придаться к методологии Лотмана как бы и не было. Это и раздражало критиков больше всего, поскольку они привыкли к тому, что советское литературоведение строилось на догматизированных принципах марксизма-ленинизма. В этой идеологической парадигме сосуществовали метод и идеология. Метод марксизма-ленинизма – диалектический, а диалектика распространяется и на явления истории посредством исторического материализма. Отсюда аксиома материализма «Бытие определяет сознание» распространяется и на носителя культуры – поэта и читателя. Но структуралистский подход Ю.М. Лотмана явно не отвечал ни духу марксистско-ленинского историзма (ибо культура не всегда есть следствие социально-

экономических явлений своего времени), ни духу диалектики (ибо развитие культуры далеко не всегда есть следствием борьбы ее внутренних противоречий).

Юрий Михайлович Лотман, известный как авторитетный мыслитель и основоположник нового направления в литературоведении тонко чувствовал различие между марксистским диалектическим методом как таковым (к нему он относился серьезно), и господствовавшей в его время «идеологией марксизма» (как догму он её не мог принять).

Один из учеников и последователей Лотмана М.А. Гаспаров по этому поводу отмечает: «Когда Лотман начинал анализ стихотворения с росписи его лексики, ритмики и фоники, он строго держался правила материализма: бытие определяет сознание – в начале существуют слова писателя, написанные на бумаге, из восприятия их (сознательного, когда речь идет об их словарном смысле, подсознательного, когда о стилистических оттенках или звуковых ассоциациях) складывается наше понимание стихотворения. Никакое самое высокое содержание вольнолюбивого или любовного стихотворения Пушкина не может быть постигнуто в обход его словесного выражения. (Поэтому методологически неверно начинать анализ с идейного содержания, а потом спускаться к "мастерству")» [[Гаспаров, 1997: 486]. Несомненно, мысль поэта подлежит реконструкции, а путь от мысли к тексту подлежит формализации.

Чуть позже Ю.М. Лотман и занялся формализацией пути поэта от мысли к тексту, что и обнародовал в своей статье «Стихотворения раннего Пастернака и некоторые вопросы структурного изучения текста» [Лотман, 1969: 206-238]. Из представленного им анализа следовало: принципы отбора пригодного и непригодного для стихов (на всех уровнях, от идей до языка и метрики) могут быть различны и они никогда не совпадают полностью с критериями обыденного сознания и естественного языка. А это означало, что поэтические системы А.С. Пушкина и Б.Л. Пастернака одинаково основаны на противопоставлении логики «поэта» и логики «толпы» и имеют равное право на существование, будучи зависимыми лишь от исторически изменчивого вкуса. Для советской марксистско-ленинской идеологии, считавшей свой вкус абсолютным, такое уравнивание было неприятно.



Впрочем, к тому времени Юрий Михайлович уже получил надеждающую оценку своим взглядам, которая выразилась и в том, что его заставили оставить кафедру русской литературы, которую он возглавлял в 1960-1977 годах. И так, 6 января 1977 года Ю. М. Лотман был вынужден подать заявление об освобождении его от должности заведующего «в связи с ухудшившимся здоровьем». Как отмечает коллега Лотмана Л.Н. Киселёва, здоровье профессора, действительно, было не в лучшем состоянии, но подлинные причины заключались в усилившемся административном давлении, которое, в свою очередь, было вызвано указаниями компетентных органов [Киселева, 2003: 336–349.]

«Добровольное» заявление помогало избежать дополнительных неприятностей и унижений. Через некоторое время решение администрации университета было принято и с 16 февраля 1977 года Юрия Михайловича Лотман перевели с должности заведующего кафедрой на должность профессора. Но на этом перемещения не завершились, поскольку человека, много лет развивавшего русское литературоведение в Советской Эстонии, с начала учебного 1980/81 года переместили на кафедру зарубежной литературы. «Он невесело шутил, что высылка Солженицына на Запад может объяснить, почему профессор по русской литературе работает на зарубежной кафедре» [Киселева, 2003: 337].

О недюжинных способностях Лотмана как руководителя кафедры и организатора научной работы свидетельствуют неоспоримые факты. Когда он возглавил кафедру, на ней было шесть ставок преподавателей, среди которых три кандидата наук, доцента. Таким образом, в составе кафедры не было ни одного доктора наук и ни одного профессора. Уже очень скоро ситуация меняется. Сам Лотман защищает докторскую диссертацию, становится профессором. Результатом активной позиции заведующего, продуктивной работы всей кафедры и доброжелательности университетского руководства (в первую очередь ректора Ф.Д. Клемента) явился кадровый рост: в 1967 г. – уже девять ставок, а осенью 1976 – десять. Преподаватели кафедры активно занимались научной работой и защищали диссертации. К моменту, когда Ю.М. Лотмана уволили с должности заведующего кафедрой, кафедра имела двух профессоров (Ю.М. Лотман, П.С. Рейфман), трех доцентов (из них двое –

З.Г. Минц, С.Г. Исаков были докторами наук, а В.И. Беззубов – кандидатом наук), и пятерых старших преподавателей, среди которых двое уже были кандидатами наук, а двое защитили кандидатские чуть позже. Никто из «кафедралов» даже не приближался к пенсионному возрасту: старшему Ю. М. Лотману в 1977 году исполнялось 55 лет, а младшим коллегам (Киселевой и Торопу) – 27. Таким образом, две тенденции кадровой политики Лотмана-заведующего прослеживаются отчетливо: укрепление научного потенциала кафедры и омоложение состава, смена поколений. Это были принципиальные лотмановские установки, которые шли вразрез с общей ситуацией на факультете и вообще с кадровой политикой советских вузов [Киселева, 2003: 340]. Таким образом, очевидно, что и как руководитель Юрий Михайлович состоялся.

Как научно-педагогический работник и ученый он также демонстрировал незаурядные успехи. Учитывая, что в рассматриваемый период (1960-1977) возможности научных публикаций были весьма ограниченными, Ю.М. Лотман опубликовал более 300 научных и учебно-методических работ. Монографии, изданные в этот период, [Лекции по структуральной поэтике, 1964]; [Структура художественного текста, 1970]; [Анализ поэтического текста, 1972]; [Статьи по типологии культуры, 1973]; [Динамическая модель семиотической системы, 1974]; [Роман в стихах «Евгений Онегин»: Спецкурс, 1975]; [Споры о языке в начале XIX в. как факт русской культуры, 1975]; [Карамзин, 1966]; [Руссо, 1971], [Семиотика и искусствометрия: Современные зарубежные исследования, 1972], отражают сферы его интересов: поэтика, история литературы, кино. Можно сказать и иначе: поэтика и семиотика культуры, история и методология науки. Коллеги и близкие к семье Лотманов учёные отмечают, что для самого Ю.М. Лотмана работа – преподавание и занятие наукой, которые в его жизни были неразрывны и перетекали друг в друга, была органической частью его жизни. От всех недугов он лечился работой. Но особенно это стало очевидным в последние годы и месяцы жизни, когда смертельно больной, в весеннем семестре 1993 года он читал лекции, а за месяц до кончины диктовал статью и давал интервью.

