SOCIAL ASPECTS
OF MANAGEMENT

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT, CULTURAL CHANGES,
ECONOMIC PROGRESS

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ed by

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PART III

Preface

The 20th century brought us so many changes, showed up so many significant turning points that we cannot designate it with one simple label. If we try it anyway, we can call it the century of changes, when series of wars and peace treaties, inventions and discoveries made people realize that they had to learn again how to live together because we were given only one Earth, which appears to be smaller and smaller.

However the economic and political leaders of even the most developed countries experienced that the "melting pot of peoples" is not functioning any more in a population which originally include mixed ethnic groups and different cultural identities. Nowadays it is already clear since the last century that when mobility increased, cultural tolerance could not be guaranteed even by legal measures. A period of years or decades is not sufficient to reach cultural merge, sometimes centuries and common experiences are needed. Unfortunately even world wars and the setbacks and losses of the almost unstoppably reoccurring local wars were not enough to establish a more peaceful coexistence on Earth. In reality the multi-ethnic and multi-religious empires which made attempts with large armies and despotism failed continuously. So could it happen that a society, an economic or political system was shattered by an unexpected event to such an extent that scientists, who intended to clear up the whys and wherefores realized the significance of cultural differences in political, ideological and economic changes and crises.

The situation is very similar in management science as well. In fact we can allege that the world expects a new management paradigm instead of the classic management schools. The idea of consumer society globalized rapidly but it also brought to surface the other social inequalities closely connected to it.

Several thinkers have already tried to prognosticate the big challenges of the 21st century, for example that in our era the real question is not who has the power, who is able to enforce interests but how to unify efforts in order to reach our goals. We have to admit that the formulation of the goals became more difficult. Nevertheless I would like to find the answers for the challenges of the new

era based on those findings of an American researcher (Clarence N. Stone), which he collected during the observation of US cities – still these results are valid for the whole mankind. The main point of his opinion is that we have to focus on the mechanism of coalition building and the successfulness not on certain actors, even if it is not easy to convince the public about the necessity of the new approach. The main goal of management would be to set the goals, to create the coalition but on the other hand it must be kept in mind what is realizable and who are able to support it for the most part. The essence of this point of view is that the real challenge of the future is not the power over something but the power to something.

In the case of Central-European countries there are cultural differences, but the number of those cultural elements, which connect us, is much higher. The reasons of our socio-economic problems are completely different compared to the other, more developed parts of the world, only their manifestation may look similar. We try to strengthen ourselves in this region of the world, which has suffered a lot, still it is blessed with stand-alone cultural heritage. During this presumably long process the common Polish and Hungarian values offered an opportunity to find the best and most expedient answers and to strengthen our cooperation not only in the past but in the future as well. The papers of this book try to serve as symbolic building stones for this process.

Prof. dr. habil Magdolna Láczay

PART I

ERZSÉBET RÁKÓ[1]

Child Protection System in Romania

Abstract

There are several similarities between Eastern-European countries concerning historic-social development. This statement is true for the development of child protection in these countries. The present study aims to introduce the developmental history of child protection in Romania, with special attention paid to the post-communist period.

The child protection of Romania caught the attention of the world in 1989 when a number of documentaries were circling round Europe, showing the harsh conditions of children living in institutions. International pressure weighed on the country from 1990 to improve the circumstances of the children.

The history of child protection has numerous groupings. According to Greenwell (2003): "Child welfare experts in Romania have justified defining three distinct reform periods during the transition decade. The first reform period from 1990 to 1991, is referred to as one of rapid "reparative" regulations (Zamfir, 1995). Zamfir (1995) and Roth (1998) describe the second reform period, from 1992 to 1996, as one of legislative "re-organization". Legislative re-organization in this context implies new and sometimes conflicting laws. Roth (1998) refers to the third reform period from 1997, as "beginning reforms". She uses this term because up until this period no widespread viable alternatives to institutionalization had been created." (Greenwell, 2003. p 67.)

The characteristics of the operation of Romanian institutions before 1989 can be summarized as follows. These institutions usually had a large capacity

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[1] Rákó Erzsébet Phd, docent, University of Debrecen, Faculty of Child and Adult Education

between 100 and 400 beds. The buildings were inappropriate for their function (they were old and cold manor-houses with thick walls). The children were often placed in smaller, faraway villages. Many settlements were short of public utilities like gas or running water – which was true for the whole country as a whole – and therefore washing, bathing and cooking were challenging tasks. They were short of firing and heating was insufficient in the intensely cold winters. The personnel were unskilled and few in numbers. The institutions had a closed system, there were few visitors, they did not seek relationship with the parents and for the children it was almost impossible to transfer from one institution to the other. The budget and costs were minimized. This situation was the foundation on which changes had to be built also due to international pressure in 1990. Numerous aid organizations sent donations to the institutions.

Besides material donations, there were voluntary workers coming to the institutions from abroad. They provided help in training the staff. In 1992, a Children Protection Committee was formed which aimed to unify the different regulations concerning children. (Roth, 1995)

Gavrilovici (2009) distinguishes four periods of Romanian children protection. The first phase was the period between 1947–1989, which he describes with characteristics similar to Roth (1995). He places the second phase between 1990-1997 which the author considers the era of the preparation of children protection reforms. In this period, slower changes set in the life of institutions which were still characterized by overcrowded rooms, the lack of socializing programs, and under-educated staff. Romania was one of the first nations to accept the UN Treaty on the Rights of Children which was ratified in the Act of 18/1990. The Treaty stated that the upbringing and development of children are primarily the tasks of the parents. A typical solution for children who were left without parental care was mostly public institutions or adoption. A considerable number of Romanian children were adopted by Romanian and foreign foster parents in the beginning of the 1990s.

Gavrilovici (2009) places the third significant phase between 1997–2001 which he considers the beginning of children protection reforms. The decentralization of children protection institutions was started under the control of the NACPA (National Authority for Child Protection and Adoption). In 1997 the government passed the Act of 1997/26 on the protection of children, and therewith laid the foundations of a new children protection system. Based on Figure 1. we can state that the number of institutional children was reduced by the possibility of adoption – especially by foreign foster-parents, the restoration of children into their own families or their placement at foster-parents.
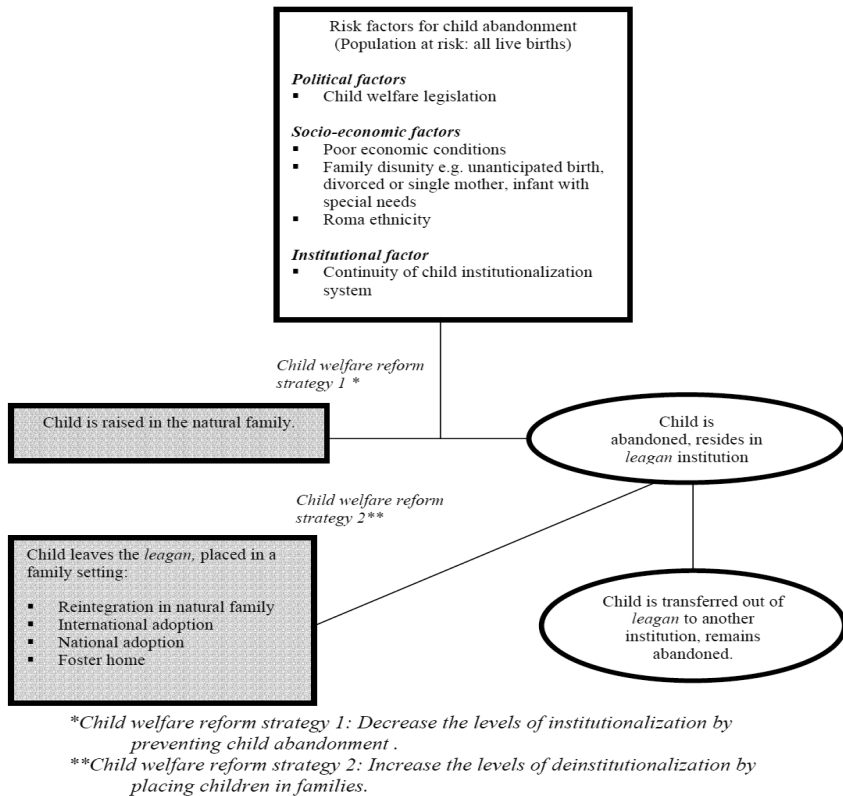
Figure 1: Conceptual Model of Factors that Influence Child Abandonment and Deinstitutionalization in the Transition Decade

Greenwell (2003): The Effects of Child Welfare Reform on Levels of Child Abandonment and Deinstitutionalization in Romania, 1987–2000, 57. p.

According to Greenwell (2003) child protection reform strategy that aimed to: 1) reduce the numbers of children in institutions; 2) increase the number of children reintegrated with their natural family, or placed in an adoptive or foster home; and 3) improve care for children in institutions and reduce the number of street children.

The problems of the accomplishment of children protection reform were rooted in the low qualification of institutional personnel. "The history of social work education and associated professions in Romania is an important factor. In 1952, the Romanian Communist Party closed the university-level Social Work School, which had been founded in 1929, transforming it into a vocational-level school until 1969 when social work education in Romania completely stopped. No social work training was available until 1990." (Gavrilovici, 2009. p 58.)

The transformation of the children protection system in Romania was also supported by the World Bank in the framework of the "Learning and Innovation" project. One of the major objectives was finding cost-effective alternatives for the reshaping of institutional care. The involvement of non-profit organizations and the private sector began to gain more significance. In his report of 2000, the ombudsman draws our attention to several problems, for instance to the fact that the majority of the children get into institutions due to poverty and that in most of the cases the conditions of their admission are not clear and that their placement out of the natural family is not fully regulated by the law.

After 2001, the acceleration of the passing of children protection reforms took place (Gavrilovici 2009). The reforms were also urged by the ambition of joining the EU. As a result of international pressure, Romania abolished public institutions which provided for the raising of 300–400 children and, instead, family-type homes were created. The changes are also hallmarked by the fact that all institutions providing for children under the age of 6 and between 7–18 were named placement centers from 2000.

The Romanian government created a fund for the development of the services of the children protection institutions. More and more civil organizations had opportunities to do various tasks. A significant part of the developments were accomplished through international cooperation. However, the national resources could not support the fast and intense new stage of reform in the absence of international support. There have been several major identifiable funding streams since 2001 including the EU Phare Program; International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) loan for the Reform of Child Protection System Project; the 2001–2005 Romanian–USA Partnership in Child Protection; the ChildNet Program; NACPA–USAID–World Learning and the NAPCA–UNICEF Cooperation Program. Bilateral Cooperation Programs (with France) and technical assistance to NAPCA (from the UK) add to the international support received by Romania. (Gavrilovici, 2009. p 66.)

Due to the significant international pressure and meeting the requirements of joining the EU, Romania declared moratorium regarding international child adoption.

In 2002, the preparation of new children protection laws started with the involvement of national and international experts. As a result of this collaboration, the new Child Rights Law of 207/2004 was born.

The 2004 Act on child protection assisted to the realization of the changes. In it, the legislative body summarized the rights of children, and they clarified the tasks of the parents for the sake of securing the development of children. (Panduru et. al., 2006.)

The act emphasizes the ban of corporal punishment as a disciplining method. For a child under the age of two, the Act disposes the placement to a professional foster parent or family, and that only a child with multiple handicaps can

be placed in a boarding institution.

Its introduction of a multidisciplinary approach is quite innovative. It gives responsibility to the psychologist, family doctor, teacher and the police officer, as well. The act emphasizes the solution and prevention of social problems on the local level and draws the attention to the preventive responsibility of self-governments. (Bordás, 2013.)

One of the most innovative elements of the Child Protection Act is the preparation of the individual care. "An individual permanency plan is one of the major innovations in the new law. Also, the County Commissions for Child Protection, which had the legal authority to decide on measures of protection at the local level are no longer used in the newly proposed structure; decision measures of protection will be made by a judge in a court of law. Another innovation is the interdiction of placement of children under 2 years of age in residential care institutions, one of the most important 'feeders' or sources of children for the system." (Gavrilovici, 2009. p 68.)

The system of Child Protection can be split to three levels: national, county and local. On the national level, the Romanian government created two institutions: the National Office of the Protection of Children's Rights and the Romanian Adoption Office. On the county level, there are Social and Children Protection Boards that handle child protection tasks. These were created in 2005. On local level, self-governments organize services. They cooperate with the police, non-profit organizations, health and educational institutions, and schools to promote the protection of children. Self-governments organize day-time care so that children would not have to be separated from their parents.

Before the reforms, 82% of the children that had been taken from their families were living in institutions operating in the traditional/formal manner. Due to the transformation of children protection system, the number of institutions providing family-like circumstances tripled between 1997 and 2000. (Panduru et. al., 2006.)

In the period between 2000 and 2006, the number of children put up in placement centers shows a gradually decreasing tendency.

Table 1: Number and average size of placement centers

Placement Centres	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Total	738	754	841	1274	1369	1382	1493
Public	513	508	540	950	983	995	1100
of which, of family type	-	-	242	565	620	678	781
Private	225	246	341	324	386	387	393
Protected children	57181	49965	43234	37660	32679	28786	27188
In public centres	53335	45422	37781	31941	27129	23684	22285
In private centres	3846	4543	5453	5719	5460	5102	4903

Source: Panduru and mtsai (2006): System in support of children without parental care in Romania
Bucharest: National Statistical Institute of Statistics. Country Analytical Report prepared for the MONEE
Project, UNICEF, IRC p. 9.

According to the data of Table 1., in 2002 the number of children in place-
ment centers was 57 181. In 2000, this number dropped to 43 234, and in 2006
only 27 188 children lived in institutions.

The typical circumstances of institutional care are placement in apartments
of smaller size or family houses. These are organized as so-called placement cen-
ters. In the middle of 2006 there were 1493 placement centers in Romania – 1100
operated by the state and 393 run privately. Out of the 1493 state centers, 781
(more than half) were family-type homes. Apart from state centers, private place-
ment centers were also running, and their number shows increasing tendency in
the period between 2000 and 2006. Whilst there were only 3846 centers in 2000,
this number grew to 4903 in 2006.
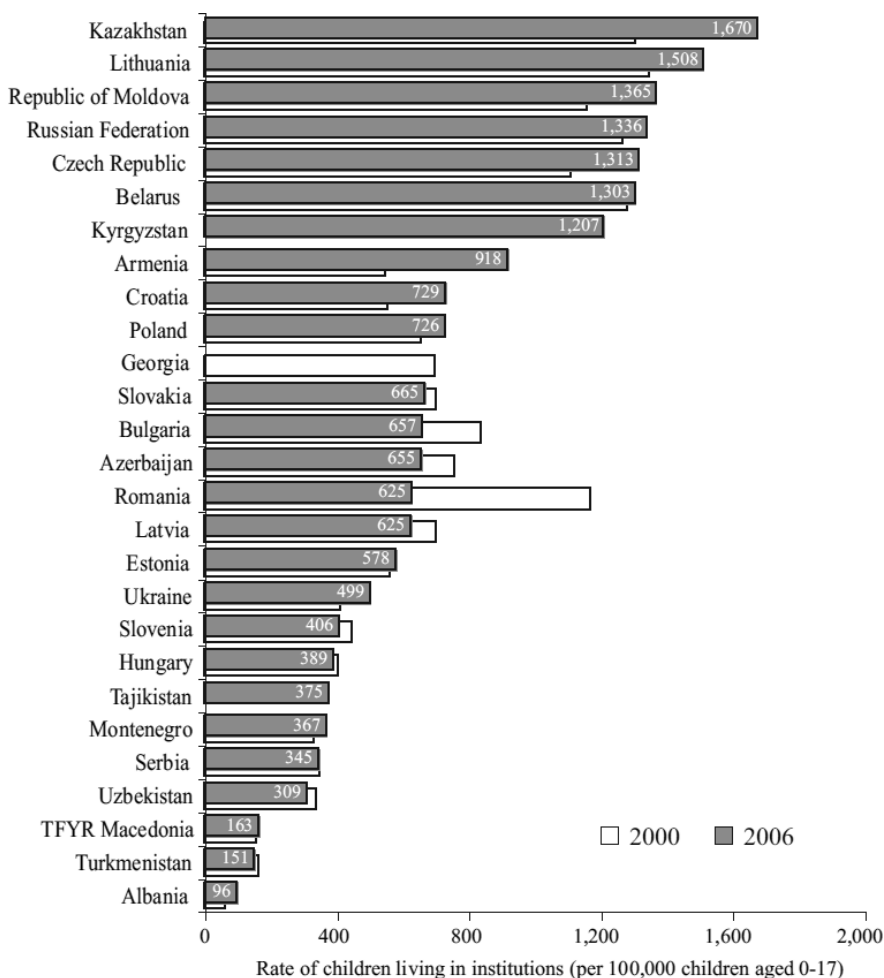
Figure 2: Children living in institutions, 2000 and 2006

Source: UNICEF (2009): Innocenti Social Monitor 2009 Child Well-Being at a Crossroads: Evolving challanges in Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States. Innocenti Reserarch Center p. 32.

According to the data of Figure 2. we can state that in most of the countries with the highest rates, the proportion of children living in institutional care actually grew between 2000 and 2006. The positive trend can be seen in Romania, where the share of children living in institutions almost halved between 2000 and 2006, largely as a result of public and international support for the development of foster care, smaller family-type care solutions.

Considering the age of the children, most children who were placed in 2006 were in the 13–17 age group. An important principle of Romanian regulations is that children under the age of 2 cannot be placed in institutions. They are placed at foster parents.

Family-type placement shows an increasing tendency between 2001 and 2006. In 2005, 76871 children were living outside their families in Romania. 29148 of them were living in placement centers and 47723 children were living at foster parents. (TRANSMONEE, 2007. UNICEF, Innocenti Research Center). Based on the data it can be stated that by 2005 placement at foster parents had become the dominant placement type in Romania. Figure 3 shows that this trend intensified after 2005 and the number of children placed at foster parents grew on to 2010.

Rate of children aged 0-17 living in residential public care institutions or in foster/guardian care in selected countries, 1989, 2000, 2005 and 2010
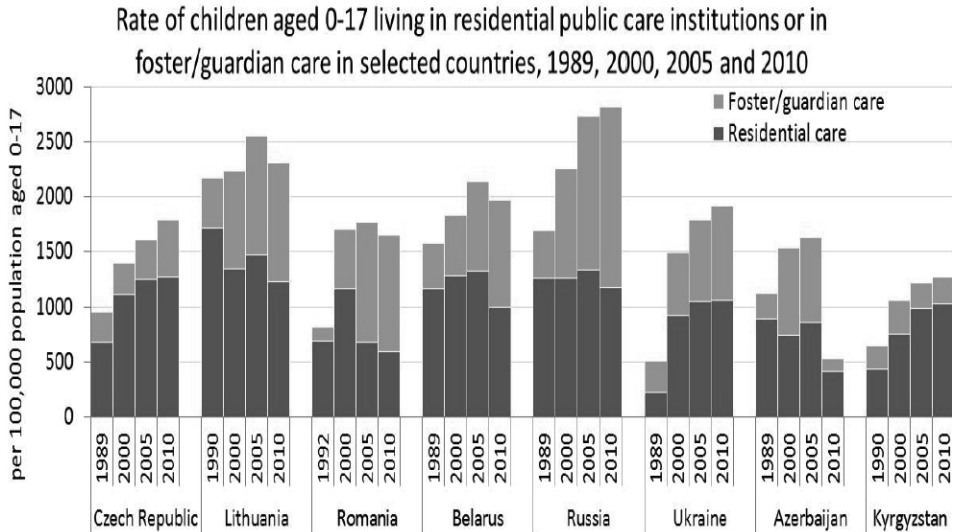
Source: TransMONEE 2012 Database, UNICEF Regional Office for CEECIS.

Notes on residential care

a. Czech Republic: data on residential care include establishments of institutional and protective education, where are placed children aged 0-14, after hearing a lawsuit.

b. Lithuania: data on residential care include boarding special schools and 18 years and older residing in child care institutions.

c. Romania: data on child care institutions include children 18 years and older residing in institutions.

d. Data on residential care include children living in boarding schools in Russia, Belarus, Ukraine, Kyrgyzstan and Azerbaijan.

Notes on foster/guardian care

e. Romania: data on foster care refer to children cared by maternal assistants. Due to changes in the system, data since 2000 are not comparable with those reffering to the earlier period.

f. Data for year 1989 for Belarus, Russia, Ukraine, Azerbaijan refer to guardian care only.

g. Kyrgyzstan: data refer to guardian care only (guardians usually are grandparents or close relatives (about 80%).

Figure 3: More children in family-based care than before, but Institutionalization continues to be widespread

Source:TransMONEE Database, Unicef Regional Office for CEECIS www.transmonee.org 06/08/2013.

Foster care is organized and controlled via the Social and Children Protection Board by the county council. As a result, children are treated based on individual plans prepared for them. The plan includes the process of care, and the conditions that should be provided by the foster parent to be able to receive the child (Panduru et. al., 2006).

Besides institutional decentralization and the preference of foster-parent care, the government strives to introduce integrated, communal-type help ser-

vices via the local self-governments in each county. The primary goal of these services is the assistance of families and the decreasing of the number of endangered children so that less children should be lifted out of their families.

Based on the above stated we can claim that partly with the help of the Western-European model and the Western-European countries, the children protection system of Romania has significantly changed and improved in the post-communist years.

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Bucharest: National Statistical Institute of Statistics. Country Analytical Report prepared for the MONEE Project, UNICEF, IRC.

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BEATA ZINKIEWICZ

Preventive Activities of Probation Centres for Juvenile Offenders: Theory and Practice

Abstract

As the idea of resocialisation through isolation is a compromised one, a lot of expectations and hopes are pinned on the activities of non-custodial institutions, in particular the work of a probation officer. The scarce available studies on the functioning of probation officers in present-day Poland focus mainly on the aspects of supervision and intervention, i.e. they emphasise the resocialisation element of the supervisions while marginalising their preventive aspect.

The author has tried to fill a certain void in previous empirical findings by examining the preventive aspect of the activity of family probation officers. The study uses the findings of the author's nation-wide project entitled "The preventive aspect of the activity of family probation officers", currently being implemented in the majority of court regions. Since probation centres are the most convenient space, particularly conducive to initiating prevention, the aim of this paper is to describe the preventive aspects of these institutions, both in theory and in the perception of regional probation officers, working within the family division of the probation system.

An analysis of the theoretical premises and practical solutions applied in the studied juvenile probation centres leads us to the clear conclusion that these institutions are an essential, difficult-to-overestimate element of the system of prevention and education in the local environment. Probation officers employed in the centres, supported by volunteers, psychologists, therapists, and various tutors/instructors (athletes, musicians, actors, etc.), organise valuable activities including elements of all levels, models and strategies of modern prevention. Such an eclectic approach to work with juveniles is visible not only in the content of the activities, but also in organisational solutions, reflected in very diverse forms. Apart from programmes related to broadly defined prevention of addiction, aggression and violence, we should also pay attention to universal prevention projects. It is particularly worth emphasising activities based on innovative, original solutions going beyond established models of action (e.g. creative resocialisation), which are an attractive alternative for juveniles, "used to" being subjected to traditional methods. Also promising are those ideas of probation officers which are related to teaching young people elementary principles of good behaviour and to promoting equality and

tolerance towards "being different" among young people, since they are modelled on good practices, joining the trend of integration-thinking (long prevalent in developed countries), which is in opposition to the policy of "segregation" and social exclusion of discriminated groups.

Introduction

As the idea of resocialisation through isolation is a compromised one (mainly due to its ineffectiveness, stigmatisation processes, etc.), a lot of expectations and hopes are pinned on the activities of non-custodial institutions, in particular the work of a probation officer. The scarce available studies on the functioning of probation officers in present-day Poland focus mainly on the aspects of supervision and intervention, i.e. they emphasise the resocialisation element of the supervisions (e.g. the research of Robert Opora or Katarzyna Jadach[1]) while marginalising their preventive aspect. Admittedly, in recent years, there has been an analysis of working with an individual case employing the contract method,[2] which to an extent uses preventive solutions. References to prevention can also be found in Irena Mudrecka's book[3]; her study is an attempt to determine what place a family probation officer occupies in the perception of probationers. However, regardless of brief mentions on the subject found on the margins of available publications, current studies clearly lack an in-depth analysis of preventive activities of probation officers, even though Andrzej Bałandynowicz has been stressing the need to address this issue for several years (in the context of criticising custodial sentencing).[4]

Despite the fact that the social need for prevention is constantly growing, such activities are very rarely discussed and are decisively underestimated in the context of a comprehensive appraisal of the work of probation officers, which is usually associated with supervision, assessment, as well as intervention and resocialisation programmes. However, the institution of a probation officer operating in an open environment is by nature preventive in comparison to closed institutions to which offenders are sentenced. This is defined in Article 1 of the Law on probation officers: *Probation officers implement educational and resocialisation, diagnostic, **preventive**, and supervisory tasks defined by the law* […].[5]

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[1] Opora R., *Rola sędziów i kuratorów w resocjalizacji nieletnich*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Gdańskiego, Gdańsk, 2006; Jadach K., *Praca kuratora sądowego w sprawach rodzinnych, nieletnich i karnych*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UAM, Poznań, 2011.

[2] Paszkiewicz A., *Podmiotowe traktowanie wychowanka w pracy rodzinnego kuratora sądowego (ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem metody kontraktu)*, Wydawnictwo "Norbertinum", Lublin, 2006.

[3] Mudrecka I., *Rodzinny kurator sądowy w percepcji nadzorowanych*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole, 1997.

[4] Bałandynowicz A., *Probacja. Wychowanie do wolności*, Wydawnictwo "Primum", Warsaw, 1996; Bałandynowicz A., *Probacja. Resocjalizacja z udziałem społeczeństwa*, Wydawnictwo Lex a Wolters Kluwer business, Warsaw, 2011.

[5] Gromek K., *Kuratorzy sądowi. Komentarz do ustawy z 27 lipca 2001 r.*, Wydawnictwo "Lexis Nexis", Warsaw, 2002.

Considering both the current legislative recommendations and the common focus on supervisory and intervention aspects of probation in the work of a probation officer (and therefore in studies on this issue as well), the author has tried to fill a certain void in previous empirical findings by examining the preventive aspect of the activity of family probation officers. The study uses the findings of the author's nation-wide project entitled "The preventive aspect of the activity of family probation officers", currently being implemented in the majority of court regions. Since probation centres are the most convenient space, particularly conducive to initiating prevention, the aim of this paper is to describe the preventive aspects of these institutions, both in theory and in the perception of regional probation officers, working within the family division of the probation system.

Juvenile probation centres as a space for preventive activities – theoretical premises

Preventive activities are supposed to support the comprehensive development of individuals, so as to enable them to satisfy their own needs, discover the individual sense of life, to be satisfied with the selection and implementation of their choices and goals. They should include two complementary elements:[6]

- Supporting protective factors, i.e. promoting human development, shaping a personal, social and cultural identity; achieving physical, mental, social and spiritual health; and helping to develop the ability to withstand life's difficulties;
- Eliminating risk factors, i.e. all possible social and cultural conditions harmful and dangerous to an individual, such as: health and safety risk, stress, social isolation, violence, etc.

The implementation of these activities can take place on three levels.[7] The first level, i.e. **first-degree prevention** (called universal prevention at present) includes all measures aimed at improving the general standard of life, promoting physical and mental health, ensuring the right level of education in the family and at school, etc. These measures are addressed at the society as a whole (with particular emphasis on children and youths), and they do not require specialist qualifications. One example of interesting universal prevention initiatives are public service announcements promoted via the media. **Second-degree prevention** focuses on identifying and eliminating risk factors of dysfunctionality, and as such it is supposed to prevent the development of disorders. The relevant measures are addressed at individuals/groups that show first symptoms of disorders and function in environments which create inadequate conditions for parenting

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[6] Gaś Z.B., *Profilaktyka uzależnień*, WSiP, Warszawa, 1993; Jaworska A., *Leksykon resocjalizacji*, Wydawnictwo "Impuls", Kraków, 2012.

[7] Ibid.

(e.g. in families with an alcohol problem). Initiators of such measures should have some previous preparation pertaining to the problem and methodology. This is the space in which family probation officers function, supervising marginalised communities. **Third-degree prevention** is understood as intervention after a dysfunction occurs. Such measures are carried out by trained professionals (e.g. by counsellors in correctional institutions, addiction therapists, etc.); their aim is to counteract a further development of the disease/social maladjustment and to help the individual undergoing the therapeutic and resocialisation process with returning to a pathology-free, satisfying life (e.g. after leaving a correctional institution or addiction treatment facility minors remain under the supervision of a probation officer).

In view of the specificity of a probation officer's work, it might seem that their activity is focused only on the second and third degree of prevention. However, considering the fact that they influence the whole (not always dysfunctional) family environment of minors and their actions are systematic, they could also successfully attempt to prevent the occurrence of those harmful factors that are not present yet but are a potential danger (e.g. disease, loss of employment etc.). Juvenile probation centres provide the best conditions for a probation officer to initiate preventive measures.

Juvenile probation centres (previously called Probation Centres of Work with Juveniles), first appointed by the decree of the Minister of Justice of 27 July 1971 (Journal of Laws MS No. 6, Item 39) are institutions intended to ensure prevention, care, education, resocialisation and therapy; they are one of the measures used in working with minors on the basis of Article 6 Point 6 of the Law on proceedings in juvenile cases of 26 October 1982[8] (Journal of Laws of 2002, No 11, Item 109). They are institutions for minors for whom the family court ordered probation service (as an autonomous measure or during a conditional suspension of detention in a correctional facility or while on parole from a facility); minors who find themselves in very difficult living and family conditions. The basic goal of probation centres is to shift the participants' attitudes in a socially desirable direction, ensuring the correct development of their personality. Family probation officers, both professional and voluntary, play the leading educational role in the process of resocialisation and therapy of minors.[9] Using the support of volunteers, instructors, educators, and various therapists, they organise activities aimed at compensation, reeducation, and social therapy in the centres (and often also outside).

On the basis of the current legal regulations, juvenile probation centres are established by presidents of regional courts at the request of presidents of district courts. They function throughout a calendar year, for a minimum of 20 hours per

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[8] Górecki P., Stachowiak S., *Ustawa o postępowaniu w sprawach nieletnich. Komentarz*, Kantor Wydawniczy Zakamycze, Zakamycze, 2002.

[9] Ibid.

week (four or five hours per day), usually in the afternoons. Their operation is financed from the budgets of regional courts. Some of the specific tasks of the centres, defined in statutory documents, include the following activities:[10]

- Catering for personality needs of the wards,
- Solving the wards' psychological problems,
- Teaching the wards how to overcome life's difficulties, i.e. improving their level of social competences,
- Eliminating parenting and educational failures (especially with regard to a huge backlog of school work) and compensating for environmental deficits,
- Preparing the wards for observing social norms,
- Developing interests, hobbies and passions, i.e. creating new parameters of identity, in accordance with the idea of creative resocialisation,[11]
- Forming good habits of spending free time,
- Constructive relief of emotional tensions,
- Developing a sense of responsibility and protectiveness.

Effective implementation of these responsible tasks requires the cooperation of many persons and partner institutions, functioning in the local environment (e.g. schools, cultural centres, sports clubs, community common rooms, addiction treatment facilities, etc.). With the support (expertise related, material and organisational) of state entities and non-governmental organisations it is possible to implement numerous interesting and useful initiatives (also preventive ones), such as joined sports events, therapeutic and resocialisation trips, competitions between centres, etc. The parents/guardians of the wards are one of the most important partners of the centre staff when it comes to realising common goals. Meetings are held for them in order to jointly analyse the progress of the therapeutic and resocialisation programme of the minor, and classes are organised to provide them with information about desirable parental attitudes and optimum channels of communication, which are supposed to make the parent-child relation more efficient in terms of parenting.

The centres use various methods and forms in prevention and resocialisation work. Apart from the dominant method of probation officers working with individual wards (echoing the philosophy of casework) and the already mentioned community work, the method of group work is also widely used. The probation officer's role in this method is to be the animator of group activities, which (considering the specificity of their addressees) are usually sociotherapeutic. Arranged by the probation officer, structuralised group meetings are an opportunity to provide the participants with corrective experiences with regard to future

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[10] Kwadrans Ł., *Ośrodek kuratorski – alternatywa dla izolacji w resocjalizacji nieletnich*, [in:] *Dziewięćdziesięciolecie kurateli sądowej w Polsce. Historia- Teraźniejszość- Przyszłość*, collective work ed. by K. Stasiak, Ł. Wirkus, P. Kozłowski and T. Jedynak, Wydawnictwo "Impuls", Kraków, 2010.

[11] Konopczyński M., *Twórcza resocjalizacja*, Wydawnictwo MEN "Editions Spotkania", Warsaw, 1996; Konopczyński M., *Metody twórczej resocjalizacji. Teoria i praktyka wychowawcza*, PWN, Warsaw, 2006.

traumatic events, experiences compensating for deprivation states, inhibiting emotional and social development; they are also conducive to recovering from emotional tensions and facilitate active learning of new psychological skills.[12] Professionally conducted sociotherapeutic meetings, including appropriately selected games, plays, and exercises must be ruled by specified goals and principles and should take account of individual stages of group work.[13]

According to K. Sawicka, the basic forms of work used in sociotherapeutic programmes include: circle and rounds, brainstorming, artistic activity, singing and playing music, enacting psychodrama scenes, physical games and activities.[14]

Work in a **circle** diminishes the distance between the participants and equalises their social positions; and by enabling them direct eye contact, it facilitates creating emotional bonds. The form is preferred during most games and exercises. The **round**, on the other hand, is a technique usually used at the beginning and towards the end of the meeting (a brace encompassing the whole meeting), which normally consists in each participant in turn finishing a sentence commenting on their current feelings, or present events (e.g. Right now…, I feel…, it seems to me that…, etc.). Participation is voluntary and the other persons cannot comment or make any remarks about what they hear.

The basic goal of **brainstorming** is to activate the group and release its creative potential. The participants are supposed to come up, in a specified, short period of time, with as many solutions to a problem as possible. All ideas should be written down, regardless of their quality and feasibility. The group can then choose the most effective or original idea out of the proposed solutions.

Artistic activity is an excellent opportunity to unblock the wards' mental tensions, to let them express themselves, their feelings and experiences; it facilitates communication by using the non-verbal code. By means of free, unrestricted expression, socially maladjusted youths communicate important, difficult to verbalise messages; they get an opportunity to recover from negative emotions or to reveal experiences of which they were previously unaware. The group form of therapy and resocialisation through art (art therapy) facilitates using artistic activity to identify problems of individual group members or the group as a whole.[15]

One form of such activity is a **psycho-drawing**, based on the principles of projection; it is both a diagnostic and therapeutic technique. It enables the participants to express their feelings (repressed, nonconscious), catharsis ("purification" brings relief), realisation (understanding their own way of experiencing things), and comparison, by means of documenting changes occurring in the participants during

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[12] Sawicka K., *Socjoterapia jako forma pomocy psychologiczno-pedagogicznej* [in:] *Socjoterapia*, collective work ed. by K. Sawicka, Centrum Metodyczne Pomocy Psychologiczno-Pedagogicznej MEN, Warsaw, 1999.

[13] For more information on the structure of sociotherapeutic activities see K. Sawicka: *Socjoterapia*, op.cit.

[14] Ibid.

[15] Konopczyński M., op. cit.

successive meetings. Group meetings using psycho-drawing are divided into an expressive part and a discussion part. The former consists in free creative activity of the participants on a specified subject, covering various areas of life (e.g. family, current experiences, future plans, etc.). Depending on the chosen method, work can be performed individually or the whole group can create one big drawing. The second part of the meeting is the participants' discussion on their inner feelings in response to the drawings, without paying attention to their artistic or aesthetic value.

Music – understood as a language of social communication – finds a wide range of uses (both active and receptive) in preventive, therapeutic, and resocialisation activities. Singing and playing together releases positive emotions, emboldens, draws together and unifies the participants. Passive reception of musical works may, alleviate one the one hand, and enliven and stimulate to action on the other hand. The beneficial influence of music on the human mind and personality can be observed e.g. during **choreotherapy** (dance therapy) classes. The participants learn to act together in a coordinated way; they achieve a state of dynamic relaxation; they improve the functional capacity of their internal organs and their physical ability. Dancing provides pleasant aesthetic experiences and makes one realise the value of contact with others, of the closeness brought by cooperation, and of one's own physical capabilities.[16]

Introducing **paratheatrical performances** to group meetings has a particular therapeutic value. Enacting scenes is a corrective and educational technique drawing from broadly defined psychodrama.[17] The participants work with an existing scenario or one prepared by the group; they are divided into "actors" and the "audience" and enact a scene usually reflecting a real, niggling problem. Afterwards, the performance is discussed and each actor can share the feelings they had during the enactment and receive feedback from the audience. Later, the group repeats the performance, changing roles. The technique is useful for practising new behaviours by individual group members; it enables them to identify with and understand other people and often plays the role of a *catharsis* of sorts. Using dramatisation in work with socially maladjusted youths is particularly beneficial since many personality disorders and dysfunctional behaviours are manifestations of a pathology of roles. This means that a young person enacts

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[16] Rożnowska A., *Terapia twórczością jako profilaktyka stresu*, [in:] *Diagnostyka pedagogiczna i profilaktyka w szkole i środowisku lokalnym*, collective work ed. by M. Deptuła, Wydawnictwo Akademii Bydgoskiej im. Kazimierza Wielkiego, Bydgoszcz, 2004.