Будучи человеком активным и коммуникабельным, остро реагирующим на новейшие тенденции в науке, Лотман в период 1962-1964 гг. познакомился с московскими лингвистами и литературоведами, которые занимались сходными с ним проблемами. Стремясь популяризовать идеи свои и коллег Юрий Михайлович в 1964 году организовал 1-ю «Летнюю семиотическую школу» в Кязэрику. Так была практически основана «Тартуско-московская семиотическая школа», а «Труды по знаковым системам» становятся периодичным изданием в рамках «Ученых записок Тартуского государственного университета». Летние семиотические школы начали проходить регулярно (1966, 1968, 1970, 1973 и др.)

Как мы уже отмечали выше, тема формализации пути читателя от текста к мысли поэта становится актуальной для Ю.М. Лотмана во всех его работах по анализу текста. Для наглядной демонстрации в качестве выигрышного примера Лотман выбирает пушкинскую строчку из «Вольности» – *«Восстаньте, падшие рабы!»* Семантически слово *«восстаньте»* значит *«взбунтуйтесь»*, но стилистически оно значит просто *«встаньте»* (со знаком высокого слога). Естественно, нашему слуху ближе первое значение, но в логику стихотворения непротиворечиво вписывается лишь второе. Свидетельствовать это может лишь о том, что для понимания стихов недостаточно полагаться на свое чувство языка. Здесь следует изучать язык поэта как чужой язык, в котором связь слов по стилю (или даже по звуку) может значить больше, чем связь по словарному смыслу. Гаспаров М.А. по этому поводу заметил: «Для идеологии, считавшей, что у мировой культуры есть лишь один язык, и она, идеология, – его хозяйка, это тоже было неприятно» [Гаспаров, 1997: 487]. Замечание Гаспарова уместно, поскольку советская идеология была ориентирована на восстание, на революционное преобразование мира и именно такое видение было бы ей лестно в пушкинских строках. Интересно было бы знать, в какой мере знаком был Ю.М. Лотман с творчеством Хосе Ортеги-и-Гассета, в частности с его работой «Восстание масс». Ведь фактически здесь то же понимание: восстание как возникновение, как неотвратимость.

Но жизненная ситуация требовала и профессор Лотман и здесь строго держался установок марксизма, а именно установок на диалектическое мировидение. Принцип всеобщей взаимосвязи

явлений определял, что в стихе всё: аллитерации, ритмы, метафоры, образы и идеи сосуществуют, тесно переплетаясь друг с другом. Ощутимы они только контрастами на фоне друг друга, фонические и стилистические контрасты сцепляются со смысловыми, и в результате, например, оппозиция взрывных и не взрывных согласных оказывается переплетена с оппозицией «я» и «ты» или «свобода» и «рабство». «Притом, что важно, эта взаимосвязь никогда не бывает полной и однозначной: вывести ямбический размер или метафорический стиль стихотворения прямо из его идейного содержания невозможно, он сохраняет семантические ассоциации всех своих прежних употреблений, и одни из них совпадают с семантикой нового контекста, а другие ей противоречат. Это и есть структура текста, причем структура диалектическая – такая, в которой всё складывается в напряженные противоположности» [Гаспаров, 1997: 487].

Главная же диалектическая противоположность, делающая текст стихотворения живым, заключается в том, что текст представляет собой поле напряжения между нормой и ее нарушениями. При чтении стихотворения (а тем более многих стихотворений одной поэтической культуры) у читателя складывается система ожиданий: если стихотворение начато пушкинским ямбом, то ударения в нем будут ожидать на каждом втором слоге, а лексика будет возвышенная и (для нас) слегка архаическая, а образы в основном из романтического набора и т.д. Но эти ожидания могут подтверждаться, а могут и не подтверждаться. Именно подтверждение или неподтверждение этих читательских ожиданий реальным текстом ощущается как эстетическое переживание. Если подтверждение стопроцентно (нет никакой новой информации), то стихи ощущаются как плохая, скучная поэзия; если же, напротив, полное неподтверждение (новая информация не опирается на имеющуюся), тогда стихи ощущаются как вообще не поэзия. Таким образом, критерием оценки стихов становится мера наличной в них информации. Ю.М. Лотман обращает внимание на малоизвестное свидетельство Поля Лафарга о Карле Марксе, утверждавшем, «что наука только тогда достигает совершенства, когда ей удастся пользоваться математикой» [Лотман, 1967]. Что читательские ожидания ориентированы на норму, и эстетическим переживанием

является подтверждение или неподтверждение этой нормы, видно на самом простом уровне строения текста – на стиховом. Именно в стиховедении норма строения стиха называется метром.

Юрий Михайлович Лотман остался в памяти своих друзей, коллег и студентов еще и как талантливый педагог. Выступая перед гимназистами в 1990 году, он отвечал на важный для себя и других вопрос: «Чему же учатся люди?» И давал ответ, сопряженный с глубокими размышлениями о назначении человека и его ответственности. Университетское образование – это иная ступень по сравнению со средней школой. И одна из особенностей этой ступени в том, что здесь уже нет верха и низа – учителей и учеников – здесь все коллеги, т.е. люди, которые работают вместе. Принуждение и обязательный «насильственный» контроль остались на низшей ступени образования. Но это вовсе не означает, что станет легче, напротив, станет труднее, заметил Лотман. И вообще, ничего лёгкого в хорошем деле быть не может. Дело университетской учебы – трудное дело, потому что нет контролёра строже, чем сам человек. Педагогический так и жизненная мудрость обнаруживаются в выступлении Юрия Михайловича, когда он напоминает, что и элементы средней школы и детство часто вторгаются в университет: некоторые студенты подсказывают друг другу и даже видят некоторый спорт в том, чтобы поменьше выучить и получше получить. Это школьный подход. Но школьный подход нормален лишь в своё время: «Смешон и ветренный старик, смешон и юноша степенный» [Лотман, 1994: 459].

«У вас сегодня может начаться другой возраст», – говорит Лотман молодым людям, уточняя, что возраст – это не количество прожитых нами дней, а поведение, которое мы можем осуществлять. Эрудиция помогает педагогу, когда он рассказывает о педагогике философа Сократа. «Своих учеников Сократ никогда не учил правильному, никогда на вопрос учеников не отвечал: "Поступайте так". Он говорил: "Давайте подумаем!". А что значит "подумаем"? – Вы не знаете, как поступить, я тоже не знаю, как вам поступить. Вы пришли не как школьники, получить правильный ответ, вы пришли к коллеге посоветоваться, подумать вместе. А вместе думать действительно лучше. Именно различия во мнениях помогают продвигаться к истине» [Лотман, 1994: 460].

Ю.М. Лотман – это человек, над которым всю войну витала смерть. Он много раз находился в той ситуации, которую экзистенциалисты называли «пограничной». И неудивительно, что отзвук духа экзистенции сквозит в его выступлении, когда он заявляет: «А человек всегда находится в непредвиденной ситуации. И тут у него есть только две ноги: интеллект и совесть. Как совесть без развитого интеллекта слепа, но не опасна, так опасен интеллект без совести».

Жизнь требует от человека очень многого. Человек перестаёт быть винтиком, у него возникает множество ситуаций, когда появляется возможность выбора: поступить одним или другим способом. Понятно, что Лотман мог бы вспомнить Жан-Поля Сартра с его «человек – это свобода». Но Лотман говорит о том, что человеку дана совесть и потому его можно судить. Но не говорите себе: «Я был в таком положении, я ничего плохого не хотел, но были такие обстоятельства, я иначе поступить не мог»... «Это неправда! – восклицает профессор Лотман. – Не бывает обстоятельств, когда нельзя поступить иначе. А если у нас такие обстоятельства всё-таки находятся, значит у нас нет совести. Совесть – это то, что диктует, как поступить, когда есть выбор. А выбор есть всегда... Выбор – вещь тяжёлая, поэтому дураком быть легче, с дурака нет спросу: «Мне приказали, а что я мог сделать?», «Меня привели, а вы бы сами попробовали...» [Лотман, 1994: 462]

И резюме педагога Ю.М. Лотмана: «Итак, чему же учатся люди? Люди учатся Знанию, люди учатся Памяти, люди учатся Совести. Это три предмета, которые необходимы в любой Школе, и которые вобрало в себя искусство».

В заключение можно спросить себя, каким же всё-таки человеком был сам Ю.М. Лотман? Тем более это вопрос уместен в ситуации, когда мы пишем нечто подобное творческой биографии человека и мыслителя мирового уровня. А это действительно так, учитывая, что Лотману довелось выступать с лекциями не только на европейском континенте. Впрочем, вопрос о том, почему читателя интересуют не только произведения человеческого ума и таланта, но и биографии авторов этих произведений и как этот интерес следует удовлетворять, никогда не теряет актуальности.

Размышляя над тем, что есть биография в принципе [Лотман, 1995], сам Ю.М. Лотман обращает внимание на серию книг «Жизнь

замечательных людей», в которой пишут отнюдь не о «великих» людях, но о замечательных. Потому что великие люди противопоставляются обычным, а в русской традиции всегда оставалось место и для самого неприметного, но всё же замечательного чем-то человека. Однако биография неизвестного человека – тема, скорее, для романиста: она почти недоступна для историка-биографа, поскольку неизвестность подразумевает отсутствие источников – препятствие, перед которым исследователь в бессилии отступает. Мы же писали о человеке более чем известном.

Умер Юрий Михайлович Лотман 28 октября 1993 года в г. Тарту.

Дело, начатое учёным, продолжают другие люди. Но каждому необходимо самому делать своё дело, – вот ещё один урок, который преподал Ю.М. Лотман: «Мир, в котором мы живем, все больше хочет получить важнейшие ценности по самой дешёвой цене. Это напоминает не очень радивых школьников, которые подглядывают в ответы на задачи, вместо того, чтобы решать их самим. Мы хотим получить истину как можно быстрее, как готовые ботинки, сшитые на «никого». А истина дается только ценой жертвы самого дорогого. По сути дела, получить истину можно только ради нее погубив себя. Истина не бывает «для всех и ни для кого» [Глушковская, 1993].

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## ***Evidence-based Practice in Social Work Education***

**Key words:** *evidence-based practice, social work, education*

### **Summary**

*This paper contains a review of the current literature around the dissemination of evidence-based practice (EBP), current social work models for dissemination of EBP, interviews with experts in the field, and a synthesis of this combined knowledge into recommendations for future dissemination of research and EBP efforts.*

## Introduction

An *evidence-based practice* emerged in the area of medicine as a way of incorporating recent advances in research into professional decisions [Cochrane 1972; Ramsey *et al.* 1991; Sackett *et al.* 1991] and has over the last 15 years developed rapidly across most areas of health care. An EBP is considered any practice that has been established as effective through scientific research according to a set of explicit criteria [Drake, et al, 2001]. For example in 1998 a Robert Wood Johnson Foundation consensus panel concluded that research findings identify six evidence-based treatment practices for the treatment of persons with severe mental illness: assertive community treatment; supported employment; family psycho-education; skills training and illness self-management; and, integrated dual-disorder treatment. To be considered an evidence-based practice four selection criteria were used: the treatment practices had been standardized through manuals or guidelines; evaluated with controlled research designs; through the use of objective measures important outcomes were demonstrated; and, the research was conducted by different research teams [Torrey, et al, 2001]. Accordingly, we can say that *evidence-based practices* or *best-practices* were identified for the treatment of persons with severe mental illness through efficacy trials meeting these four criteria. Initially EBP was defined as ‘the conscientious, explicit and judicious use of current evidence in making decisions about the care of individuals’ [Sheldon, 2002]. However, this definition has thereafter been adapted in order to describe ‘a philosophy and process designed to forward effective use of professional judgement in integrating information regarding each client’s unique characteristics, circumstances, preferences and actions, and external research findings’ [Gambrill, 2006b]. Thus, EBP is now mostly described as ‘the integration of best research evidence with clinical expertise and patient values’, a process that involves the following principles or steps [adapted from Sackett *et al.* 2000]:

- Formulate focused and answerable clinical questions, based on service users’ needs.
- Search the literature for the best research-derived evidence in order to address the question previously framed.