[17] Psychodrama defined by J.L.Moreno entails *"[...] all investigative, therapeutic and educational procedures that use spontaneous dramatisation. There are two procedures: sociodrama and psychodrama. The basic addressee of sociodrama is the group. [...]. Interactions in sociodrama are used as a means to eliminate disorders in the structure, organisation, and dynamic of the group which threaten to destroy it, which lead to inter-group conflict and to consequent disorders in the behaviour of group members. Sociodrama also eliminates, corrects and enriches various functions of the group [...]. In psychodrama, a group is formed for investigative, therapeutic, and educational purposes. In sociodrama, improvised dramatisations are introduced in already existing groups [...]. Whereas in psychodrama the focus is on the personality of individual group members, in sociodrama the main focus is on the group itself, on its activity and resultant effects, described as collective activity [...]"* (M. Konopczyński, op. cit., pp 87-88, in Polish).

certain roles in a deviant way, since he or she is either incapable of performing them correctly, or loses the individual and the spontaneous while performing.[18]

Role-playing by group participants can also be non-verbal, restricted to gestures and facial expressions. **Pantomime techniques** are used for this purpose. The performer acts out the topic that the moderator writes on a piece of paper. The others observe, make guesses, and verbally express what the performer is demonstrating. This form of expression helps the participant to learn the motives of his or her behaviour, the content and strength of emotional experiences, ways of responding to various situations; it also helps to learn new behaviours and expressing oneself in a nonverbal form.[19]

Activities and games involving physical movement are the most commonly used form of sociotherapy. Their obvious advantage is providing the participants with positive experiences, such as unrestricted joy, the happiness brought by being together, free expression, mental and physical relaxation. This is all the more important since, as a result of many traumas experienced in the past, youths with social functioning difficulties very commonly cannot spontaneously play and laugh. Ludic activities free the participants of their negative experiences, help them to relax and put them in a good mood, and lift the energy of the group, which contributes to its integration.[20]

One of the valuable methods of group work available to probation officers is influencing their wards through **sport and recreation**. This is a particularly beneficial method considering the fact that young people develop unsuitable, unhealthy lifestyles, entailing a preference for passive forms of spending spare time (e.g. in front of the TV or computer) on the one hand, and a fairly common consumption of psychoactive substances (nicotine, alcohol, drugs) which considerably weaken their psychophysical condition on the other hand. Sports and recreational activities may become an effective antidote to boredom and apathy and may prevent experimenting with stimulants, which have had an increasing impact on young people's lifestyle in recent years. After all, promoting a healthy, addiction-free lifestyle is one of the most important goals of contemporary prevention. Sports and recreational activities give wards a sense of joy and satisfaction; strengthen their self-esteem as a result of successes; teach how to accept failure and defeat in a "healthy" competition; improve attentiveness, concentration, and self-control; involve wards emotionally in the group's life; develop sensitivity and responsibility for others. A shared awareness of the value of physical fitness, a mutual interest and experiencing successes and failures strengthen the inter-group bonds and solidarity. This is particularly important for the purpose of

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[18] In his books *Twórcza resocjalizacja* (1996) and *Metody twórczej resocjalizacji* (2006), M. Konopczyński presents several sets of sociotherapeutic exercises that can be used in work with socially maladjusted youths in prevention and resocialisation facilities.

[19] Rożnowska A., op. cit.

[20] Sawicka K., op. cit.

meeting the needs of a socially maladjusted individual, which are mainly related to the sense of safety, belonging and being accepted, being someone important, noticed, and appreciated by the group.

Designing various forms of sports and recreational activities (competitions in various sport disciplines, outings, hikes, camping trips) should also include educational activities teaching young people elementary knowledge on hygiene, nutrition and dietetics, first aid, rules and regulations of sport events, fair play, being true sports supporters. This is a very important job given the numerous disturbing social phenomena related to increasing chauvinism and intolerance leading to hooliganism during mass sport events, many doping scandals, or the omnipresent cult of the body, wrongly understood and glorifying muscle strength, promoted by the media (mainly the popular tabloids).

The proposed methods and forms of group work obviously do not constitute a definitive catalogue of possible measures available in probation centres. The choice of specific methods in individual cases should be dictated by a thorough analysis of current and potential needs of group members and the group as a whole. The probation officer, as the animator of group activities, must, firstly, know all the participants well, and secondly, have the necessary knowledge on running youth groups. Activities must be well-thought-out and well-prepared, both in terms of their content and organisation.

Wards ordered by the court to attend probation centres are individuals in a specific life situation, burdened with a number of problems, usually caused by a combination of adverse environmental conditions and those subjective characteristics which are conducive to dysfunctional behaviours and consequently lead to a conflict with the law. The most common problems in working with a group of socially maladjusted youths include the participants' aggressive and self-destructive behaviours, connected to using psychoactive substances (nicotine, alcohol, drugs). Regardless of whether the probation officer feels competent enough to face these problems on his or her own, or uses the help of experts (e.g. specialists in addiction prevention and treatment, behaviour disorders therapists etc.), group activities must be suitably customised and suited for the diagnosed needs.[21]

An outline of research methodology and findings[22]

The theoretical aim of the study was to examine the preventive measures (and their circumstances) that probation officers employ in their work with supervised persons (individuals and families). The practical aim was to propose model solutions

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[21] Zinkiewicz B., *Kurator sądowy jako kompetentny pomagający – zarys metodyki pracy w środowisku otwartym* [in:] *Współczesna kuratela sądowa*, collective work ed. by B. Zinkiewicz, Wydawnictwo GWSP, Mysłowice, 2006.

[22] This paper uses selected findings from the author's larger project on the preventive work of probation officers.

of a wider use of preventive programmes in the work of a probation officer. The main research problem was formulated as the following questions: What preventive measures (other than supervision and intervention related activities) do probation officers use in their work with probationers? What are the circumstances of the probation officer's preventive activity? Out of the numerous specific questions which addressed the examined issue in more detail, one of the research questions referred to the work of probation centres, i.e.: What preventive measures are used in probation centres?

The author used the diagnostic survey method, including the techniques of interview, questionnaire and document analysis. The author prepared interview forms for regional probation officers and questionnaire forms (for family probation officers, both professional and voluntary ones). The study was conducted personally by the author between October 2012 and April 2013 in most court regions in Poland. The study sample included more than 1,000 respondents (ca. 400 professional probation officers, ca. 600 voluntary probation officers, and 27 regional probation officers). This paper uses only information obtained in the course of interviews with selected regional probation officers (14 persons), who provided data on the probation centres in their regions, and on the basis of internal documents they made available.

An analysis of internal court documents shows[23] that there were 104 juvenile probation centres operating in Poland as of the end of 2011. This is exactly the same number of centres as the one recorded in 2010. However, the data shows that 3 centres were closed down (the Bydgoszcz region – one, the Słupsk region – one, and the Świdnica region – one), while 3 new centres were opened (the Białystok region – one, the Poznań region – one, and the Szczecin region – one). The centres assisted 1,601 juveniles; compared to the 1,641 juveniles helped by the centres in 2010, the number of participants decreased by 40 minors.

Data on the number of centres and minors under their jurisdiction, obtained from interviews with regional probation officers, are showed in the table below. The list includes only those court regions which have probation centres and the interviewed probation officers were in possession of relevant information (Table 1).

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[23] *Kuratorska służba sądowa w Polsce* [*Probation Service in Poland,* in Polish], Warsaw, 2012, unpublished internal court documents, compiled by the National Council of Probation Officers, made available to the author by regional probation officers.

Table 1: Number of juvenile probation centres and their wards by court region

Court region	Number of open probation centres	Number of minors participating in probation centre activities
Białystok	1	16
Bielsko-Biała	1	10
Gliwice	8	167
Kalisz	1	12
Kraków	3	75
Lublin	12	249
Łódź	3	56
Opole	2	22[*]
Piotrków Trybunalski	1	14
Płock	2	27
Poznań	6	107
Słupsk	4	47
Świdnica	12	156
Warszawa Praga	4	86
Total	60	1044

Source: Data collected by the author.
* Data collected from the documents provided by the National Council of Probation Officers, op.cit.

The information in the Table above shows that 14 examined court regions have at present 60 open juvenile probation centres, which organise activities for 1,044 juveniles with court sentences. The most numerous centres are found in the regions of Lublin, Świdnica, and Gliwice. Proportionally to this number, the group of minors assisted by these institutions with prevention and resocialisation is also the largest.

Comparing the data to the information from the National Council of Probation Officers, we can conclude that the study covers more than a half of centres functioning in Poland at present, and the current number of minors is slightly lower from the total population in previous years. In half of the examined court regions, there was an increase in the number of wards (the highest in the Lublin region by 33 minors; in the Warsaw Praga region by 10; in the Płock region by 7, in the Świdnica region by 6). In the other regions, the number of minors in the

centres remained the same or slightly lower in comparison to previous years. We can draw two conclusions on the basis of this information. First, there are fewer centres functioning in the 31 court regions omitted in the study in comparison to the analysed, much smaller, area of the 14 regions; second, the total number of juveniles with court sentences placed in centres across Poland probably slightly increased during the last year.

An analysis of the responses of regional probation officers clearly shows that juvenile probation centres conduct varied activities at all levels of prevention. The majority of organised activities could be classified as ones typical for **universal prevention**, using **information and education strategy and programmes of social competence**, aimed at "psychological toughening". The following issues are addressed during the activities:

- Stress – what it is and how to cope with it,
- Equality and tolerance,
- Savoir – vivre;
- Interpersonal communication (e.g. teaching the correct ways of expressing emotions and feelings, especially such as annoyance and anger, and coping with negative emotions; empathy training; asking for help; assertiveness; responding to the controversial behaviour of others; solving conflicts; building and strengthening self-esteem; developing self-evaluation and self-awareness, etc.);
- Promoting a healthy lifestyle;
- Making aware of negative aspects of youth subcultures and destructive sects.

The same level of prevention also includes projects drawing from the **strategy of alternative activities**, which stresses the necessity to promote all those types of activities which bring the individual satisfaction and facilitate psychosocial development, while being an alternative to deviation. They include, among others:

- Music as a "cure for all evil", e.g. learning to play the guitar;
- Art classes using various arts and forms;
- Conjuring tricks as a spare-time activity;
- Photography workshops;
- Basics of strength training;
- Sports tournaments (various disciplines);
- Tourism and recreation (outings, hikes, walks in the neighbourhood);
- Theatre classes (in some centres they include a cyclical preparation and performance of plays).

All the examined centres offer classes in broadly defined **addiction prevention**, addressed both to minors in at-risk group, those who are experimenting with psychoactive substances, and addicts under the supervision of a probation officer following a therapy stint in a specialist facility. Various strategies and preventive programmes are used, including – depending on the current needs

– elements of information, affective education, early intervention, and damage control. The most frequently listed projects in this area included:

- Preventing addiction to nicotine, alcohol, drugs, steroids, inhalants, and legal highs;
- Preventing Internet and computer addiction, as well as cyber violence;
- HIV/AIDS prophylaxis.

The centres have country-wide preventive programmes at their disposal (such as "NOE", "No, thank you", "Before your try", "TUKAN", "Second primer, or the seven steps programme", etc.) but they also implement their own local projects, such as the programme "Marihuana? – It's your decision", "Fred Goes net", "I choose health – drugs and alcohol are not my thing" etc.

Aggression and violence are an important problem area touched upon during meetings in the studied centres; they are commonly encountered phenomena in the social space, especially in environments under court supervision. Wards of probation officers' are witnesses, victims, and very often perpetrators of aggressive behaviours and violent acts. Therefore, a lot of space in working with these youths is devoted to teaching correct ways of responding to and opposing aggression on the one hand, and training how to replace aggression and channel it somewhere else on the other hand. It follows from the probation officers' responses that in this area, like in the case of addictions, tried and tested, universal preventive programmes (such as "The sapper – how to defuse aggression") and local original solutions are used.

On the basis of analysing the probation officers' interview responses, it can also be concluded that **juvenile probation centres are an important element of local systems of prevention and education**, since other entities are involved in the activity of the discussed institutions and many projects are organised by way of partner cooperation. Examples of such activities include:

- Talks with a border guard, paramedic, ballooning instructor (in the Białystok court region);
- Meetings with a psychologist and addiction therapist (in the Kalisz and Lublin court regions);
- Annual table tennis tournaments organised together with police officers (in the Piotrków court region);
- Participation of probation centres in the "Opportunity" project (in 2010–2011), co-financed by the European Social Fund, aimed at improving the level of social and professional activity of youths in danger of exclusion. The programme covered 52 minors from 3 centres (in the Łódź court region);
- Cooperation with schools with regard to: motivating students to learn systematically by helping them with homework, overcoming didactic neglect and reducing developmental deficits – dyslexia, dysgraphia, spelling disorders, controlling school attendance (in the Płock court region);
- Annual Summer Weeks of Prevention organised in the form of fests (in the Świdnica court region).

The decisive majority of interviewed probation officers drew attention to the enormous role of **cooperation between the centres' staff and the participants' parents**. This is usually achieved by means of pedagogisation, focusing on the following problem areas:

• Preventing risky behaviours of children and youths, e.g. teaching parents how to tell if a child takes drugs;

• Counselling and support with solving parenting difficulties and life problems (e.g. corrective classes for parents teaching the skills of planning the parenting process and current family affairs, in the form of the programme called "School for parents", prepared by Bożena Szlucha and Zdzisława Kortas from the Opole court region).

Regardless of a clear shortage of periodic training sessions on contemporary prevention problems declared by the regional probation officers, the staff of juvenile probation centres takes very many preventive measures. All the interviewed probation officers (including those in whose region centres are not currently open) see a great need for promoting all manners of preventive initiatives and firmly believe in the sense and effectiveness of such activities in working with socially maladjusted youths. This is reflected e.g. in the statement of one of the respondents:

"[…] The centres implement preventive programmes to stop addictions (consumption of nicotine, alcohol and psychoactive substances), aggressive behaviours (training in replacing aggression), and risky behaviours during periods of more freedom and less adult supervision (always before summer holidays). The centre itself is an alternative way of spending time, and as such it is a preventive measure against uncontrolled and unorganised meetings in informal groups. This past Saturday, as part of such activities, there was an indoor football and table tennis tournament held by the Regional Court in Miastko. About 40 boys and 3 girls took part. There were 6 matches and only 1 yellow card (for a handball outside the penalty box!). There were no fights, insults, or swearing – the referee was surprised […]" (the Słupsk court region).

This and similar accounts given by probation officers are a convincing example of the value of preventive measures of these centres being appreciated; they also show the necessity of supporting (not only with regard to expertise, organisation, finances, but also mental support) similar initiatives by various persons and organisations who are part of the care, education and prevention system. Investing in preventive activity is not only more humanitarian in comparison to punitive policy and resocialisation involving isolation, but also economically more viable, since it generates decisively smaller financial costs, let alone social costs, which are so difficult to estimate.

Conclusion

An analysis of the theoretical premises and practical solutions applied in the studied juvenile probation centres leads us to the clear conclusion that these institutions are an essential, difficult-to-overestimate element of the system of prevention and education in the local environment. Probation officers employed in the centres, supported by volunteers, psychologists, therapists, and various tutors/instructors (athletes, musicians, actors, etc.), organise valuable activities including elements of all levels, models and strategies of modern prevention. Such an eclectic approach to work with juveniles is visible not only in the content of the activities, but also in organisational solutions, reflected in very diverse forms. Apart from programmes related to broadly defined prevention of addiction, aggression and violence, we should also pay attention to universal prevention projects. It is particularly worth emphasising activities based on innovative, original solutions going beyond established models of action (e.g. creative resocialisation), which are an attractive alternative for juveniles, "used to" being subjected to traditional methods. Also promising are those ideas of probation officers which are related to teaching young people elementary principles of good behaviour and to promoting equality and tolerance towards "being different" among young people, since they are modelled on good practices, joining the trend of integration-thinking (long prevalent in developed countries), which is in opposition to the policy of "segregation" and social exclusion of discriminated groups (e.g. immigrants, the unemployed, the socially maladjusted, the disabled etc.).[24] One can only hope that such a method of "implementing" prevention will win more and more supporters; that the network of open centres will become bigger; and that the juveniles under their supervision will want to take full advantage of the offer extended to them, and consequently will correct their behaviours and social attitudes in the desirable direction.

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[24] Zinkiewicz B., *Oddziaływania profilaktyczne norweskich służb ochrony dziecka jako źródło inspiracji dla polskiej rodzinnej kurateli sądowej* [in:] *Profilaktyka i probacja w środowisku lokalnym*, collective work ed. by B. Urban and M. Konopczyński, Wydawnictwo UJ, Kraków, 2012.

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ZBIGNIEW PUCEK

Collective Identity in the Context of Integration

Abstract

The starting point all unification efforts constitutes circumstances of more or less varied multiplicity. The unification process, as far as it is not resulting from the extremely hegemonic position of the integrating center of power, usually requires to make differences, distances, discrepancy of interests balanced by similarities, sense of closeness and common aims, superior ideas or interests, and that a chance to submit the former to the later exists. The same comes true in the case of European Union. The great project is still under construction and its final shape seems to be unpredictable at the moment. It is hardly to be managed effectively in the face of competition of the different integration ideas. The main of them are discussed in the paper. Consequently the final conclusion must concern rather the process of integration than its final results. A lot implicates that the European integration has not generated, at least until now, the European society. The European Union has not created any of the structural elements of the bonds characteristic for the possible social and cultural systems described by the social sciences. It did not become a super-state, super-nation or super-society. It is not even expressive as a civilization. It remains a multi-state, multi-national formation which in spite of indications of social convergence in certain spheres, for example in certain fields of law, technical standards or infrastructure, remains rather an economic aggregate from which the whole process commenced than a social organism.

The starting point all unification efforts constitutes circumstances of more or less varied multiplicity. The unification process, as far as it is not resulting from the extremely hegemonic position of the integrating center of power (as it occurred in the case of building Roman or Carolingian Europe), usually requires the assumption that differences, distances, discrepancy of interests are balanced by similarities, sense of closeness and common aims, superior ideas or interests, and that a chance and motivation to submit the former to the later exists. The consecutive

historical undertaking of the unification of Europe, which the contemporary European integration process constitutes, evokes, similarly to the previous attempts within this range, the question concerning the manner of existence and the character of the postulated, possible or real creation, to the formation of which such integration could contribute and which could otherwise be treated as a premise of this integration. Also in this case a question arises, whether within the territory of everlasting and conflictogenic divisions, differences and antagonisms, a sufficient bond-forming potential exists, capable to overcome these divisions within the institutionalized frames of the European identity. Here we come upon the issue concerning the sense in which is it possible to speak about Europe and in what sense Europe is spoken about.

Europe is a geographical, political, social and also cultural concept, and in order to remain in line with the established conceptual tradition, a rather civilizational concept. Its basis obviously constitutes relative territorial integrity. The role of the remaining aspects in building of European identity is historically changeable and recently perceived as quite problematic[1]. Nowadays, in the actual hierarchy of importance, the economic issues of the integration process are definitely moved to the foreground; after all this process proceeds and gains acceptance above all in the economic plan, at a rather strong reluctance of the majority of the Member States towards the perspective of limitation of their sovereign prerogatives. The economy still constitutes the modern basis of the formation of Europe to a greater degree than the political institutionalization of this emerging entirety. The European unity after the Second World War was from the beginning thought out as minimal unity efficiently aiming at achieving national interests; the nation-state has never been questioned since it is considered the basis of new, peaceful cooperation in Europe. The idea of Europe is, as it seems, basically tolerated only to the degree it enables the essential implementation of national projects, whereas, as a cultural idea it has been instrumentalized to serve as a political mechanism of integration[2].