- Critically appraise the identified evidence for validity and relevance.
- Integrate the selected evidence with clinical expertise and the service user's values and preferences, and apply the result to clinical practice and policy decisions.
- Evaluate effectiveness and efficiency through planned review against agreed success criteria [Greenhalgh *et al.* 2003] and seek ways to improve them in the future.

Accordingly, evidence-based practice is a decision-making process in which judgments are made on a case-by-case basis using best-evidence. In addition, evidence-based social work practice would incorporate the following characteristics.

- Rather than a relationship based on asymmetrical information and authority, in evidence-based practice the relationship is characterized by a sharing of information and of decision-making. The practitioner does not decide what is best for the client, but rather the practitioner provides the client with up-to-date information about what the best-evidence is regarding the client's situation, what options are available, and likely outcomes. With this information communicated in culturally & linguistically appropriate ways clients are supported to make decisions for themselves whenever and to the extent possible.
- A focus on fidelity in implementation of client chosen interventions rather than assuming that selected interventions will be provided as intended. Fidelity of implementation requires that the specific evidence-based practice be provided as it was tested when research supported its effectiveness. Too often serious distortion occurs during implementation.
- A critical, inquisitive attitude regarding the achievement of valued outcomes and unintended negative effects rather than an unquestioning belief that only intended outcomes will be achieved (and, therefore a failure to secure information about actual outcomes, or permitting prior expectations to colour achievements).
- Aggressive pursuit of new information about outcomes rather than relying on static prior beliefs. This new information is derived from: researching what occurs, when interventions are implemented; and, new research findings promulgated by others.

- Ongoing knowledge revision based on this new information which in turn is communicated to clients.
- A relative weighing of information, placing information derived from scientific inquiry as more important than information based on intuition, authority or custom.

Social work practitioners need to know what has been identified as best-practices and they need to be prepared to be evidence-based practitioners. Social workers can benefit greatly from clear identification of interventions that work, through such efforts as seen in the systematic reviews conducted and disseminated through the Cochrane and Campbell Collaborations, as well as the work of the many evidence-based practice centers around the world. These collaborations and centers are using systematic reviews to identify effective interventions. What is learned through such reviews needs to be effectively disseminated and made available to practitioners [Nutley, Davies, & Tilley, 2000a; Nutley and Davies, 2000b; Eisenstadt, 2000]. Dissemination and implementation of evidence-based practices present special challenges when the intended users are social work practitioners and their clients.

### **Literature Review**

The first widespread push for EBP in social work came out of a series of studies that began to appear in the 1970s and called into question the effectiveness of existing social work interventions [Reid, 1994]. The 1970s and 1980s witnessed a movement to develop evidence based models of practice in mental health and further the development of well researched psychosocial intervention models such as the behavioral, cognitive, interpersonal, and social approaches, as well as the biological and biopsychosocial theories of mental illness [Bellamy, 2006]. Evidence-based researchers in many disciplines pioneered models used in social work practice including: psychology, psychiatry, and social work. In the late 1980s and early 1990s substantial evidence regarding the treatment of common mental health disorders were high-lighted by the publication of the results of studies such as the National Institute of Mental Health Treatment of Depression Collaborative Research Program [Elkin, Shea, Watkins et al., 1989]. Over the past decade, the proportion and number of articles referring to EBP published in professional journals has risen in the disciplines focused on mental health services, health, and social



welfare [Shlonsky & Gibbs, 2004]. For a more detailed description of the history of the development and use of EBP in social work see Kirk and Reid [2002].

Today, New York State's Office of Mental Health, identified as a progressive program by NIMH [Bellamy, 2006], is promoting the use of the following EBP for adults with serious mental illnesses. These EBP interventions include: Assertive Community Treatment, supported employment, intensive case management, wellness self-management, family psychoeducation, integrated treatment for co-occurring substance abuse and mental health disorders, medication (and guidelines for practitioners to promote optimal prescribing practices), self-help and peer support services, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) treatment [New York State Office of Mental Health, 2001]. The President's New Freedom Commission (2003) report identified the following additional EBPs for the treatment of mental health disorders: cognitive and interpersonal therapies for depression, preventive interventions for children at risk for serious emotional disturbances, treatment foster care, multi-systemic therapy (MST), parent-child interaction therapy, and collaborative treatment in primary care. The commission also recommended emerging best practices including: consumer operated services, jail diversion and community re-entry programs, school mental health services, trauma-specific intervention, wraparound services, multi-family group therapies, and systems of care for children with serious emotional disturbances and their families [New Freedom Commission, 2003].

### **Two approaches to dissemination and implementation of evidence-based practice**

As noted by Nutley and Davies, two major approaches to dissemination and implementation of best-practices have been used, namely *macro* and *micro*, or what I call *top-down* and *bottom-up* strategies [Nutley & Davies, 2000b]. In *top-down* strategies findings are disseminated for use by front-line practitioners through agency directives, guidelines, manualized interventions, accreditation requirements, algorithms, toolkits and so forth. *Top-down* or *macro* strategies can serve to get the word out about what works or what is favored by those in authority, but such methods do not guarantee adoption of best-practices on the front lines. To in-

crease the likelihood of adoption a *bottom-up* approach is needed. In contrast to the *top-down* approach, social work practitioners need to be prepared to engage in a process of critical decision-making with clients, about what this information means when joined with other evidence, professional values and ethics, and individualized intervention goals. A bottom-up approach recognizes the importance of engaging the practitioner and the client in a critical, decision-making process.

Sackett and others have noted there may be insurmountable barriers to implementing evidence-based practice guidelines in individual circumstances [Sackett, et al, 2000]. For successful implementation a number of components need to be in place. These include:

- Organizational culture, policies, procedures and processes must provide opportunities and incentives supporting evidence-based practice (e.g., financial incentives, funding, openness to change, workload adjustments, information technology supports, and legal protection).
- The organization's external environment must provide similar opportunities and incentives supporting evidence-based practice (e.g., national, regional and local authorities, funders and accrediting groups).
- Applied practice research and evaluation must provide scientific evidence about assessment, intervention and outcomes pertinent to the organization's practice domain.
- Systematic reviews which synthesize research findings must be conducted assessing the weight of the evidence generated by current research & evaluation studies.
- Prescriptive statements based on these syntheses must be developed and communicated in user-friendly forms (e.g., practice-guidelines, manuals, toolkits).
- Organizational procedures need to be put in place to assure fidelity of implementation of these prescriptions.
- Systematic, structured evaluation processes capable of providing timely feedback to various stakeholders as to the fidelity of implementation and outcomes must be designed and implemented as an ongoing process.

- The organization must have social workers available who are trained as evidence-based practitioners capable of functioning in evidence-based practice organizations.

The wider field of social science knowledge utilization is just beginning to build a theoretical framework that explains why research evidence, such as the EBPs listed above, is or is not utilized in social work practice [Bellamy, 2006]. While researchers have identified evidence-based mental health services, the translation and implementation of these services into practice has been problematic. One of the greatest complaints has been the lag of nearly 15 to 20 years between the identification and incorporation of EBP interventions into routine care [Balas & Boren, 2000]. Moreover, social work is a profession that claims expertise and specialized knowledge, values, skills, and professional ethics aimed at addressing difficult human problems, including mental illness [Gambrill, 1999]; however, licenses, experiences, and training are not supported by evidence as necessarily related to helping clients through the use of evidence (Dawes, 1994).

One of the consequences of the increasing popularity of EBP among professionals has been its expansion from medicine and health care to other disciplines, among them social work, particularly in English-speaking countries such as the UK, the US, Canada and Australia, where the new paradigm is becoming increasingly influential [Gambrill 1999, 2001; Gilgun 2005; Rosen and Proctor 2002]. Thus, in the UK the New Labour Government after its election in 1997 announced, in its White Paper *Modernising Social Services*, the objective that social services should base practice on research and other evidence of what works [Department of Health 1998], an aspiration that soon became one of the cornerstones of the government's modernisation agenda for social services [Bonner 2003]. In fact, the need for underpinning practice with an evidence base has consistently been emphasised in subsequent White Papers in the area of social care [Department of Health 2001, 2006] and also in major policy documents published in Northern Ireland [Northern Ireland Social Care Council 2002], Scotland [Scottish Executive 2006] and Wales [Welsh Assembly Government 2007]. Examples of the initiatives undertaken in order to bridge the gap between research and practice include the creation of the Centre for Evidence-Based Social

Services, which operated between 1997 and 2004; the Social Care Institute for Excellence, established in 2001; the Scottish Institute for Excellence in Social Work Education, created in 2003 and which in 2007 changed its name to the Institute for Research and Innovation in Social Services; and the Social Services Improvement Agency, set up in 2006 to promote excellence within social services in Wales [Lishman, 2011].

Besides the Anglo-Saxon countries, other regions are also witnessing a growing development of EBP in the area of social care. For instance, SFI-Campbell [the Nordic Campbell Centre],<sup>1</sup> based in Denmark, has been producing and disseminating research-based knowledge – especially systematic reviews – in the Nordic countries since 2002, and the Institute for Evidence-Based Social Work Practice (IMS)<sup>2</sup> was officially created in Sweden in October 2004. In the Netherlands, where outcome measurement and effectiveness in social services are increasingly demanded by governments and service users [Mullen and Streiner 2004], the Verwey-Jonker Institute has been promoting evaluative research into social issues over the last decade [Morago 2006] [Lishman, 2011].

In this context, EBP is also being incorporated as a component of social work professional competence across different countries. For instance, in the US the Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards expect social workers to employ evidence-based interventions as well as research findings in their professional practice, and in Australia social workers must demonstrate their ability to utilise research in practice [Australian Association of Social Workers 2008]. In the UK, the critical evaluation and appropriate use of research findings has been formally recognised as a qualifying requirement in England and Wales [General Social Care Council 2008; Social Services Inspectorate for Wales 2004; Training Organisation for the Personal Social Services 2002], Northern Ireland [Northern Ireland Social Care Council 2003] and Scotland [Scottish Executive 2003]. Therefore, social work education is now generally expected to provide students with appropriate knowledge and training in applying research evidence to practice.

Although EBP implementation is still emerging in social work education, an increasing number of authors have reported that the notion of EBP is gaining momentum across schools of social work, and they have also identified implementation issues and barriers as well as strategies to overcome them [Drake *et al.* 2007; Franklin 2007; Howard, McMillen and

Pollio 2003; Howard, Allen-Meares and Ruffolo 2007; Howard *et al.* 2009; Jenson 2007; Mullen, Bellamy and Bledsoe 2005a; Mullen *et al.* 2005b; Mullen *et al.* 2007; Proctor 2007; Scheyett 2006; Shlonsky and Stern 2007; Soydan 2007; Springer 2007; Thyer 2007; Weissman *et al.* 2006]. In particular, the main themes arising from the literature in this area are:

1. Integration of EBP into the curriculum of social work education.
2. Readiness of social work academic staff for EBP implementation.
3. The role of agency-based practice learning in the EBP implementation process.
4. Relevance of EBP implementation for the social work profession [Lishman, 2011].

The main purpose of this paper is to provide an overview of these themes and discuss them with reference to the literature selected, using the author's previous experience as a lecturer in social work at different important universities in US, Africa and Europe e.g. at the St. Elizabeth University of Public health and Social Work (SEU) as an exemplar. SEU has explicitly been promoting an EBP approach within social work programmes and, in general, the issues arising from the implementation of EBP in the curriculum are closely similar to those identified by the literature reviewed and which will be presented in the next sections [Suvada, 2010].

### **Integration of EBP into the curriculum of social work education**

For some authors [Howard *et al.* 2007; Jenson 2007], social work education has traditionally adopted a generalist practice perspective in which students are trained to work effectively in a variety of settings and at different levels, from the micro to the macro level. Therefore, they are equipped with a broad, eclectic knowledge base and a generic set of skills – for example, interpersonal or ‘use of self’ skills and practical skills necessary to work effectively within organisational procedures. However, this model has been criticised for several reasons, among them for including *officially approved* theories and interventions of unproven efficacy instead of empirical evidence across specific fields of practice [Bledsoe *et al.* 2007; Mullen *et al.* 2007; Thyer 2007; Weissman *et al.* 2006].

In this context, Gambrell [2006c] argues that students risk becoming passive recipients of untested knowledge who uncritically receive it and

apply it to practice. Another objection to the generalist model is that, by assuming that social work's knowledge base is stable, it is ignoring the changing and somehow ambiguous nature of social work [Mullen *et al.* 2007]. Therefore, a generalist, didactic approach would appear insufficient to prepare social work students for the demands of modern practice [Franklin 2007; Howard *et al.* 2007]. Instead, and given the increasing availability of good quality empirical research, a rigorous evidence-based approach to social work's knowledge base beyond lecture-based and opinion-based learning is regarded as the optimal tool for students to develop critical thinking skills and cope effectively with vast amounts of information, change and uncertainty [Franklin 2007; Gambrill 2006b; Shlonsky and Stern 2007; Soydan 2007].