This is shown by the main scenarios of the integration process. It is worth mentioning that not until the 80s of the last century did the European economic and political cooperation on the supranational level take the form of integration. We are dealing with three principal attitudes which specify the character of the everlasting dispute concerning the political project of Europe. The dominating, and shared by most of the countries and politicians, view is the so called realistic paradigm of cooperation, within the frames of which the European integration is perceived is as a factor which is not weakening but strengthening the sovereignty of nation-states. Integration is of a purely instrumental character here. According

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[1] cf. T. Judt, *Wielkie złudzenie? Esej o Europie* [A grand Illusion? An Essay on Europe], PWN, Warszawa–Kraków 1998.

[2] G. Delanty, *Odkrywanie Europy. Idea, tożsamość, rzeczywistość* [Inventing Europe. Idea, Identity, Reality.], PWN, Warszawa–Kraków 1999, p. 186.

to this standpoint only the national structures are realistic and thus the supranational politics can constitute nothing else but simply interstate relations. The main emphasis is placed here on the economic cooperation whose idea was historically derived from the Cold War circumstances requiring the military and political rapprochement and aspiration to ensure Europe with peace through the economic relation of Germany and France. With time the military and political purposes moved to the background and were partially institutionalized within the frames of NATO, while the foreground became occupied by economic cooperation issues.

The second vision of the European integration constitutes the federative paradigm of unification whose influential ideologist and representative, Swiss intellectualist Denis de Rougemont, was devoted to the idea that Europe is a civilizational and political unity of deep, ancient roots. He assumed that in creation of the European federation this sense of unity will dominate over the national spirit. Additionally, united Europe will constitute Europe of united regions, not states[3]. This vision of European integration echoes, on a higher, supranational level, the late nineteenth century project of building a nation-state. Within its frames something like a vision of a European united nation is being drawn. This idea did not find its reflection in real politics, however, it provided certain ideological background for the actual integration process, suffering from deficiency of cultural motivation. The awareness of this deficiency is expressed by the often quoted saying of Jean Monnet that if he could start again, he would start with culture.

The third functionalistic, regulative paradigm which emerged only in the eighties is of interim character, situating itself between the attitude of extreme realism and the idea of European nation. This paradigm derives from the concept of united Europe as a specific, transnational order of regulative function towards the whole united territory. This paradigm is set against the purely cooperationist standpoint as well as the program of extreme unification[4]. The functionalistic model assumes that the united nations give away part of their sovereignty for the benefit of the integrated Europe, in order to rise to the challenges of the globalization era. It grows out of the awareness of the end of the era of nation-states, however it does not fully accept the vision of the European federalism. As Gerard Delanty observes, the political culture of a nation-state constitutes, so far, the only actual basis of legitimization of the political supranational structures[5]. This regulative model, as it is nowadays admitted, should however find its completion in the essential degree of social integration and cultural unity. What becomes visible is the incapacity of the social process of European integration reflected in the weakness of its democratic legitimization[6]. This incapacity, constituting a fairly commonly recognized fact, is not – similarly to the model of coopera-

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[3] D. de Rougemont, The Idea of Europe, MacMillan, New York 1966.

[4] G. Majone, *Regulating Europe*, Routledge, London 1996.

[5] G. Delanty, op. cit.

[6] cf. S. Hoffmann, R. Keohane (ed.), *The New European Community*, Westview, Boulder 1991.

tion – random but assumed; neither of these two paradigms in its classical form does presume integration as a process construing supranational community in the form of European society, although practical issues connected with the evolution of European reality weaken the firmness of this assumption. However, the unification paradigm of de Rougemont, more open to the problem of creation and moreover rather to recreation of the European social and cultural bonds, remains a solely hypothetical project, situating itself beyond political practice.

The presented paradigms of integration are certainly open to various degree, or it should rather be said that they are closed to the idea of European society. The cooperation paradigm distances itself from this concept to the greatest extent, while the regulative paradigm, constituting the doctrinal basis of the current integration process, creates certain possibilities to generate the substitute of European society, based on mechanisms of mainly economic nature. The de Rougemont paradigm is closest to this idea, however, it refers to the high and rather abstract regions of the European culture, understood indeed and shared by some of the intellectual environments, but not attractive to social masses. Additionally, it does not provide a satisfying answer to the question concerning the place of multiculturalism in the united Europe. The tendencies dominating in the process of European unification reflect the structure and the political culture of this part of the world. The nation-states still remain the basic autonomic units. Of course, this is not in any way extraordinary. In this respect the territory of Europe does not differ from the presently commonly dominating standard. Although following the collapse of communism the process leading to integration accelerated in Europe, one may have the impression that the perspective of the widespread European integration in this plan is rather withdrawn than drawn nearer. While in 1989 Europe consisted of 34 countries, in 2013 it was already 48-50 (depending on the applied criteria) in comparison with 170 countries in the world. In Western Europe the process of unification was taking place without changing (with the exception of German integration) its national structure, however, Eastern Europe entered the phase of violent breakdown from which several successive countries emerged. This even gave reasons for speculations concerning the subject of new Middle Ages[7].

There are various reasons for the failure of the social bond in the integrating Europe. Above all the minimalistic unification projects, sketched with sense of strong concern about the fate of the autonomic, sovereign state and national existence, do not assume, apart from the purely theoretical unification project, deeper integration. Furthermore, the unification process alone, from the point of view of social dynamics, is in its preliminary phase after which a stage of more intensive social and cultural bond formation may follow, probable particularly within the frames of the regulative model. It is thus difficult to assess its final results already at this point. Maybe the creation of such a bond must wait for

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[7] Ibidem.

radical generational changes. The factor of time cannot be omitted here. The final result of integration is not fully predictable, however, it is necessary to take into account the limited controllability of the social processes whose actual course often differs from the accepted assumptions and visions.

It is also considerably important whether the occurring process is perceived and controlled as integration or as reintegration of Europe. Integration does not assume the existence of ready foundations but relies upon the building of new reality from the beginning. Reintegration uses and refreshes ready material on the basis of which it is theoretically possible to reconstruct the broken tradition together with structures, institutions, relations, representations and systems of value constituting its projection, in short, with elements of social and cultural bond.

In the European discourse on unification we are dealing with confrontation and also with partial intermingling of the integration perspective with the reintegration perspective. The reintegration rhetoric willingly reaches out to the argument of civilization, mutual historical roots, Christian universalism and axiological canon, ecumenism, etc. Such is, for example, the European concept of the Catholic Church. The integration rhetoric concentrates on economic and political benefits of cooperation, possibilities of cooperation in circumstances of multiple divisions, minimizing possible unification processes, uses the argumentation of European peace and competiveness in the globalization era. The reintegration rhetoric is the rhetoric of the community and is of ethotic nature, the integration rhetoric – rhetoric of consumptive union as well as economic and political benefits is rather of an adaptive nature: justifies the European unification with the requirements of the times, not with the more or less mythical brotherhood of the nations. It seems that the first one is more favorable to the idea of the European society than the second one, controlled from the armchairs of the European politicians and the politicians of the Union, which generally takes place without them. The integration rhetoric expresses the interests of the fortress of the Western Europe since it allows it to dismiss the argument concerning the natural attachment of the European East to the European entirety and to treat its desire of "returning to Europe" cautiously. For the East the argument of the return is a way of legitimization of the European aspirations justified within the historical and civilizational categories, i.e. ethotic. The contemporary processes are dominated by the philosophy of integration, streamlined integration, omitting the social and cultural project of the convergence of Europe.

However, for the integration processes, occurring today within the frames of the European Union formula, the remaining European dimensions hold the decisive meaning. Besides, we are not interested in the political or economic aspect, easily recognized and described in various contexts, but the social and cultural plan of the existence of Europe. Within this context the old problem of the classical sociology returns: the problem of the social order and its constitut-

ing bonds. In other words a question arises, to what degree does Europe possess features of a social structure and what is its collective awareness and identity, if it exists. Particular attention is deserved here by the question whether the European integration projects are connected with the specifically European sense of community which could constitute the basis for social integration. In this way we reach the key question concerning the existence of the European society and the character of the bond by which it is constituted or could be constituted. It is of theoretical and practical aspect. Consideration in the theoretical perspective turns into a question about the conditions and factors deciding about the possibility of the transformation of the loosely related societies or nation-states into a relatively homogeneous, integrated social organism.

The practical aspect of this issue is to a certain degree debatable. Against the imperative character of the present national and state identifications it may be of course asked whether the existence of such a supranational society is possible and especially whether it is at all needed and required. A certain argument exists, as it seems, which speaks for the presence of the social and civilizational bonds in the integrated Europe. As far as integration is expected to be a durable and irreversible process in its consequences and not a merely temporary state characterized by conditional, historical, purely strategic alliance of a certain number of states (from which it has actually begun as the product of the Cold War), it should also become a process of social amalgamation, to use a term borrowed from the sociology of L. Gumplowicz, that is a process leading to the generation of a real social and cultural bond within the territory so far dominated by multiple, separate, and often conflicted between each other, state and social relationships. What we are considering here, in brief, is a European society as the aim of integration.

The process of creation of the European society, however perceived as a process which is rather spontaneous than controlled, was looked into with moderate optimism already at the beginning of the 20th century by Emile Durkheim who wrote, referring to the ideal of brotherhood between people, in the book titled *The Division of Labor in Society*, as follows: "We are not, by no means, on the eve of making this ideal real; for among different social types there are too many mental and moral differences to allow them to unite within the frames of the same society. However, it is possible that societies of the same kind combine together and it is towards this direction that our evolution seems to head. […] Above the European nations, a European society, which already presently possesses certain self-awareness and is beginning to organize itself, is striving in a spontaneous way to come into being. If, what indeed has not been proven, the creation of one human society is impossible then at least the creation of larger and larger societies brings us closer to this objective"[8].

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[8] E. Durkheim, *O podziale pracy społecznej* [The Division of Labour in Society], Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 1999, p. 510.

Perceiving the process of the emerging new, European society as the implementation of the ideal of brotherhood and peace in the complex, modern social forms, Durheim descried its two specific dimensions. The first one concerns the increase of labour division, capable of creating an adequately strong and developed social bond of a limited type between people and social groups, set by him against the forms of mechanical solidarity, characteristic for the pre-industrial epoch. The second dimension is created by the cultural bond, articulation of uniform cultural "presentations" expressing the collective awareness, and particularly self-awareness of this society. What Durkheim had in mind was the process corresponding with modernity, complexity and dimensions of this society, based on the system of education generating cultural unity concentrated on common values. Characterizing the organic bond Durheim emphasized that "People need peace as long as they are already connected by bonds of coexistence in a group. […] If it seems that presently this kind of solidarity is stronger among civilized nations, if this part of the international law which regulates the property law of the European society, possesses perhaps greater significance than in the past, then this is because the European nations are presently much less independent of each other; that in certain respects they are all a part of the same, not yet very coherent society, possessing however a greater and greater awareness of itself. What we call European equilibrium constitutes the beginning of the organization of such a society"[9].

It must be admitted that Durkheim's idea considered in the perspective of the unification of Europe is characterized by broader and more courageous horizons than those which determine the course of the present integration processes. Of course, Durkheim was not a politician who has to take into account the realities of the practical action, but a scholar describing the world, actually not fully convinced that the emerging European collective awareness is effectively able to overcome the aggressive nationalism typical for the Europe nation-states. His concerns in this respect were proven by the two World Wars. Defeat suffered by the European civilization in their course, eventually provided circumstances to undertake, in spite of everything, the most substantial integration discourse in the history of modern Europe. Therefore ultimately, Durkheim perhaps was not mistaken announcing the dawn of the new European society.

The actual European bond, to a certain extent, exists not only as of today and frankly speaking is a traditional component of the European reality. It manifests itself within two levels. One of them constitutes certain social relationships and supranational organizations, typical for the European academic, artistic, professional, sports or religious environments as well as relationships and correlations connected with economic activities. A great deal of them is naturally concentrated within the European territory. The second constitutes a wide sphere of civilizational distinguishing marks of Europe deep-rooted in its tradition and

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[9] Ibidem, p. 154–155.

present in the culture of the individual nations[10]. Europe is sometimes perceived, especially by the authors of the past, as a territory filled with a specific civilization. "European nations – as José Ortega y Gasset wrote – have already constituted a society, community, for a long time […] There are European customs, European habits, European public opinion, European law, European authority. […] All these phenomena occur in the form adequate to the level of evolution on which the European society is, which is of course equally high as the level of development of its components, i.e. nations"[11]. However, tendencies to recognize oneself within the European identity have always had and still have a limited social range. They constitute an element of an elitist rather than common awareness, which reveals inclination to close within the tribal or local social and cultural structures. Therefore, broader social circles do not participate in this awareness even if objectively they are entangled in the labour division system. It may be stated that Europe, similarly to the nations, is an imagined community and only exists as far as it is the subject of individual and collective convictions and as far as its basic, common cultural resources are reproduced in the behavior of the people. This was perfectly understood by F. Znaniecki who claimed that supporting higher civilizational forms requires constant emphasis on their observance, put on the masses by the leading elites[12]. However, from the times of Zaniecki Europe has changed and the present standards of democracy deprived the elites of its former function. Besides, what has changed is the character of the elites which are presently established on the basis of new, completely different, much more democratic and pragmatic criteria, weakly uplifted by the civilizational ethos. The democratic standards of the contemporary Europe, without interrupting the ongoing discourse between the "Europeans" and the "Eurosceptics", deprive this elite European awareness of its potential causative power. It is thus not surprising that the consent to the European course of the evolution of the social union structures is presently relatively marginal[13].

The question we arrive at concerns the type of the collective European awareness which is created, or may be created, in the conditions of mass democracy, deconstruction of the leadership structures and authorities within the context of the regulative integration paradigm, which is presently gaining advantage. Will the more or less integrated Europe be established as a territory of coexistence of separate, peculiar communities and cultures or will it transform into an either way defined holistic entirety, based on mutual and relatively commonly understood within this territory, social, organizational and cultural assumptions.

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[10] See e.g.: A. Flis, Cechy konstytutywne kultury europejskiej [Essential Characteristics of European Culture], „Kwartalnik Filozoficzny"[Philosophical Quarterly], vol. 21, no, 2 (1993).

[11] J. Ortega y Gasset, Rozważania o Europie [Meditation on Europe], in: Bunt mas i inne pisma socjologiczne [Revolt of the Masses and Other Sociological Works], PWN, Warszawa 1981, p. 663.

[12] F. Znaniecki, Upadek cywilizacji zachodniej. Szkic z pogranicza filozofii kultury i socjologii [The Fall of Western Civilization. Sketch from the Bordeland of Philosophy of Culture and Sociology], Poznań 1921.

[13] G. Delanty, op.cit.

Within this context the European civilization is usually spoken about. For a sociologist this is a question about the presence and the range of the bonds uniting the European community and about their nature.

In the existing circumstances it is difficult to give a straightforward answer the question asked. Therefore, instead of developing futurological visions let us present certain stipulations and prefigurations of the European society basing on the sociological theory of the social and cultural bond. Limiting ourselves to the experience of the contemporary European communities we can distinguish four major types of bonds constituting the basis of the social integration, four major dimensions of the actual human communities, namely a social, political, ethnic (national) bond and a cosmopolitan, supranational bond[14].

The political bond in the Western countries constitutes the basis of organization of the political community and it is expressed within the context of nationality as a bond remaining in relation with the institution of the state. The political discourse shaping this bond is presently above all concentrated on laws[15] (their classic example is the right to life, freedom and property) or on participation. Citizenship as a political dimension of the social life is therefore an issue of passive formal laws or an active law of participation in the process of political decisions. And it constitutes an extremely important aspect of integration of the national communities. However, does this element of the political culture play a similar bond-forming role in the European Union, does it become the basis of the sense of the collective European identity? Delatny's answers to this question is negative indicating that the European demos is characterized by low degree of civil participation, serious deficiency of democracy and unsolved problem of sovereignty[16]. This is the result of the size of the integrated Europe which makes it difficult or simply makes it impossible for the citizens to participate in the political process and reduces their citizenship to the point of passive, formal laws, as well as of the diverse structure of the member states, preventing this formation from becoming a federation. The latter fact paradoxically causes the strengthening of the state as a result of integration, determining additionally its specific limits.

The mentioned author, as a matter of fact, notices only one living source of the European ethos. An identity of exclusiveness arises in the European Union whose point of reference is always somebody foreign: a non-European or even a European but different, because from the East[17].

The third dimension of social communities constitutes a social bond connected with the concept of society, with key importance for sociology, and at the same time extremely complicated and ambiguous. This concept is associated with

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[14] cf. G. Delanty, S*ocial Theory and European Transformation: Is there a European Society?,* "Sociological Research Online", vol. 3, no. 1 (http://www.socresonline.org.uk/3/1/1.htlm). Access 7.11.2013.

[15] cf. T.H. Marshall, *Citizenship and Social Class*, Pluto Press, London 1992.

[16] G. Delanty, *Social Theory…*

[17] G. Delanty, *Odkrywanie Europy…* [Inventing Europe].

the characteristic for Europe national community, with the specific institutional order, the nation-state, the territorial structure based on the organizational bond connected with the division of labour or functions. At the bottom of the idea of the nation lies the concept of consensus which passes for a condition of cultural integration and contents. The specifically social dimension of the European integration is practically reduced to market categories both in the aspect of consumer goods as well as work and the so-called "acquis", i.e. the EU law. The European integration increased the stream of goods and smoothed the workforce. Social cohesion is achieved thanks to the market methods and the dynamics of capital accumulation exchanging bonds for homogenization. Besides consumption and labour the European Union seems to offer little within this range in comparison with the national societies. The creation of the protective state in the post-war period became the most important sign of the social consensus in these societies. Comparable institutionalized protectiveness does not exist on the European level where the social citizenship institution has not been introduced anyhow.

Finally, the last dimension of the social bond considered here is of supranational, cosmopolitan nature. It is described by three concepts functioning in social sciences, and to a limited degree also in the awareness of the societies, expressing the actual processes of universalization, internationalization and globalization which exceed the limits of the traditional and still basic social and cultural arrangements. These are the concepts of civilization, federal state and world or common community. Civilization is a category with great tradition in the social, historical, political afterthought and expresses the sense of identity and unity of the Europeans against the outer world. The present idea of the supranational political structure in the form of integrated Europe may be related to the European sense of danger connected with the domination of the United States and until recently of the Soviet Union. Finally, the idea of the world community expresses the pursuit of declaration of the universal human rights, universal peace and opposition to violence. Of course on the European level certain civilizational rhetoric can be found. However, serious arguments for this thesis exist that the ideal of the European unity has never been, as a matter of fact, an alternative of the nation-state neither in theory, nor in practice. As it is proven by Delanty, after the period of Renaissance the idea of Europe was torn away from the universalistic Christian philosophy of life and entered into tight relations with the emerging ideal of the nation-state. Since that time, ignoring some utopian ideas, the perception of Europe as a continent of nation-states has dominated[18]. This tradition makes it difficult to transform the EU into a federal structure. All the more, the integrated Europe, although it contributed to the creation of the post-national citizenship for the immigrants, does not show interest in the idea of the universal community in the sense of cosmopolitan ethics of global citizenship. On the contrary, the defense strategy of the exclusive character of the Union is heard more

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[18] Ibidem.

and more clearly as well as the shaping and the popularization of the mentality of the "fortress" against the outer world which is expressed, among others, in the intensification of border control.

A lot implicates that the European integration has not generated, at least until now, the European society. The European Union has not created any of the structural elements of the bonds characteristic for the possible social and cultural systems described by the social sciences. It did not become a super-state, super-nation or super-society. It is not even expressive as a civilization. It remains a multi-state, multi-national formation which in spite of indications of social convergence in certain spheres, for example in certain fields of law, technical standards or infrastructure, remains rather an economic aggregate from which the whole process commenced than a social organism.

We have already mentioned the factor of time. The lapse of time may, theoretically, change the state sketched herein. This would have to lead to the construction of the collective European identity around the European idea concentrated not on national ethea but on the hypothetical homogenous European ethos which so far exists only in the form of the elitist idea of European civilization. Meanwhile, this idea in the times of mass democracy is in the state of deep crisis and rather loses its influence on the pursuits and the behavior of people, possibly regaining it where it may prove useful in the role of the mentioned symbol and instrument of the exclusivism of the union. Within this context an original alternative concept is being put forward, a concept rejecting the communitarian tradition of perceiving the society as a combination of the idea of political unity with the idea of ethnic and national unity and treating them as a "community without unity", discourse space, open to competent civil communication. It is about the society beyond tradition, negotiating in the process of communication its successive states and transformations. This concept, outlined by the German sociologist Jürgen Habermas, constitutes the answer to the present processes of deepening, due to various reasons (among others due to the successive immigration waves approaching Europe, flooding from culturally and racially different, poorer parts of the world), cultural divisions and conflicts. Europe faces the difficult task of building a society in conditions in which its own interior divisions are overlapped with foreign problems of similar character. Dismissing tradition and reduction of conflicting potential of cultural differences and distances with simultaneous consent to these differences and their cultivation would have to happen by way of discourse and intensive institutionalized communication processes. This is about a new political culture and new political socialization based on the idea of post-national citizenship. The model of citizenship in a European society shaped in such a way causes that the central value is not participation, which after all in conditions of the integrated Europe constitutes a hardly realistic postulate, but communication. Analogically, the idea of participatory democracy gives its place to the postulate of communication, discursive, democracy. The European integra-

tion should therefore not create a traditional state bond or a national cultural unity
but spaces of discourse, respect for public debate. This kind of public sphere
"must be situated within the context of political culture valorizing freedom and
must find support in the liberal, association structure of the civil society"[19].

Still further in the theoretical, as he claims, postmodernist postulates, advances the repeatedly quoted herein G. Delanty who sees the future European society as
the "knowledge society"[20]. Knowledge in this context constitutes the "institution of
social imagination". It stands for the society's cognitive ability of self-interpretation and self-imagination and construction of alternatives. The problem is whether
such an imaginative dimension of the European integration exists, which would be
able to use the knowledge to remonstrate the present forms of reality in such issues
as the limits of the social groups and the fundamental group attachment codes.
Otherwise speaking, it concerns the building of the European society on the basis
of deconstruction and rebuilding the social bonds according to different principles.
The basis of this bond should constitute, according to the authors of this radically
postmodernist, left-wing and cosmopolitan orientation, post-national citizenship
released from the national and state conditionings, with simultaneous rejection of
all other, traditional indicators of social participation. The argument is constituted
by the thesis presented in this text, that presently Europe is not a political community, not a cultural community, not a society in the conventional sense of this term assuming the principle of consensus. This leads to the conclusion that Europe cannot
be an actual community but it may develop as a "virtual" society, as it is expressed
by e.g. Delanty. This virtual society is not an existence constituted as a system of
values but as a certain frame of the public discourse. This also refers to the idea of
the cultural commonwealth. Relying on such cultural commonwealth could prove
very dangerous for Europe due to its multiculturalism and cultural variety. Within
this context the status and the role of knowledge becomes the central issue.

The separation of the ethno-cultural idea of Europe from the idea of citizenship is of key importance within this context. The distinction is based on the
difference between the universal norms and the cultural values, which are relative.
Post-national citizenship is a normative concept while Europe is a cultural idea.
Assuming however, that the European idea may constitute normative basis of the
collective identity only when it concentrates on the new imagination of the essence
of citizenship, a question may be asked whether the multicultural European society
is able to accept collective identity deprived of roots[21]. This question makes us realize that the presented project sets the voluntaristic assumptions against the firm
realities of social and cultural mechanisms whose functioning may be resistant to
progressivistic persuasions. Concepts of this kind may however find application

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[19] J. Habermas, *Replay to Grimm*, in: P. Gowan, P. Anderson (ed.), *The Question of Europe*, Verso, London 1997, p. 263.

[20] G. Delanty, *Social Theory…*

[21] G. Delanty, *Odkrywanie Europy…* [Inventing Europe].

in conditions of far-reaching erosion of traditional axionormative systems so far controlling the processes occurring in the European societies.

The presented concepts of the European society question the European identity idea understood as a certain total project lined with ethnoculturalizm. The collective identity of Europe should rather be based on autonomy and sense of responsibility of individuals and communities than on the chimerical concept of supranationalism. "Therefore – as Delanty writes – the basic question arises whether from the European identity the collective identity may emerge, which is able to oppose the firm force of nationalism and racism and will not allow to be paralyzed by consumerism or official culture of indissoluble institutions. The search for new principles of legitimization of Europe is inseparably connected with the attempt to create space where collective identity could shape itself. It may turn out that the breakup of unity will be the condition of creating European identity"[22].

This concept of European society comes into an open conflict with concepts operating the civilizational paradigm, treating Europe as a community based on the bond of deeply rooted cultural values. The civilizational idea remains in the European rhetoric. It is believed, according to some researchers illusively, that the European Union is a relation created on the basis of the closeness or identity of axiological assumptions and traditions. Despite the criticism which is met by this rhetoric, it remains attractive for these spheres which, in the ethotic formula of the European civilization, see the chance of reintegration and blossoming of the European society, consolidation of its civilizational identity and preservation of managing and dominating position in the present and upcoming time, being interested as such in various respects. However, not everyone confirm such a reality of Europe. "If […] we look at the nations against the light – as José Ortega y Gasset wrote, we notice within them the European society like a watermark on the paper. However, there are people who are not able to see this"[23].

The social and the cultural profile of the national societies is shaped independently or partially independently from the political institutions and gravitates towards nationalistic and conservative ideology. Attachment to this cultural community constitutes the basis of individual and collective identification. Nation-states are ruled by an overwhelming tendency to treat the political bond as a derivative of the national bond. Additionally, in the nationalistic discourse the nation is treated as a cultural group which brings forth a specific phenomenon of exclusivism and tendencies to exclude foreign people. In such a way the issues of citizenship, citizenship rights and participation are placed under the command of the national criteria comprehended one way or another. The European integration process clearly lacks this cultural dimension, typical for nation-states.

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[22] Ibidem, p. 2.

[23] J. Ortega y Gasset, *Rozważania o Europie* [Meditation on Europe], in: *Bunt mas i inne pisma socjologiczne*, PWN, Warszawa 1981, p. 663.

Europe does not possess the principal components creating the national culture: common history, common language and religion as well as homogenous educational or medial system. The language constitutes, with few exceptions, the main condition and instrument of shaping national cultures. As Delanty notices, it will be difficult to build similar European unity and cultural bond on the basis of the polyglot elite. In this respect it is worse today than it was in the times of the European career of Latin, as the international language of the continent (after all also elitist). Therefore, the attempts of building the European identity through references to the values of the high culture and cultural heritage do not appeal to the wider public. "The spirit of Europe" does not arise great interest as basis of the collective identity of the Europeans. Ideas which provided Europe with identity – the ideals of the Christian and humanistic West and liberal democracy – did not manage to unite Europe and at least we are less prone to believe they constitute a civilizing force of the European modernity. If the integrated Europe is a cultural unity then it is mainly in the spirit and style of consumption and in exclusivism.

GYULA SZABÓ[1]

Regional Aspects of the Connections Between Marriage and the Quality of Life in Hungary

Abstract

A special aspect of the research related to well-being is represented by the studies that deal with the special role of marriage. Different studies have already proved that marriage has a positive effect on both adults and children in many ways: it improves health condition and the quality of life from various aspects. Some former results of scientific investigation (Robert Sampson, 1987, and Porter and Purser, 2010) also shown at community level in the United States that the high rate of married people in a region strengthens interpersonal connections, improves the health condition of these people, life-expectancy of the residents and at the same time it lowers the crime rate. These investigations were mostly carried out in the United States, my study tries to prove if similar effects can be experienced in Hungarian regions.

Introduction

The research related to the role of marriage in connection with the quality of life in different regions is a special area of well-being research. Various research results show that marriage plays a very special role in the life of humans, it has a significant effect on the health condition and the quality of life in general of both adults and children. Former studies (Sampson 1987, Porter and Purser 2010) proved at community level that in the United States the high rate of married people strengthens interpersonal connections, improves the general health condition and at the same time decreases the number of criminal offences in the local community. This study

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[1] Dr.GyulaSzabó, PhD, assistant professor, University of Debrecen, Faculty of Child and Adult Education.

intends to reveal a similar connection between marriage and the quality of life by using a similar approach and the data collected in Hungary at county level. We use the sometimes controversial concept of well-being by investigating different aspects of it – based on the concept of Human Development Index, which is a complex indicator of well-being, we intend to determine the connection between the quality of life and the rate of married people. Besides we study the possible connection between marriage, life expectancy, and criminal activities in Hungarian counties.

The effect of marriage on communities

The basic idea of this study, that marriage takes effect not only on the life of each individual but on the condition of the communities as well is not new at all, since several studies have proved that there is connection between family status and mortality (Lillard, Panis 1996). Every scientific investigation show that people living in a marriage have significantly better chances to have a better life than those, who are unmarried. As Dannis Raphael formulated it ''The linkages between illness, crime and unhealthy communities are straightforward: all share similar determinants, reflect a failure of some kind or another, are subject to different interpretations and approaches as to causes and intervention and are subject to public policy decisions that determine the quality of various social determinants of health and well-being'' (quoted by Porter 2012, p. 424). However the question is how this positive effect takes place in practice, that is how marriage is able to play this positive role – if the effect can be proved in every case, e.g. in Hungary. Similar questions were raised by Linda Waite in a short study published in 1995 (Waite 1995), she was also looking for the answer to the question, how marriage can exercise an influence on our quality of life. Even today there are two basic approaches, which were developed decades ago: in its original form the so called selection hypothesis postulates that marriage is an act primarily undertaken by those who are of better health, that is why married people are more likely to be healthy. The other popular approach, the protection hypothesis claims that higher level of health is in fact the product of being married (Porter 2012). Scientists, who accept this second approach posit that marriage provides a special form of protection against various unhealthy factors, e.g. living in a family decreases the level of stress and promotes a healthier way of life.

Beside the "traditional" approach of the selection theory nowadays a new approach has appeared in the scientific literature. According to this new theory the situation is just the opposite of that former studies postulated: people who typically live in marriage are actually in a worse health condition than the national or regional average, they choose marriage to improve their health condition by all the advantages provided by family. It is easy to recognize that on the one hand this approach practically accepts the main concept of the protection theory that marriage has a direct effect on individuals. On the other hand it is based on

the economic concept that every "product" is used by those, who need it most. In this case the marriage is the product, which is mostly made use of those who can profit from it.

Porter in the above mentioned study (Porter 2012) comes to the conclusion – based on the findings of other studies – that the "selection" and "protection" theory are both well-grounded from a scientific point of view. Of course he cites examples from the United States and he points out that even if the role of marriage in the society has significantly changed in the past few decades (just like in Hungary and other countries of Europe), most of the Americans still consider marriage and family as an ultimate factor of personal well-being. In parallel with that he describes in his study, based on national level statistical data that people living in marriage are in better health than those, who live alone. At the same time married people have less chance to have harmful habits like smoking, excessing consumption of alcohol and sedentary lifestyle. Furthermore former surveys indicated that marriage is associated with a significant reduction in crime in comparison to people, who are not married. This connection was proved in the United States by surveys at both individual and community levels, and these surveys also confirmed that marriage state has a beneficial effect for the children too, in that sense that teenagers in single-parent or remarried homes are at a higher risk for criminal activities. Surveys at aggregated level also proved that if in a community the rate of married couples is higher, it stabilizes interpersonal relationships and fosters collective cooperation – both of them have an important effect, in these communities the number of law violations is significantly lower (Sampson 1987).

Making quality of life measurable

Porter did not examine the above mentioned effects of marriage by itself, but he intended to place his own research into a wider theoretical framework. A healthy way of life and safety are important elements of the quality of life, the research of these aspects became a very popular among the researchers of social trends. If we try to measure social development the most obvious way is to use the indicator that has been applied for decades to measure economic development, the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Despite of the criticism that was put into word in the past few years a lot of economists and policy makers still consider Gross Domestic Product to be a principal indicator of well-being (Jacobs and Šlaus 2010). That is why we can observe that the growth of GDP is among the most important aims of policy in many countries. Nowadays the papers dealing with the issue of well-being, quality of life typically commence their analysis with emphasizing that GDP is no longer acceptable as main indicator of societal well-being – while for several decades it was the practically the only indicator used by experts in this field. It is still the most widely used metric for surveying an economy's performance. On the other hand GDP in-

cludes many items that do not contribute to the assessment of societal well-being: security expenditure, depreciation, income going to foreigners.
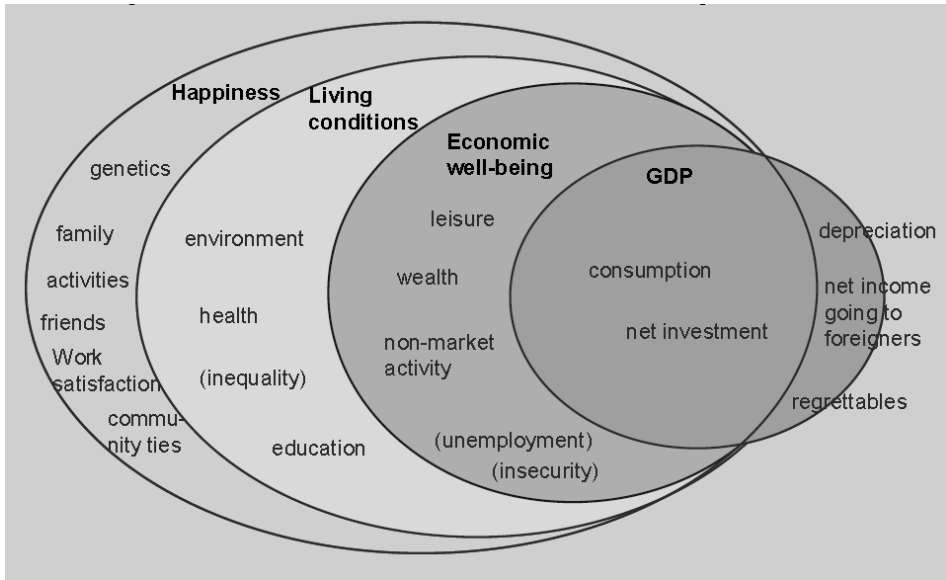
Figure 1: The elements of well-being

Source: Deutsche Bank Research.

Figure 1 explains the structure of well-being starting with the concept of GDP as a core index, without some subtracted factors like income going to foreigners or consumption. This modified version of GDP used to be the starting point for measuring economic well-being, although even this version of GDP does not take into account other important elements for explaining well-being. GDP has a number of limitations that make it a problematic indicator according to several experts. From a merely economic point of view GDP, as shown in Figure 1 includes the replacement of depreciated capital, nevertheless depreciation does not improve.

To make social development measurable beyond simple economic indicators is not a new-fangled claim of social scientists. Since the 1960's the creation and use of composite indicators became more and more popular. By now the number of such indices is over 100, most of them were created in the past two decades (Faragó 2007). But beside the growing interest of scientist the active participation of politicians was also necessary to make this issue one of the most important research topics. Quite recently a group of reputed scientist had the opportunity to thoroughly examine this issue when President Sarkozy requested them to participate in a special commission. In 2008 he asked, Joseph Stiglitz (President of the Commission), Amartya Sen (Advisor) and Jean Paul Fitoussi (Coordinator)

to create "The Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress" (CMEPSP). The members of this commission, three respected professors were supposed to formulate a report on not only the problems of GDP but also the possible new methods of measuring well-being (Stiglitz et al. 2009). The Commission's aim has been to identify the limits of GDP as an indicator of economic performance and social progress and to consider what additional information might be required for the production of new indicators. The fact that one of Europe's leading politician thinks reasonable to establish a commission like that shows that this is not an issue of a few experts. This way the development of new, methods became a goal of decision makers as well.

To find a way to properly measure human development, first we have to define what well-being actually means for an economist. A multidimensional definition was used by the Stiglitz commission and based on research and several concrete initiatives they identified key dimension that should be taken into account. The above mentioned report of the commission listed seven main aspects (Stiglitz et al. 2009):

Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth);
- Health;
- Education;
- Personal activities including work
- Political voice and governance;
- Social connections and relationships;
- Environment (present and future conditions);
- Insecurity, of an economic as well as a physical nature.

That is why several experts began to challenge the dominance of this measure, pointing out its inadequacies. Probably the most spectacular stage of this process was the initiation of a special commission by President Sarkozy in 2008. The members of this commission, three respected professors were supposed to formulate a report on not only the problems of GDP but also the possible new methods of measuring well-being (Stiglitz et al. 2009). This act indicates that criticism on the traditional methods of measuring well-being is not just an issue of a few economists and other experts. The development of new, more appropriate methods became a goal of decision makers as well.

However in the literature of economic and societal well-being there are a number of composite indices, which differ in terms of the indicators and aggregation methods used, not surprisingly most researchers (most of them economists) focused on the core elements of the issue, the GDP and the economic well-being. We should however shortly refer to the other areas of well-being research, which are at least as important as the economic aspects. The alternative composite indices specified in the previous paragraph prove that in the past few years the non-economic elements of well-being are not ignored at all. The category "Living

conditions" includes a number of different aspects, which could be assigned to two major categories: human resources (authors usually imply health and education in most of the cases) and environmental issues (in this case sustainability is the keyword).

Probably the best-known alternative is the Human Development Index (HDI), which combines GDP per capita with two other indicators – literacy and average life expectancy. The United Nations publish the Human Development Report annually (www. http://hdr.undp.org), and this report includes among others a ranking of countries' HDI indices. This index was originally elaborated to measure and compare human development level of developed and developing countries but nowadays it is widely used to compare not only countries, but also regions and micro-regions. In this short paper we cannot present the methodology of HDI in detail, but descriptions can be found in most of the cited papers (e.g. Smahó 2006, Husz 2002). We chose Human Development Index to be able to compare well-being in the Hungarian counties. It is probably the most acknowledged index in this field in the world and in Hungary as well. Studies that were published on the measurement of economic and social well-being in Hungary generally used HDI. Several authors have used HDI in to compare Hungarian human development index with international data and there are also papers, which try to use HDI to compare development level of different regions inside the country. The following summary is not meant to be comprehensive, we just highlight a few papers from the past years.