As previously noted, it is a formal requirement that social work students, and practitioners in general, need to make appropriate use of relevant findings from research studies, but the extent to which EBP is being embedded within social work programmes is a different matter: in fact, to integrate another new subject into an already dense curriculum like that of most social work courses is a challenge for social work schools education. A short-term solution could be to try to include some teaching sessions and assessment tasks wherever there is some space for them and thus justify that accreditation requirements in relation to EBP teaching are met. However, such a patchy, almost tokenistic, presence of EBP in the curriculum is still far from the implementation levels that EBP promoters are advocating. For them, rather than a discrete subject, EBP is a coherent and systematic framework for critical inquiry that should, as implemented, for example, by the George Warren Brown School of Social Work at Washington University, inform the whole curriculum [Drake *et al.* 2007; Howard *et al.* 2003, 2009; Soydan 2007; Springer 2007]. Such an ambitious plan requires a strategic redevelopment of social work curricula with specific action on, at least, two areas: (a) teaching of EBP skills and (b) teaching of effective methods of intervention across the different subjects or modules of the curriculum [Suvada, 2010; Lihman, 2011].

## **Growing Body of Evidence-Based Services and Programs and Arguments for Use**

Despite the numerous barriers to dissemination outlined above, social workers in the mental health services arena do have a number of compelling reasons to implement evidence into their practice with mentally ill individuals. Practitioners have cited advantages of using EBPs such as: (1) conceptualizing, planning, and guiding treatment, (2) increasing knowledge and skills, (3) improving treatment outcomes for clients, (4) integrating and supplementing, not supplanting, clinical judgment and knowledge, (5) complying with current practice, values, and professional consensus, and (6) satisfying grant or managed care reimbursement requirements [Mullen & Bacon, 2004]. Overall, the basic tenet of EBPs is that clients should receive the benefit of the best technology that social work has to offer [Suvada, 2010; Lishman, 2011; Zainab 2011].

It is, however, difficult to imagine the basis on which structured, fact-based and wellinformed decision making and planning referenced to the best available published research can be viewed as counter either to the provision of effective outcomes for service users, or to the ethos of the social work professional, [p. 144, Barratt, 2003].

There are many questions as to what exactly should be used as evidence to identify the best technology possible. Undoubtedly this argument will, and should, continue within the field. However, if some agreement upon what *is* a validated intervention can be secured, the question becomes one of dissemination and implementation [Suvada, 2010].

### **The teaching of effective methods of assessment and intervention**

Besides training students to develop EBP skills, EBP implementation also requires that social work students are informed about the effectiveness of the methods of assessment and intervention that are taught across the different components of the social work curriculum. In particular, social work programmes should always include in the curriculum the teaching of those interventions with the strongest empirical support from research studies [Howard *et al.* 2009]. In fact, in the last two decades a considerable amount of evidence has been generated in areas relevant for social work practice, such as mental health, learning and developmental problems, offending, poverty and social exclusion, work with

children and families and the care of older people, to cite just a few examples. Such a body of evidence constitutes a powerful tool to achieve an old professional aspiration – namely, to base social work practice on the best knowledge available in order to deliver effective interventions. However, some authors claim that evidence of empirical support has been integrated into social work programmes only to a modest extent and that interventions and approaches of dubious efficacy continue to be prevalent within such programmes [Bledsoe *et al.* 2007; Mullen *et al.* 2007; Thyer 2007; Weissman *et al.* 2006]. Furthermore, Lilienfeld, Lynn and Lohr (2003) and Howard *et al.* (2009) use the term *pseudoscience* to refer to a body of social work approaches and strategies based on ‘fashion’ rather than on rigorous empirical evaluation. This situation is not likely to change unless social work academic staff effectively engage with the EBP implementation process, which is the second of the themes identified by the literature reviewed in this chapter and which will be examined in the next section.

### **Readiness of social work academic staff for EBP implementation**

In addition to the lack of space in already tight social work programmes, another potential challenge for EBP implementation identified in the literature is that all social work academic staff may have the readiness or skills for teaching EBP [Franklin 2007]. Perhaps the discussion of this issue should be contextualised by looking at the debate that the expansion of EBP from medicine to social work has originated within the profession.

As we know, along with strong enthusiasm from some sectors of the social work profession [Gambrill 2003, 2005, 2006a, 2006b, 2006c; Gibbs 2003; Gibbs and Gambrill 2002; MacDonald 1999; Sheldon and MacDonald 1999; Sheldon 2001], EBP has also been received with considerable scepticism and a range of objections from other authors [Barratt 2003; Goldstein 1992; Green 2006; Parton 2000; Webb 2001, Suvada, 2010; Zainab 2011].

One of the main objections raised in this debate is that EBP presents a deterministic version of rationality that ignores the complex processes of deliberation and choice that social workers must follow when making decisions [Webb 2001]. Thus, concerns have been expressed that a narrow concept of evidence based on results from randomised controlled



trials may be appropriate for medicine but not for such a complex and multifaceted field as social work [Green 2006; Parton 2000; Webb 2001], and that such a kind of evidence cannot meet ‘the sometimes contested and divergent knowledge brought into play in the many places and ways social work is practised’ [McDonald 2003].

Such criticisms have been extensively addressed in the literature as it was noted hereinbefore [Drake *et al.* 2007; Gambrill 2003, 2006b; Gilgun 2005; Mullen and Streiner 2004; Sackett *et al.* 2000; Springer 2007; Straus and McAlister 2000] and Gambrill, for example, explains how the definition of EBP provided by Sackett *et al.* (2000) describes EBP’s very nature: ‘a philosophy and process designed to forward effective use of professional judgement in integrating information regarding each client’s unique characteristics, circumstances, preferences and actions, and external research findings’ [Gambrill 2006b]. Consequently, Gambrill argues, EBP is not presented as a substitute for professional competence: along with the best and most updated information from research studies and service users’ values and preferences, professional skills, empathy and the ability to build human relationships are essential assets of social workers’ practice. Equally, there seems to be wide acceptance that the sources of social care knowledge are diverse – for example, organisational knowledge, practitioner knowledge, user knowledge, research knowledge and policy community knowledge [Pawson *et al.* 2003].

In relation to research evidence, the initial emphasis on results from randomised controlled trials has been gradually replaced by a broader, pluralistic approach that embraces contributions from different research designs as appropriate to the purpose of the enquiry [Braye and Preston-Shoot 2007; Lishman 2000; Mullen and Streiner 2004; Rubin and Babbie 2005; Soydan 2007; Taylor, Dempster and Donnelly 2007].