The Human Development Index is frequently criticized (together with other composite indices) because even if it uses logarithmic method, strong positive correlation can be observed between HDI and GDP per capita values in most of the cases. This problem is noticeable in Hungary as well, in the papers of Ildikó Husz (Husz 2002) and István Nagy (Nagy 2010); their findings shed light on the limitations of the usability of HDI. However other papers managed to "evade" this problem – they accepted the limitations of HDI but they did not try to interpret the values of the index as absolute measures, rather used HDI for comparison between the regions and micro regions inside Hungary and for international comparisons (Lipták 2009, Csite and Németh 2007).

Connection between the marriage rate and the quality of life

In our survey we used the statistical data of the 19 counties in Hungary, this way we can observe the regional differences between the different areas of Hungary. In the first place we chose the counties because this is the regional level where all indicators were available for our investigation. It is particularly true for the Gross Domestic Product, which is essential for the calculation of the Human Development Index – county level is the lowest regional level where the Hungarian Central Statistical

Office publishes GDP data. The marriage rates were calculated by using the census data from 2011, we used the number of married people per 1000 inhabitants. We have to emphasize that in case of surveys, where we use aggregated data at regional level, the risk of ecological fallacy is high, we have to be extremely cautious during the formulation of our conclusions.

Figure 2: The Human Development Index and the number of married people in Hungarian counties (per 1000 inhabitants) in 2012

To compose Figure 2 we calculated the Human Development Index at county level. As we have described above this index claims to combine three factors, health (more precisely one possible indicator of it, life expectancy at birth), the level of education (including the rate of literacy and enrolment of pupils at school) and the economic performance of the county measured by GDP. The original hypothesis that there is a connection between marriage rate and the level of development in a region cannot be explicitly proved this way. The connection between well-being in Hungarian counties (measured by the HDI) and the rate of married inhabitants is statistically not significant. However the trendline on Figure 2 indicates a connection, especially in the case of the more advanced counties. In the upper right corner of the figure a group of the Western, North-Western

Hungarian countries (Győr-Moson-Sopron, Zala, Vas), where the relatively high rate of married people is associated with the high level of human development. In the case of two counties we can point out that they definitely deviate from the trends, these are the counties Nógrád and Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg. Not surprisingly the HDI values are among the lowest in both counties as they are situated in the poorest, Eastern and North-Eastern regions of the country. In Nógrád County for example both the GDP and schooling indicators are showing the worst situation in Hungary, but the marriage rate is above the national average. This result reveals the fact that researchers have a chance to draw a realistic picture of the connection between marriage and well-being only if they consider a number of other factors, like cultural indicators, ethnic rates, the role of religion etc..
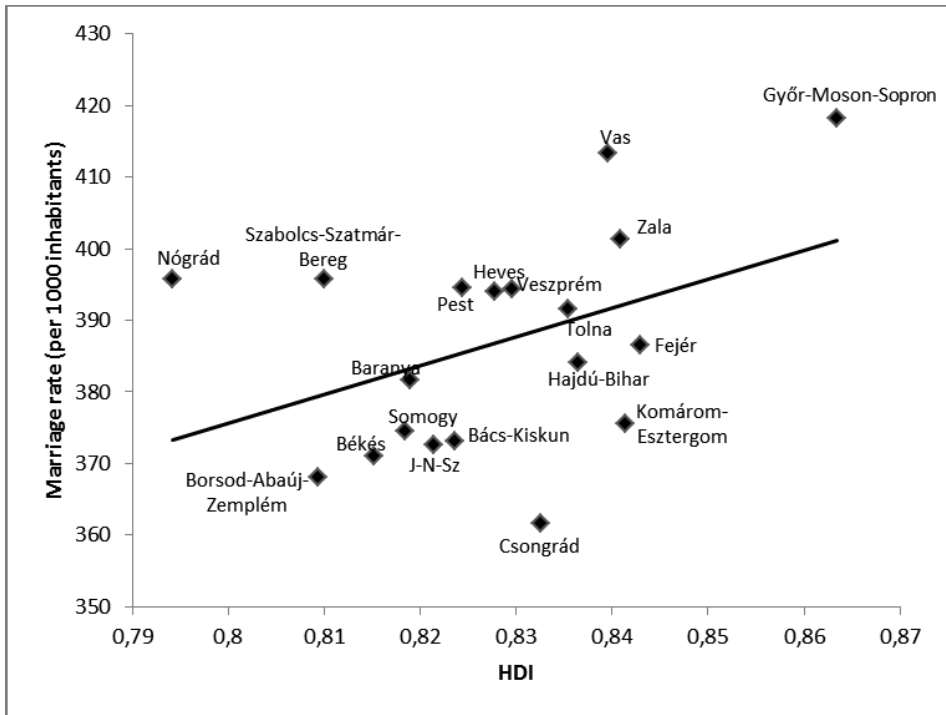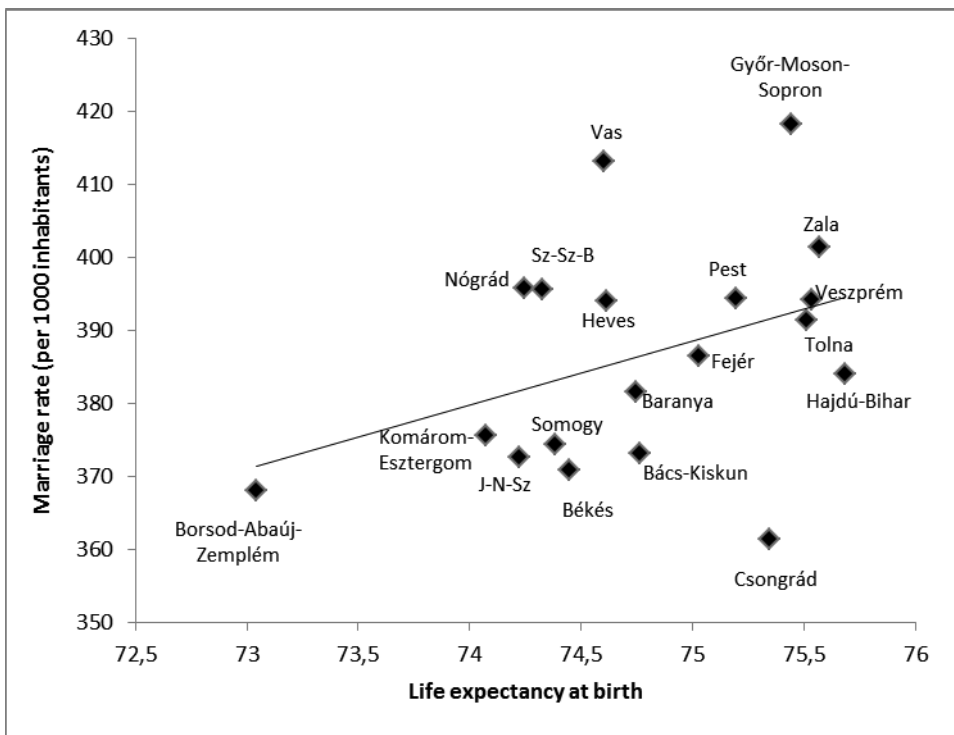

Figure 3: Life expectancy and the number of married people in Hungarian counties (per 1000 inhabitants) in 2012

Source: Own calculation based on the data of the Hungarian Central Statistical Office.

We stipulated a closer connection between life expectancy and marriage rate (Figure 3), as the American papers presented at the beginning of this study suggested this assumption. From a statistical point of view we can state here too that there is no significant connection between the two variables but the trends can be observed in Figure 3. There are counties in Hungary where both life ex-

pectancy and the rate of married people are at a high level (at least in comparison with other regions of the country), and almost every counties in this group are situated in Western Hungary. In this case GDP is not involved in any form, so the traditional difference of economic development of these regions did not affect the final results. As we have stated earlier, these data alone do not confirm causality, that means that the fact that life expectancy is high in a county, does not necessarily caused by the high marriage rate.
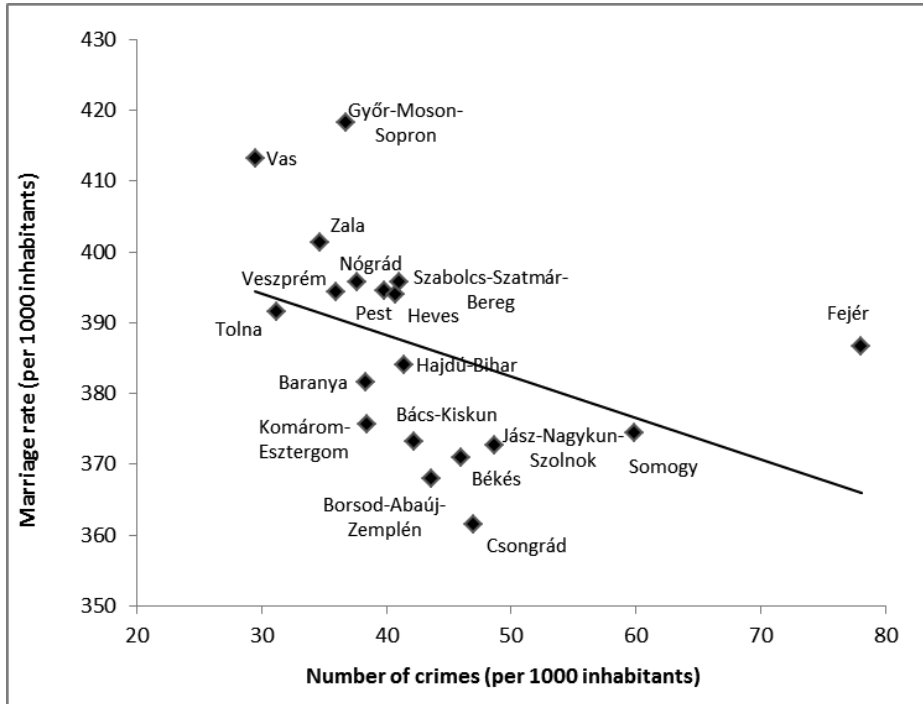
Figure 4: The number of crimes and married people in Hungarian counties (per 1000 inhabitants) in 2012

Source: Own calculation based on the data of the Hungarian Central Statistical Office.

Among our figures Figure 3 shows the clearest connection between the two chosen aspects. In this case the connection is negative, since a higher marriage rate means a lower level of crimes – this fact actually confirms the results of the papers published in the United States. The connection would be even clearer if we removed the data of Fejér County – in this county statistics show an extremely high rate of criminal offences, what is not easy to explain right now and it definitely distort the statistical results.

Summary

Inspired by the surveys carried out in the United States we took the assumption that the rate of people living in marriage has a direct effect on the health condition (that we tried to make measurable by the utilization of life expectancy) of the population and the crime rate in a given area. The analysis of the data from Hungarian counties confirmed this hypothesis partially, as verifiable connection was found in the case of crime rate only. It was even less clearly pointed out that marriage rates affect the quality of life in the Hungarian counties. However it became clear that surveys of this kind require more complex indicators, which take into consideration more factors, not just the economic and educational situation and the health status of the population.

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JOLANTA PUŁKA

Standarization process of research tools in social sciences. The account of the nationwide research on interests and career predispositions of students

Abstract

Author describes theoretical and practical context of standardization process taking place in social sciences. Author presents case study – the nationwide research concentrating on interests and career predispositions of students, in which she took part as a coordinator of research. The research has been composed in two section: the pilot study research and main research.

The pilot study research has been carried out in the Malopolskie province. 400 pupils in total were researched (in four versions which were adjusted to four stages of education) by using one tool.

The main research were nationwide. The criterion for a sampling unit was a division into big cities (province main cities), urban areas (over 10,000 to 100 000 inhabitants) and rural areas and small towns (up to10 000 inhabitants). In each province pupils from all the three (big cities, urban and rural) areas, attending three different school types were examined :

• primary schools (48 schools took part in the research jointly)
• junior high schools (48 schools took part in the research jointly)
• secondary schools (32 schools took part jointly).

Generally, by examining pupils from different types of schools (and different levels of education) using the four tools we gathered the research materials consisted of 16.000 questionnaires.

Effects of the work are available to the wide public in the form of 16 different research tools (4 tools in 4 versions adapted to particular stages of education). Those tools are manifestation of interdisciplinary work conducted by a group of theorists and practitioners, aimed at providing career counseling.

Introduction

Standarization is a term applied in many fields of study and refers to various issues, phenomena and their conditions. In pedagogical sciences standardization of research tools is synonymous with the tools (tests) improvement process aimed at unification of their application (the research process remains the same irrespectively of a researcher) and ensuring unambiguity in calculating and interpreting the research results in the researched people. In order to classify a tool as valuable in diagnostic terms, it is necessary for the tool to meet the remaining formal criteria: validity, reliability, objectivity and normalization. For that reason I'm going to present the nature and interpretation of the mentioned terms[1].

Validity – this is a degree to which a tool meets the measurement targets, that is IT MEASURES WHAT IT WAS AIMED AT.

Reliability – is a degree to which the measurement results are stable, don't change over the next research process with the application of the same tool, that is VALIDITY, with which a tool measures what it was aimed at.

Objectivity – this is the independence of research results from WHO, WHERE AND WHEN the diagnosis has been made.

Normalization – providing the tool with statistical criteria of the test (norm) result interpretation, which serve as the reference point for comparing the individual result.

In this article I'm going to present the process of standarization of the research tools, which has been realized within the European Social Fund – Elaboration and provision of the coherent package of diagnostic tools and educational materials aiding the process of diagnosing students' abilities and professional interests, which was realized at Andrzej Frycz Modrzewski Krakow University between 2009 and 2012[2].

Stage 1. Creating research tools

The content related concept worked out by E. Wysocka – a conceptual supervisor of the project contained the package of 4 research tools, which assisted the process of choosing the career and educational path during the educational process, to be used by students themselves (2 tools for self-research, module A) and by teachers, psychologists, career counselors, education institution workers, (two tools for experts, module B):
– Interpersonal, intrapersonal attitudes and general outlook questionnaire

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[1] Por. z T. Pilch, T. Bauman, *Zasady badań pedagogicznych. Strategie ilościowe i jakościowe*, Warszawa 2001, p.118, K. Rubacha, *Metodologia badań nad edukacją*, Warszawa 2008, p 83. 84. *Trafność i rzetelność tekstów psychologicznych*, red. J. Brzeziński, Gdańsk 2005, p. 62–110.

[2] Available on www.wybieramzawod.pl.

– Creative versus interpretative attitudes questionnaire
– Students' predispositions and interests questionnaire
– Coping strategies questionnaire[3]

Each tool has been prepared in 4 versions which were adjusted to a given education stage

• 1st phase of education – pre-school education
• 2nd phase of education – primary school 4–6 class
• 3 rd phase – lower secondary school
• 4th phase-secondary school

This consisted of two stages :

Stage 1.1. Preparing the first version of the tool (theoretical basis, operationalization of the variables, preparing items, preparing procedures)

According to the theoretical assumptions in line with E. Wysocka's concept, the development process, also the development process which is analyzed in view of preparations for choosing the career path, is a continuous process, which starts in the pre-school period, yet, in the context of acquiring knowledge, gets intensified at the moment of starting school education. This period, known as the early school age, can be viewed as the time of an intense development and interest in the outside world, as well as in the idea of preliminary and imagined choice of career.

The contemporary concept of development, also professional development, is the aftermath of the change in thinking about human development throughout his/her whole life (lifespan development al psychology), which takes into consideration changes which occur during childhood, in adolescence and in adulthood. At the same time, we have to differentiate between the formative process conditioned by heredity as well as background and the auto- creative process, when the individual is viewed as the coauthor (along with the formative environment) of his/her own walk of life and personality, together with the interaction process between these two systems-the subjective and environmental one.

Thus, career development has to be analyzed in the context of general developmental theories.

Most career development theories fall into two categories which are connected with:

Psychological intervention programs aimed at youth (as well as children) in order to assist the choice of the right career path, where the main scope of interest is detecting and clarifying all aspects of general patterns of mental development of an individual considering career path.

Psychological support programs for adults concerning general coping strategies for dealing with career problems, where the main scope of interest are coping skills of an individual considering the optimal career path.

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[3] Ibidem.

The proposed diagnostic model along with the tools package and the model of career counseling refers mainly to the first category of issues explained by the career development program theory which describes the patterns connected with the choice of the career.

We have accepted the general assumption, which formed the basis for the design of the project – about the need for the integrated diagnostics activities, career orienteering, providing support for dealing with developmental problems at each of education (and development) stages.

This is also connected with the general notion of career counseling as the education for a career, which takes the form of a purposeful, systematic and long-term activity which leads to the right choice of the career path.

We believe that the preparation process for the choice of a career requires shaping the awareness of one's own assets (features, predispositions, competences) and the limitations , considering the requirements, that are made for the performer of that professional role, which is a kind of protection against the negative consequences (failures, professional burn out, etc) of the wrong choice in the future.

We had in mind the idea of popularization of the early career orienteering, which results from the application of the idea of the career choice as a specific process for a given development period. There is a need to start diagnosing and career orienteering in the early childhood, taking into account social factors which determine the career choice.

We have been guided by a career choice theory according to the given properties, which necessitates 'self-awareness' and learning about the specifics and requirements of particular professions. Finally, this indicates the need for integration of career orienteering activities with the activities that aid development process at different stages.

It has been generally agreed that the choice of a particular career category is assigned by the individual needs structure which can be analyzed in terms of interests, skills, competences, purely professional predispositions as well as general qualities which assist career achievements.

Stage 1.2. Substantive assessment of a tool by experts (raters and consultancy)

In accordance with statistical procedures, in the applied method, in each category, the raters individually assigned a number of points (from 1 to 5 in Likert scale) – assessed the adequacy of the statement for the particular area. The answers were given in a written form. After the data summary, it was estimated how much the raters agreed .The statistical analysis was based on Kendall's coefficient of concordance.

In the next phase we proceeded to the activities of tools standardization.

Phase 2. Research preparation (unit sampling, cooperation), methods and analysis

The research carried out in an interdisciplinary team[4] was nationwide. The criterion for a sampling unit was a division into big cities (province main cities), urban areas (over 10,000 to 100 000 inhabitants) and rural areas and small towns (up to10 000 inhabitants).

In each province pupils from all the three (big cities, urban and rural) areas, attending three different school types were examined :
– primary schools (48 schools took part in the research jointly)
– junior high schools (48 schools took part in the research jointly)
– secondary schools (32 schools took part jointly).

Generally, by examining pupils from different types of schools (and different levels of education) using the four tools we gathered the research materials consisted of 16.000 questionnaires.

Due to this cooperation we were able to gather such vast research material. The cooperation was in installments. Firstly, we came into cooperation with local department of education, then with schools' head teachers (130 permits were gathered in total). Then, taking into account the head teacher's decision, a person assisting the research process in a school was chosen (130 school counselors, crisis counselors and teachers who worked in the school). Additionally, parental consents for children's participation were gathered (about 400 consents in total).

Stage 2.1. Standarization of the procedures for tool/test research

The standarization of the procedures for test research consists of:
– description of the order of activities done by a person who carries out the research (specified range and conditions), where the researched person is assisted by a researcher, conditions of the research (whether the test is carried out individually or in a group), (specifying the requirements for the researchers – i.e. who can carry out the research – a guidance counselor, a crisis counselor, a teacher..., specifying the time that is needed for carrying out the research.– limited or unlimited)
– working out an answer sheet (if this is applicable), prepared and applied in each research of its kind.
– working out the key for giving scores for the research results.
– the evaluation standards for the raw scores
– providing rules for test scores interpretation, in line with the theory that the test has been based on.

Stage 2.2. Pilot study research

The aim of pilot study research is to assess the substantive correctness (i.e. the understanding of the language which has been used, the terms, understanding

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[4] J. Pułka – the research coordinator, counselor, B. Ostafińska-Molik – a research team member, counselor, sociologist, S. Czapliński – a research team member, psychologist.

the guidelines) and technical correctness (the font size, the amount of space for answering , the size of a sheet)of the respondents' research tool.

The pilot study research has been carried out in the Malopolskie province. 400 pupils in total were researched (in four versions which were adjusted to four stages of education) by using one tool.

Stage 2.3. Research study analysis

- Working out the study results obtained during the research
- Analysis of discriminative power, the level to each item differentiates the researched sample. We study variables, i.e. phenomena and features which have diverse value in general population, therefore in the researched sample, too. If everyone responded for example to the first statement of the test in the same way, it would be constant not variable.
- We have to check if there are units, to which the researched people do not give diverse responses, and eliminate them from the test (K. Rubacha, 2008). The discriminative power that has been assumed in the task of creating new research tools for the career counseling field realized by us, should be positive and respectively high. In social sciences it has been assumed, that the discriminative power should exceed the value of 0.2. There are a few formulas that help to calculate the discriminatory power. In this research the measurement of the correlation between a test unit and the general score has been used (two series correlation coefficient)
- making corrections of sentences, statements, that make up the test items
- correcting the substantive and technical aspects of the tool.

Stage 2.4. Preliminary psychometric description of the test/tool

- tool/test reliability analysis- the calculations of the tool internal conformity by Alf Cronbach's coefficient. It has been assumed that the coefficient value should be 0.7 in order to provide accurate measurements.
- tool (test) validity analysis
- in social sciences there are three kinds of research tool validity: content validity, theoretical validity, criteria validity. In line with the standards for the tests used in psychology and pedagogy (APA, AERA, NCME, Polish edition 1985) questions about validity are questions about what we can infer on the basis of the test score.
- Validity is a conclusion of some sort, not a measurement. Validity can be assessed as correct, hard to accept or unsatisfactory[5].
- Content validity can be analyzed by using content suitability- field specifics (literary analysis, tool operationalization) and a degree of equivalency of the

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[5] Standards for the tests applied in psychology and pedagogy (APA,AERA,NCME, Polish edition 1985) pp 33–34. *Trafność i rzetelność testów psychologicznych*, J. Brzeziński, Gdańsk 2005, p. 463.

content. Correspondence assessment of questionnaire's items was done by raters. Theory validity was assessed by factor analysis, questionnaire's internal structure analysis, group difference analysis. Criteria validity concerning tool's diagnostic utility were completed (sadly due to the lack of standardized tools used in career counseling) in

• the tools, where there was a possibility of comparing the test scores obtained with external criterion-another tool which measured similar issues.

Stage 2.5. Preparing the final version of the tool

Stage 2.6. Carrying out the applicable research and data analysis

The applicable research was carried on the whole area of Poland. In the research the school which took part were from the following areas:

– the Malopolskie province: Kraków, Olkusz, Smroków

– the Świętokrzyskie province: Kielce, Sandomierz, Zagnańsk

– the Łodź province: Łódź, Radomsko, Wielgomłyny

– the Kujawy–Pomerania province: Bydgoszcz, Grudziądz, Złotniki Kujawskie

– the Warmia–Masuria province: Olsztyn, Pisz, Straduny

– the Mazovia province: Warszawa, Żyrardów, Zalesie Górne

– the Silesia province: Bielsko Biała, Pszczyna, Strumień

– the Opole province: Opole, Kluczbork, Komprachcice

– the Lubuskie province: Gorzów Wielkopolski, Nowa Sól, Kożuchów

– the Pomerania province: Gdańsk, Sopot, Łąg

– the Podkarpacie province : Rzeszów, Przemyśl, Radymno

– the Lublin province:Lublin, Biała Podlaska, Przybysławice

– the Podlasie province: Białystok, Łomża, Gródek

– the West Pomerania province: Szczecin, Gryfice, Barwice

– the Wielkopolska province: Poznań, Gniezno, Krzymów

– the Lower Silesia province: Wrocław, Oleśnica, Cieszków[6]

Below see the visualization of the range of the research on the whole area of Poland:

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[6] The detailed list of schools is available on www.wybieramzawod.pl/o- projekcie /badania.

(Source: own work)

In the process of the research we managed to gather vast research material from the representative research samples- therefore we could proceed to the next stage-normalization.

Stage 2.7. Psychometric features of the tool
– Reliability and validity analysis (described earlier in the reference to preliminary psychometric characteristics);
Standardization – this operationalization element allows us to relate the score obtained by an individual to the score which is characteristic for a given population that the individual comes from. We convert raw scores into the standardized scale which consists of items of the same length. This process is called test normalization[7]. One of the standardization scales are sten scores, which consist of ten, equal units of equal length called stens. This is a consistent interpretation of the scale. The scores in 1–4 sten interval can be regarded as low, in 5–6 interval as average, in 7–10 as high[8].

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[7] K. Rubacha Metodologia…, p. 76.

[8] Ibidem.

Stage 2.8. Standarization of the procedure for interpreting the obtained test scores

Standarization of the procedure for calculating the test scores: the manual should present the procedure for calculating the test scores in sufficient detail to eliminate freedom regarding the procedures and minimize the probability of making mistakes.

A detailed description of the method of interpreting the scores is essential in order to ensure that the obtained scores are always understood and presented to the respondent/respondent's parents in the same manner, irrespective of the researcher who conducts the tests.

- the standards presented in the manual have been elaborated for clearly defined and described research samples
- a sample corresponds to those groups of people to which the respondents will be compared. Only those standards which apply to the respondents should be taken into consideration.

Stage 3. The elaboration of the manual for tools

The testing manual should contain:

- a description of the theory;
- a description of the group on which the standardizing tests have been performed;
- a description of the testing procedure;
- a description of score interpretation;
- a description of the studies concerning reliability and standard error of measurement;
- a description of the studies concerning accuracy;
- a description of the standardization procedure and the standard for clearly defined populations.

Conclusion

The process of standarization of research tools is one of those activities which show the importance of cooperation between interdisciplinary research teams and the necessity to cross the disciplinary boundaries in the search of knowledge. Working at the interface of different disciplines promotes the multidimensional approach to social phenomena which often have to be handled in a systemic manner. Such an attitude to research and development work[8] has long been present in educational sciences[9]. The borderline of educational science, philosophy, psychology and social science has inspired the theorists and practitioners to create new concepts and ver-

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[9] Examples of publications showing the importance of cooperation at the borderline of different disciplines: *Pogranicza pedagogiki i innych nauk pomocniczych*, red. S. Palka, WUJ, Kraków 2004, S. Palka, *Pedagogika w stanie tworzenia*, WUJ, Kraków 1999.

ify those concepts empirically. The interface of educational science, management, economics and statistics has acquired special significance in today's world. The new trends in cooperation between scientists and entrepreneurs, or between the science and business sectors have opened up a totally new dimension in the Polish scientific thought. This dimension has so far been weakly rooted in the Polish scientific circles.

Despite the common instances of cooperation between science and business (providing expertise, providing counseling to business entities, etc.), this type of systemic thinking about the possibility or necessity of embracing cooperation with the world outside universities is not popular among the representatives of social sciences[10]. In order to enable conducting joint research by those two worlds (science and business), solid foundation has been laid which allows implementing the new perspective. The Frascati manual. The proposed standard practice for survey on research and development, published in 2002[11] has become the basis for the new approach. *The Frascati manual is not only a standard for surveys on research and development in OECD member countries. As a result of the initiatives by OECD, UNESCO, the European Union and other regional organizations, it has become a standard for R&D surveys worldwide[12].*

Frequently, the proposed guidelines and recommendations are confronted with the real practical problems and require experience which helps overcome barriers and take efficient action. Combining science and practical usefulness adapted to specific groups of recipients is a huge challenge in each new task assumed by a scientist. Creating new qualities is an element which brings satisfaction and personal development.

Effects of the work are available to the wide public in the form of 16 different research tools (4 tools in 4 versions adapted to particular stages of education). Those tools are manifestation of interdisciplinary work conducted by a group of theorists and practitioners, aimed at providing career counseling. The intended results would not have been achieved without combining education science with other disciplines, in this case, specifically, with management, psychology, statistics, career counseling i.e. without working at the interface of various disciplines.

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[10] *Nowe perspektywy. Nauki społeczne dla gospodarki*, red. S. Rudnicki, Kraków.

[11] Available at: http://www.nauka.gov.pl/g2/oryginal/2013_05/08935db1c9f7adf15c087d07720a984f.pdf.

[12] Ibidem, p. 3.

PART II

ÉVA BÁCSNÉ BÁBA[1]

Festival in Tune with Students

Abstract

The amount of young people's free time increases significantly in summer. At this time of the year music festivals have an important role in meeting the recreational needs of this generation. In our country several thousands of festivals are organised, but only two of them focus on students in higher education as their target audience. Campus Festival has been held in our city, Debrecen, since 2008. A significant number of its visitors are higher education students. Festival visitors have filled in a questionnaire of satisfaction. Through the statistical analysis of the data provided by the questionnaire, it is possible to assess from what source the students obtain information about the festival, what entertainment forms they prefer, what the main factors determining their satisfaction with the event are, and what participation tendencies can be expected in the future.

Introduction

Annually 3–6 thousand festivals are organised in Hungary, as these events seem to be the most marketable ones among the cultural products of the 21st century. This is proven by the fact that 5–6 million people visit festivals per year (Benedek-Stark, 2009). One type of festival is represented by the summer music festivals that attract a great amount of visitors. Due to their nature, these events aim to meet the demands of younger generations mainly. One particular segment of these generations is students of higher education. Only two of Hungarian light music festivals focus on students in higher education as their target audience.

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Campus Festival has been held in our city, Debrecen, since 2008. A significant number of its visitors are higher education students. To find out about their opinions, the best way is to ask them to fill in a questionnaire of satisfaction. Through the statistical analysis of the data provided by the questionnaire, it is possible to assess from what source the students obtain information about the festival, what entertainment forms they prefer, what the main factors determining their satisfaction with the event are, and what participation tendencies can be expected in the future. These surveys may provide useful information for both the organisers and the visitors of the festivals.

Literature review

The youth of festivals

The youth era change that started in the developed western countries at the end of the 1950s and the beginning of the 60s, and finished by the 80s, took place in Hungary from the 1990s. This change was characterised by an educational expansion, which means that a growing number of youngsters was accepted to secondary and higher education (Gábor, 2005).

Table 1: Rate of students belonging to the school system between 2000 and 2012 (Studying and attending a school or a course in some kind of training. N2000, N2004, N2008, N2012=8000; percentile distribution of all the respondents)

Age groups	2000	2004	2008	2012
15–19 years	81%	81%	88%	88%
20–24 years	24%	38%	40%	38%
25–29 years	4%	12%	13%	9%

Source: Ifjúság 2004 Survey.

As the Hungarian Youth 2012 survey shows, attendance in education increased significantly between 2000 and 2008 (from 34 per cent to 46 per cent). However, the expansion stopped and even reversed by the year 2012, when 43 per cent of young people attended some kind of training. Within education, the expansion of higher education is characterised well by the fact that, compared to the number of the given age group, the ratio of people accepted to higher education institutions grew from 15.8% to 37.4% between 1994 and 2000. From 2000 the number of persons starting their higher education studies continued to grow until 2003, when the ratio of full-time students decreased from 54.6% to 48.6% (Ifjúság 2004 survey).

During the nearly two decades of educational expansion the length of the youth phase grew significantly. Young people were getting independent earlier and earlier, and became consumers as early as the beginning of their teens, whereas they turned into adults in the real sense of the word (i.e. started work and having families) later and later. Due to the longer training period, a school youth phase has developed in which youngsters are relatively exempt from the pressure of earning money, and are given the possibility of using their own personal time and doing different personal activities (Gábor, 2005).

Parallel to the expansion of young people's schooling, the controlling function of the family and the school, and that of the grown-up society in general, decreased. At the same time, the influencing effect of the media and the consumer industry increased greatly. This change resulted in the emerge of the youth of festivals. With the emerge of the festival youth, the consumer status became differentiated and the communicational status changed completely. This relates to the expansion of the composition according to age, and the change in the lifestyle of young people (Gábor, 2005).

In order to satisfy the cultural needs of young people, festival style events became common worldwide. Although festivals used to be specifically artistic events, they more and more became a synonym of events offering intensive experiences and free-and-easy entertainment, reflecting the taste of the consumer society the most (Benedek-Stark, 2009). Festivals also appeared in Hungary, with some delay though, and got in the focus of young people's entertainment interest, thus proving that the young consumer layer defined as 'the youth of festivals' emerged in our country, too, with the dominant feature of the expansion of the studying and higher education life phase.

The history of festivals

The history of festivals is related to the legendary Woodstock Festival, which concentrated the essence of the era and the hippy subculture. The hippy movement was one of the main and typical symptoms of the international rebellion series of the youth. The American anti-culture created by the university-going children of the well-off middle class was an opposition to the dominant culture (Szapu, 2002). The false ideals of the consumer society and the aimlessness and disappointment hidden behind its glittering surface, the civil nihilism of the attitude to life pursuing only material needs, and the political uncertainty resulting from the economic hardships of the system first led to the appearance of a new youth subculture in the Anglo-Saxon societies.

It was the English Beatles, the first star band of the beginning of the 1960s, who gave the first impulse to the 'big generation', i.e. to the youth of the 60s. As an effect of the group, a new youth subculture came into being, and the 'beats', then the 'hippies' started to rebel against the norms of the civil society. They at-

tacked social taboos the most, for example suppressed sexuality. Some time after the hippy movement started, young people's longing for peace came into prominence (as an attitude against the war in Vietnam) (Edeneye, 2006). To make the hippy culture more popular, they held the first Human Be-In in the Golden Gate Park in San Francisco in January 1967, which was a musical protest for peace and tolerance, and for free thinking and love.

As a chain reaction, this event led to the legendary Summer of Love on the west coast of the USA and the Woodstock Festival on the east coast in 1969. The hippy and beat movement peaked in the 1968 student rebellions in the west, and then it ended in the 1970s. After a time the anti-culture represented by Woodstock was assimilated by the consumer society – hippy clothing appeared in fashion, and the music expressing rebellion became one of the most profitable branches of the entertainment industry (Morvay – Sebestyén 2009).

In Hungary there were attempts from the 1960s to organise festivals, but they were unsuccessful. The first event that can be considered as a festival in the classical sense of the word took place in 1991, after the political change, with the name 'Let's say goodbye nicely, Ivan'. The organisers of the first 'Eastern European rock festival' wanted to make a tradition, but they failed to do so, as there was no next festival the following year. The Sziget Festival took place only two years later (Jávorszky, 2002).

Today we could call Hungary 'the country of festivals' since several thousands of events are mentioned as festivals here, from internationally known music festivals that attract enormous crowds of people to village days, fairs and arts programmes that are visited by a few hundreds.

Festival organisers, artists, the decision makers of state and private supports, the media and the public wanted to know more about the dimensions and features of the festival sector, which had developed fast in the last few decades. Therefore, the National Cultural Fund made a national survey in 2004.

Those involved evidently wanted to create a reliable evaluation system to keep record of and to qualify festivals. Their idea was to make the qualification the basis of the state support. The qualification system was introduced nationally in 2009, with the cooperation of five national professional associations (CIOFF Hungary, Association of Gastronomy Festivals, Hungarian Festival Association, Association of Hungarian Art Festivals and Association of Open-Air Theatres). The registration system operating in the framework of the Hungarian Festival Registration and Qualification Program is to help orientation in the world of festivals. One of its main targets is that every festival or event that requires state or local government support should be registered. This helps coordinate the central sources, and has a positive influence on the decisions of sponsors. Beyond the simple data of festivals, the information gathered through the registration form is about features by which festivals can be categorised and compared.

According to Hunyadi (2004), who was the creator of the qualification programme, you can differentiate festivals according to their venues (open air or indoor festivals), the region they attract visitors from, their frequency, their length, and their organisers (state, civil organisation, private company, or local government).

In December 2012 they registered 411 festivals, which were mainly artistic, cultural and gastronomy events, and required state and local government support (record of registered festivals, December 2012). On the basis of the typology of festivals, my investigations are related to open-air summer light music festivals. They do not belong to the list of registered festivals, which is explained by the fact that their main sponsors are from the private sector.

The most well-known festival of this kind in Hungary is Sziget, which is held on Óbudai Island in Budapest every August. The history of Sziget started in 1993 with Diáksziget Festival, the slogan of which was 'We need a week together'. In 1994 it was the 25th anniversary of Woodstock Festival, therefore the event had Eurowoodstock as its 'second name' (and several performers of the legendary Woodstock Festival gave a concert). The name of the festival from 1996 to 2001 was Pepsi Sziget, and since 2002 it has been called Sziget Festival. In 1993 there were 'only' 43 thousand visitors, the next year a hundred thousand more, and since 2001 350–390 thousand people have visited the event at a time. In 2012, at the voting organised by Yourope, the European Festival Association, and Virtuals Festivals Europe, Sziget took the first place among the 25 biggest festivals in Europe.

Similar summer light music and cultural events are Volt Festival in Sopron, which also started in 1993, Hegyalja Festival in Tokaj, which has been organised since 2000, and Balaton Sound in Zamárdi at Lake Balaton, which first took place in 2007.

However, among summer light music festivals EFOTT has the oldest roots, as the National Touristic Meeting of University and College Students (abbreviated as EFOTT in Hungarian) was first organised in 1976. It was KISZ, the youth organisation of the communist party in the socialist Hungary that created EFOTT, which, in accordance with the ideology of the era, aimed to popularise sports, culture and the touristic treasures of our country.

Thus, the first EFOTTs were not festivals in the modern sense, but they were like contemporary pioneer camps for college and university students instead. The first event was visited by 350 students from 25 higher education institutions, and the number of participants did not reach a thousand even in the 80s. Naturally, after the change in the political system the festival also transformed. Instead of mediating political ideologies, the aim became the 'mere' entertainment of the youth. Thanks to that, the number of visitors grew, and it is now around 70 thousand.