However, objections to EBP continue to be a significant feature of academic debates within social work schools [Rubin and Parrish 2007], which for some authors [Gilgun 2005; Howard *et al.* 2009; Magill 2006; Springer 2007; Thyer 2007; Suvada 2010; Zainab 2011] suggests the existence of certain misconceptions about EBP as well as lack of information about how the notion of EBP in social work has evolved over the last years. This is a serious difficulty for EBP implementation that may require the creation of appropriate training, information sharing and discussion spaces for the professional development of academic staff [Franklin

2007]. From our experience at SEU these kind of initiatives have, in addition, a considerable potential for reinvigorating academic debates often stifled by increasing administrative and course management-related demands [Suvada, 2010]. Yet, and despite its importance, promotion of EBP in the classroom as so far outlined is not sufficient for a fully effective implementation of EBP in social work education, as will be discussed in the next section.

### **Relevance of EBP implementation for the social work profession**

As indicated earlier, some of the strongest objections traditionally raised against EBP that it presents a deterministic version of rationality that ignores and replaces professional competence and is clearly insufficient to take into account the different sources of social work knowledge. For example, McDonald (2003) contends that some perspectives of critical theory and progressive social work practice might be relegated by the principles underlying EBP. Such arguments connect with the ideological debate around evidence-based social work: thus Webb (2001) suggests that, in addition to its problematic epistemological base, evidence-based social work is driven by ideological interests. Webb associates the popularity of EBP with what Harris (1998) calls *new managerialism* in British social work and its strategies directed at developing a performance culture by further regulating and controlling individual practitioners [Webb 2001]. By being – in Webb’s opinion – an instrument of the managerialist agendas concerned with effectiveness and accountability, ‘EBP can have the effect of neutralising social work’s role in moral and political discourse and undermining its professional autonomy’. In a similar vein, Sanderson (2002) makes the link between the emphasis on EBP in the UK and ‘the development by New Labour of performance management for public services’, and critically examines whether a ‘rational-decisionistic’ model underpinning ‘technocratic politics’ might, in reality, be ‘undermining the capacity for “appropriate” practice’. If in different terms, Trinder (2000) also admits that EBP could become, particularly in those disciplines where professionals are less influential, a means by which policy makers and managers could enforce particular concepts of evidence upon researchers and practitioners. However, locating the best research evidence in relation to a specific area of practice and appropriately integrating it with one’s own professional judgement and service user values

and choices – all this within the practitioner’s own organisational context – can hardly be viewed as a mechanistic activity. EBP, rather, is an activity that involves high levels of reflection not only on the use of ourselves as practitioners but also on the appropriate use of relevant knowledge and information resources [Zainab, 2011]. Thus, EBP extends the notion of reflective practice. What Franklin (2007) calls the ‘resourced self’ is precisely the essence of EBP implementation in social work education: to provide a systematic framework for critical inquiry that enables social work students to become resourced practitioners, able to make more informed and transparent decisions. MacDonald (1990), a pioneer of EBP in social work, has already argued that a more empirically based practice was required in order for social workers to take ‘correct decisions’ i.e. ‘those for which appropriate information is sought from diverse sources, appropriately weighed against available knowledge, and whose outcomes are fed back into that knowledge base to inform future practice’ [MacDonald 1990]. EBP promoters claim that there are also powerful ethical and accountability reasons for EBP implementation in social work education: that, because practitioners, despite their good intentions, may cause more harm than good (or, simply, no good at all) when intervening in the lives of services users, their decisions should always be informed by empirical evidence [Chalmers 2003; Gambrill 2003].

In fact, the literature provides a few examples of how interventions, some of them very popular but the efficacy of which has not been rigorously evaluated, may have harmful consequences for service users and the public in general. One example is ‘Scared Straight’ programmes, an approach that consists of inviting young people at risk of offending to visit a prison, where they have the opportunity to talk to adult inmates and know ‘in situ’ how life in prison is. The major assumption of this programme is that such a scary experience will deter the youngsters from future criminal behaviour. The model became popular in the US to the extent that it was adopted as public policy by several states. However, when nine different ‘Scared Straight’ interventions were evaluated, it was found that crime rates were significantly higher among participants in the programme in comparison with their control counterparts who had received no intervention [Petrosino, Turpin- Petrosino and Buehler 2002]. Therefore, social work students should be taught to avoid

– or at least to be cautious about methods of assessment and intervention, the efficacy of which has not been rigorously evaluated.

This is particularly relevant to those areas of practice where social workers' activity is subject to intense scrutiny – for example, child protection: it could be argued that, if after a professional intervention something goes wrong and the social worker and/or the agency are subject to inquiry, a decision strictly based on the integration of the different components of the EBP process is likely to be significantly more defensible than one based on anecdotal information, authority, opinions of colleagues or own intuition. Thus, rather than as an instrument to undermine social workers' professional autonomy, EBP is presented as a vehicle for newly qualified social workers – and practitioners in general – to make more informed, transparent, ethical and effective decisions, which, in turn, should reinvigorate social work's professional practice against increasing managerial control and loss of professional autonomy [McDonald 2003].

Inevitably because of the emergent nature of EBP in social work education, the evidence of its impact in preparing students for professional practice is limited and, no doubt, an excellent research opportunity for those interested in this area. Only one example of EBP as a pedagogical framework is reported in the literature [Howard *et al.* 2009]. Therefore, it is probably too soon to provide any conclusive evidence of the effectiveness of an EBP approach in this area. However, when discussing advantages and disadvantages of EBP implementation in social work courses, it would be advisable to clarify what are the outcomes on which the success of such courses actually depend: while it seems reasonable to assume that teaching students about the level of effectiveness of major methods of assessment and intervention would result in more critical and informed practitioners, the relevance of EBP becomes much less clear when success is based on indicators such as achievement of funding targets, student numbers and student retention rates.

### **Current Strategies for Dissemination and Implementation**

Until recently the prevailing approach to dissemination has been to report evidence in journal articles and published or unpublished practice manuals or to provide limited didactic trainings [Gibbs & Gambrill, 2003]. Additionally, in recent years some masters programs have offered

limited numbers of courses on some EBPs, such as cognitive behavioral therapy [Gibbs & Gambrill, 2002]. However, evidence suggests that these strategies have been largely unsuccessful in social work, as well as in the other professions treating individuals with mental health needs, as few mental health professionals are basing practice decisions on research evidence [Gibbs & Gambrill, 2002; Kirk & Reid, 2002; Kirk & Rosenblatt, 1981; Mullen & Bacon, 2004; NASW, 1996]. To facilitate implementation of EBPs in the community, "... it is increasingly recognized that simply improving the content and availability of the evidence base is not sufficient to secure such changes. Explicit and active strategies are required to ensure that research really does have an impact on policy and practice" [p. 2, Walter, Nutley, & Davies, 2003]. In order to flourish, efforts to implement evidence-based practices must be "multifaceted, broad-based and carefully targeted" [p. 144, Barratt, 2003]. Many researchers, program developers, and others have employed a cornucopia of what Walter, Nutley, and Davies (2003) term "mechanisms" to disseminate research findings. These authors reviewed over one hundred papers that evaluated or described efforts to facilitate the use of research. Nearly two hundred individual practices or packages were identified through this review. Based on these, the authors developed a taxonomy of approaches by both intervention type (format through which the information flows) and mechanisms employed, as well as a brief description of the research or theory that lends support to the specific approach.

For example, one category of mechanisms described by the authors is incentives. The adoption of desired behaviors or information is encouraged through reward, or perhaps linking funding to specific practices. This mechanism is supported by learning theories, economic models of rational behavior, and power theory. Using such taxonomy to organize and understand dissemination research could potentially prove useful.

A number of researchers have taken the process a step further than individual mechanisms or approaches and proposed more developed frameworks for the delivery of research evidence into practice. While no single best method has been identified, there are a number of emerging social work implementation strategies described in the literature.

**General recommendations** – Beyond the more developed models described above, several researchers have made general recommendations for dissemination of evidence into practice. First, it is essential to secure

organizational and practitioner buy-in [Anderson, Cosby, Swan, Moore, & Broekhoven, 1999; Mullen, 2004]. Before any real progress is made toward dissemination stakeholders must both agree that EBP is valuable and important enough to merit a commitment of time, training, and other resources. Leadership is a crucial ingredient for change in this area [Barratt, 2003]. Although the dissemination of EBPs must occur at all levels, important issues such as protecting practitioner time for research and training as well monitoring and following up on implementation activities must be guided by administrators and other persons or agencies with authority. Also, some authors have described the importance of establishing a network of local organizations and practitioners so that they can pool resources such as training and research, become actively involved, and develop broad community goals [Anderson, Cosby, Swan, Moore, & Broekhoven, 1999; Howard & Jensen, 1999]. McKay and colleagues stress the importance of training and the establishment of an “engagement team” consisting of intake workers, clinical and administrative staff, and supervisors who oversee the implementation of interventions at each site [McKay, Hibbert, Hoagwood, Rodriguez, Murray, Legerski, & Fernandez, 2004]. Agencies and practitioners cannot be realistically expected to “go it alone” on tight budgets, timelines, and a research base that is a moving target. A much more efficient approach seems to be one of networking and sharing with other social workers, community organizations, educational institutions, and other stakeholders. In essence, the research evidence on the use of EBPs has not been well developed. “Researchers have been relatively oblivious to the processes by which knowledge, once developed, might be effectively disseminated and used” [Kirk & Reid, 2002].

### **Conclusion**

Evidence-based practice would allow social work students to become competent and highly resourced practitioners, more able to challenge ineffective practice and promote change within their organisations. However, EBP also involves dealing with the uncertainty derived from the existence of inconclusive or conflicting evidence, or just simply the lack of it, and this poses a major challenge to ‘a society that is uncomfortable with change and uncertainty’ [Furedi 2004]. In fact, factors such as risk aversion and the reinforcement of the role of students as consumers of

higher education services may result in standardised approaches to teaching that tend to make the learning experience as safe and satisfactory as possible but which might encourage students to become just passive customers instead of self-directed learners [Furedi 2004]. For example, university students are increasingly provided with user-friendly, digestible pieces of information as well as with prescriptive assessment guidance that, having the apparent advantage of minimising uncertainty and unnecessary effort, are hardly compatible with a genuine development of critical thinking skills and the very notion of the evidence-based practitioner.

This is a challenge that like the others outlined in this paper, faces social work education in its efforts to implement EBP. As Austin and Claassen (2008) point out, EBP implementation is not a straightforward process but a complex one that requires considerable planning and resources.

However, in the literature reviewed, there is general agreement that, if social work education overcomes the difficulties involved in this process, it will be able to make a significant contribution not only to the education of newly qualified social workers as resourced and critical practitioners but also to increasing the influence, credibility and autonomy of social work as a profession.

To encourage practitioners to implement EBPs a unified approach that incorporates the best of all of the strategies outlined above and addresses the major barriers identified in this paper:

- 1.** Increase EBP education (particularly at the master's level) as well as access to high quality continuing education based on EBPs.
- 2.** Build partnerships toward sharing EBP resources, including technology, training, and technical assistance, between agencies and practitioners.
- 3.** Facilitate buy-in and ownership of EBPs at all levels of stakeholders including practitioners, administrators, researchers, policy makers, and community members.
- 4.** Translate research into user-friendly, digestible, and specific approaches, providing tools such as tool kits, guidelines, and technical support to both support and encourage the use of EBPs.
- 5.** Improve the communication, feedback loop and relationship between researchers and practitioners.

**6.** Increase the number of EBPs available to the field.

**7.** Test the different types and mechanisms of dissemination, perhaps through analyses based on a taxonomic framework like the one proposed by Walter, Nutley, and Davies, to organize future research efforts.

The most important factor in facilitating change toward the use of research in Professional practice is whether or not the profession wants to change [Bellamy, 2006]. As the call for EBP in mental health services grows, social workers will benefit by being more research-minded and thereby improve services for their clients. The call for the use of research evidence in practice is not limited to a trend of policy, but is also aligned with the professional code of ethics [NASW, 1996] and meeting the expectations of an increasingly savvy consumer movement in mental health [Bellamy, 2006]. Major national reports, which often shape federal and private funding streams, continually call for the use of research-supported interventions. However, policies that encourage, if not require, the use of EBPs cannot succeed without adequate training, resources, technical assistance and other infrastructure support necessary to deliver evidence based mental health interventions. Even if social workers endorse the value of EBP, practitioners and administrators may not have the knowledge or the resources to implement research based practices. The search for research evidence alone is difficult, and the more complicated the decision the less available the evidence [Gray, 1997]. Additional demonstration projects, and research and policy efforts aimed at moving EBPs into community based organizations there-by building professional and organizational capacity are needed to address these and other barriers. Social workers are poised to move this work forward by transferring the increasingly broad and sophisticated body of research mindfully into the hands of the community agencies and practitioners.

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