EFOTT is especially important regarding my study, because the organisers of Campus Festival, which I have investigated, organised EFOTT in To-

kaj in 1997 and in Hajdúszoboszló in 1998. From 2002 to 2006 the Debrecen Campus Non-Profit Ltd organised Lake Vekeri Festival a few kilometres from Debrecen. In 2007 they won the right to organise EFOTT again, which also took place at Lake Vekeri. The next year Campus Festival was at the same place, as the company's own enterprise, and 27 thousand people visited the event. The venue, however, was not a good choice from several aspects. Therefore, the festival has been held in the Big Forest in Debrecen since 2009, and it had over 60 thousand visitors in 2013.

A common feature of Campus Festival and EFOTT, a feature that distinguishes these two festivals from all the other ones, is that the target audience of both events are students from higher education. However, EFOTT targets students nationwide, whereas Campus Festival targets students from the region, and within that, mainly from Debrecen.

Material and method

Methodology of the research

This review is to assess, on the one hand, the opinions of people visiting Campus Festival, and on the other hand, to help plan the festivals of the future.

The results of the research make it possible to define the audience, to assess visitors' satisfaction with the festival, and to forecast future prospects.

At the festival a survey was made by asking visitors to fill in a question-naire, which consisted of two parts. The first part asked for the visitors' personal particulars like age, place of residence, occupation, contact details, etc, and the second one contained data needed for evaluating the festival. To make interpret-ing the results easier, with each question it was marked whether the respondents could give an answer on their own (spontaneous replies), or they could choose one or two of the options given (aided replies).

The survey was made by asking the visitors personally at the venue of the festival, and by choosing the respondents randomly. The sample number was 300 (N=300).

Description of the audience

In accordance with the organisers' expectations, the majority of the audience con-sisted of college and university students. As it can be seen in Graph 1, the age of 42% of the visitors was between 21 and 24 (the average age of the visitors was 24), and the same proportion said they were higher education students. 72% of the peo-ple asked were students of Debrecen University.
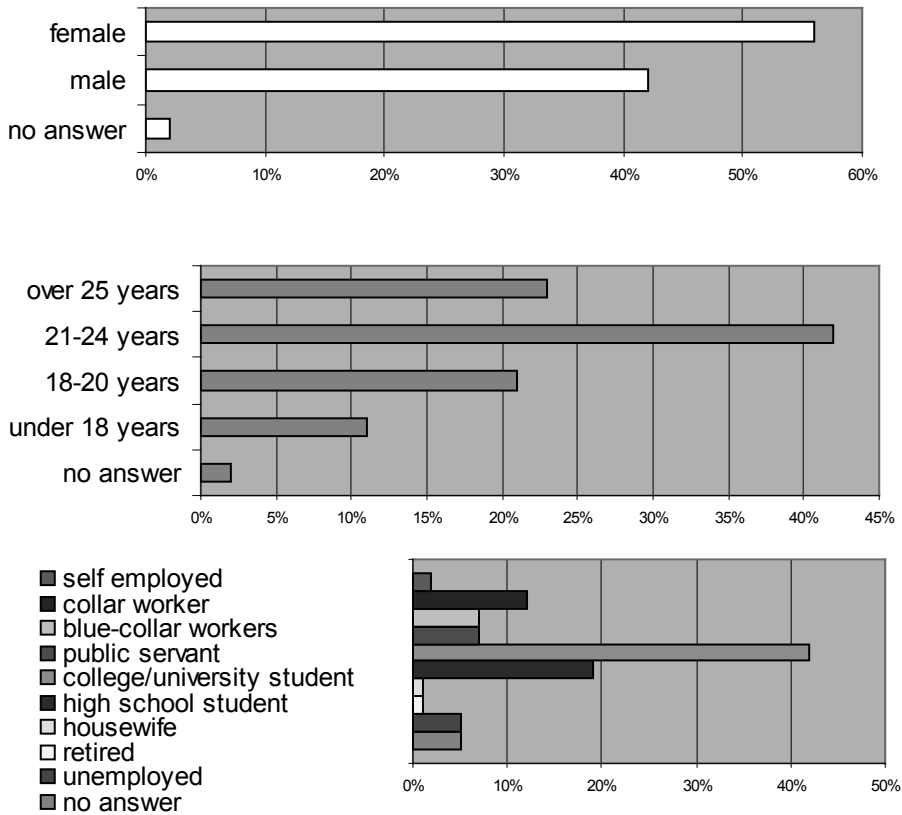
Graph 1: Division of visitors according to sex, age and occupation (N=300)

Source: own survey.

As organisers had expected, more than half (53%) of the visitors came from Debrecen, i.e. the city where the event took place. Together with the local citizens, the ratio of visitors coming from the region (Hajdú-Bihar County) was 68%. From the greater region 85% of the audience attended, from other parts of Hungary only 11%, and from abroad 4%. This result proves that the organisers reached the target audience, as they mainly advertised the event among the students of Debrecen University, and at the same time, they managed to convince local non-university students, too, since secondary school students representing 19% and employed young adults representing 28% attended the festival.

Classification of the Campus Festival

In the case of an event, one of the most significant factors is how to reach the target audience, i.e. how they can find out about the event.

Most festival-goers (60%) heard about the event from friends and people they know (Graph 2). At the same time, the role of the Internet in obtaining information (38%) has increased greatly compared to previous years.

The Facebook page and website of the festival had an especially important role when, after hearing about the event, people interested wanted to know details about it. 81% and 83% of them knew these Internet sites. The satisfaction survey asked them how much of what they had wanted to know was possible to find on the Internet site and Facebook page of the event.
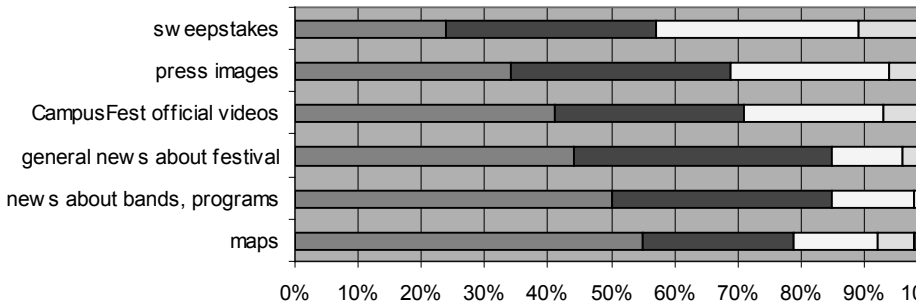
Graph 2: Source of information about the event (N=300)

Source: own survey.

As Graph 3 shows, nearly 80% of the visitors were satisfied with the general information about the event, the news about the bands and programmes, and the maps helping orientation. Overall, they were very or rather satisfied with the Facebook page of the festival. As for the videos and photographs related to Campus Festival, only 70% had the same opinion, whereas in the case of quizzes 45% did not receive enough information.
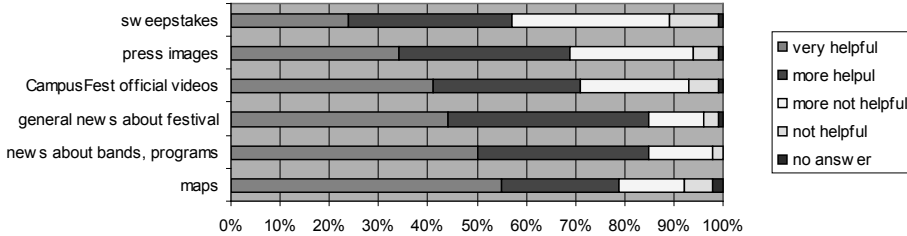
Graph 3: Findings of the survey about satisfaction with the Facebook page of the festival

Source: own survey.

The website was evaluated almost equally, that is more than 80% of the people interviewed were pleased with it, which is shown in Graph 4. The website of Campus Festival informed people about ticket prices, too, providing extra information compared to the Facebook page. In connection with this, 61% of the persons interviewed gained very useful, and 25% rather useful information from that source.
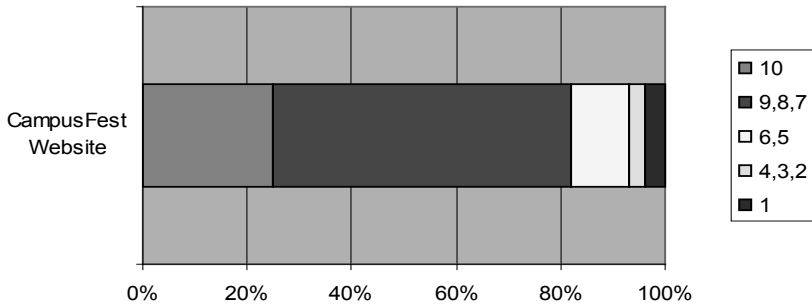
Graph 4: Findings of the survey about satisfaction with the website of the festival (N=300)

Source: own survey.

To the question what type of programme was the most attractive at Campus Festival (Graph 5), the reply, of course, was that mainly the music programmes were important to the visitors, as 95% of them gave this answer. Analysing this result, it can be established that the musical taste of festival-goers is extremely varied. They like 4 to 5 music styles on average. Rock music is number one, but the ratio of pop music, drum and bass, and dance music lovers is also high.

It is promising that sports programmes took the second place among all the programmes, with the theatre and cinema performances and other programmes lagging only a little behind them. (Other programmes included events of civil

organisations, cultural and political lectures, and quizzes.) On the whole, it can be said that, compared to previous years, the ratio of those interested in other forms of entertainment besides music has grown to some extent.
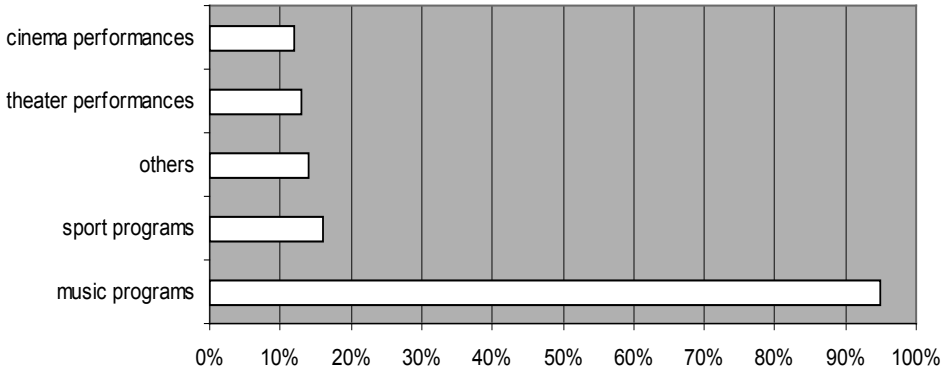
Graph 5: The most popular programmes (N=300)

Source: own survey.
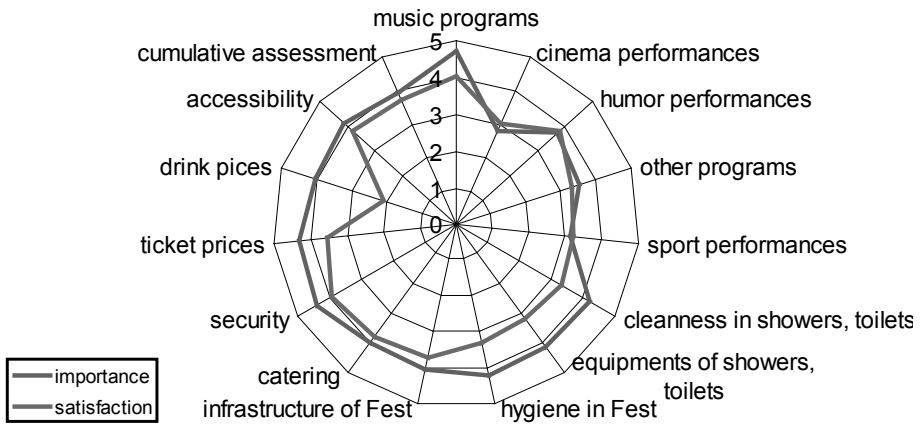
Graph 6: Review of importance and visitors' satisfaction with the main factors of the event (N=300)

Source: own survey.

A central question of the satisfaction survey was how important the following factors are to the visitors of a music festival, and how pleased they were with those factors in the case of Campus Festival, compared to other events: pro-

grammes, approachability, ticket prices, security, food, drink prices, and hygiene. It turned out that for the people answering the questions music programmes, the cleanliness of shower rooms and toilets, and general hygiene are the most important factors. Security and ticket prices are only slightly less important. According to the findings, sports and cinema programmes count the least (Graph 6). It was especially hygiene and drink selection that did not meet the demands. However, concerning sports, humour and cinema programmes the event was above people's expectations.
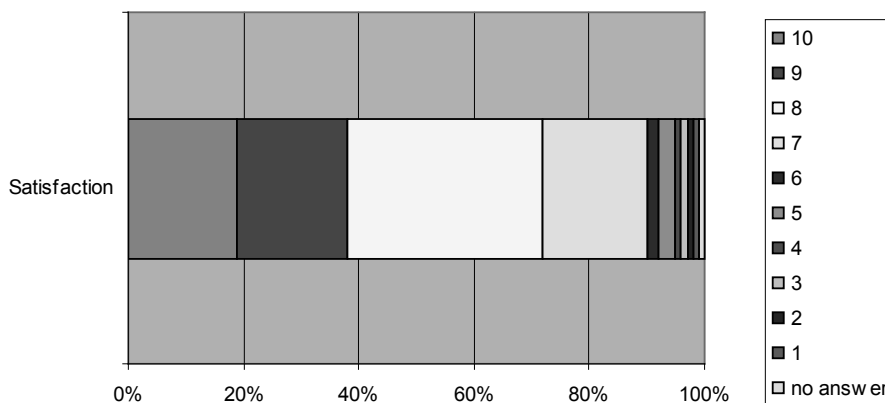
Graph 7: Satisfaction with the festival (N=300)

Source: own survey.

In the evaluation of the festival on a scale of 10, an average of 7.99 was the outcome (Graph 6). This reflects a positive judgement of the event, and the result is in accordance with that of the expectations survey (Graph 7).

The questionnaire also contained a question on how much a festival-goer spent on average. With the ticket price included, the result was 16,276 HUF. 58% of the respondents financed their expenses themselves, and for 20% it was the parents who paid them. The rest of them financed their costs from other sources, for example with the financial support of an organisation. The satisfaction with the ticket prices showed an average of 3.5 on a scale of 5.

The visitors spent an average of 3.08 days at the four-day event. Analysing the findings according to demography segments, we can see that university students and under-18s spent more time at the festival on average, and people above 25 stayed at the event longer than the average. This shows that the festival was able to maintain visitors' interest in its programmes for several days.

84% of the festival's visitors felt mentally and physically averagely or better than that. Only 27% of the people between 21 and 24 evaluated their physical

fitness as excellent, and 32% said the same about their mental conditions. These percentages were much higher with the other age groups.

As for the visitors' consuming habits, 53% of them smoke, although 30% only occasionally.

59% of the interviewed persons had never attended Campus Festival before, 55% of them are not visiting any other festivals this year, and 92% think they will come to the festival again next year.

Summary

On the whole, the findings of the satisfaction survey show a positive picture of Campus Festival.
The organisers reached the target audience, as most of the visitors were aged between 21 and 24, who came mainly from the region. (Moreover, 72% of the questioned people were students of Debrecen University.)

It is interesting that the festival visitors heard about the event mostly from friends and people they know. At the same time, the role of the Internet also increased in obtaining information compared to earlier years. The interviewed people were satisfied with the information they found on the Facebook page and the website of Campus Festival.

For the visitors of the festival the music programmes were the most important ones. The music taste of the visitors was varied, they liked 4–5 music styles on average. They especially favoured rock music, but also liked pop, drum and bass, and dance music. Sports programmes took the second place among all programmes, with the theatre and cinema performances and other programmes following them closely. (Other programmes were events of civil organisations, cultural and political lectures, and quizzes.) On the whole, it can be said that, compared to previous years, the ratio of those interested in other forms of entertainment besides music has grown to some extent. Concerning sports, humour and cinema programmes the event exceeded people's expectations.

On the basis of the ratio of those attending with a season ticket, and the average time spent at the festival it can be established that the event was able to maintain its visitors' interest in the programmes for several days.

Concerning the festival-goers' consuming habits, they spent 16,276 HUF per person on average, which they financed mainly from their own sources or with their parents' help. Nearly three quarters of them have a smartphone, which they used mainly for taking photographs, making videos and surfing the Internet. About half of them smoke, although mostly only occasionally.

The fact that 92% of the visitors are planning to attend the event again next year reflects satisfaction with the festival.

The findings reflect the consumption and communication status of 'the youth of the festivals'.

Overall, the positive feedback of the visitors' page can reassure the organisers that the festival is going in the right direction. However, the findings also draw attention to the fact that, with respect to popularizing the festival, hygiene and drink selection should be improved. Nevertheless, the survey showed clearly that the event had reached its target audience, i.e. higher education students. Besides, the number of visitors (nearly 60 thousand) confirms that every July the youth of festivals represent themselves in Debrecen, as well.

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VERONIKA BOCSI[1]

The Hungarian Gypsy Minority from the Viewpoint of Value Sociology

Abstract

There are only a few studies which use the aspect of value sociology and deals with the gypsy population. We can map the main differences between the majority and the minority with the help of this aspect, we can better understand the peculiar thinking structure, choice making mechanism and life goals.

The theoretical frames include the main value theories (for example Schwartz's model), the socialisation of the values and the role of the values. We feature the main pattern of Hungarian value structure and the trends of the last three decades. We link special fields of Schwartz's model to social mobility, education and career planning.

In the empirical part of the study we show the result of a qualitative analysis. We made focus-group interviews with gypsy students at the University of Debrecen, Faculty of Child and Adult Education. We tried to map the differences and similarities of the value structure of the majority and the minority, and find the key of students' social mobility.

Introduction

A section of intercultural researches uses the tools of values and value preferences for mapping social distances and similarities, the features of cohabitation and any possible problems. The reason is that the divergent nature of thinking structures can cause difficulties not just to long-term life strategies but in the everyday cohabitation, as well. During the tackling of acute situations it is worth examining

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the factors, motivations and values which lie in the background of behavior since the surface treatment of problems is completely meaningless when the two sides have no knowledge of each others' value system and target- and tool system. With the help of national representative researches on Hungarian gypsy communities (Kemény, Janky and Lengyel 2004, Kemény and Janky 2003), we are somewhat aware of the circumstances, financial situation and habitation, and the measure of their adaptation on the labor market. Nevertheless, cross-cultural researches have hardly utilized the inventory and aspect of value-sociology so far (except for the work of Szakolczai (1982)). Although we had no opportunities for an examination based on a great sample questionnaire, we are trying to seize the distinctive features of the value preferences and the value background motivation for further studies in the case of Hungarian gypsies with the help of the interview technique which fits the nature of the topic.

Outlining the theoretical framework

During the outlining of the theoretical framework we first need to attempt to approach the concept of values from the aspect of intercultural researches. In the survival of communities the different elements of culture have key importance as these elements set the group boundaries, as well. The cultural elements also include specific values, whose objectivity is debated, but their impact on individual and communal level is beyond question. Values influence (though not in a linear and cause-effect relationship) our behavior, decisions and judgments and they keep the possibilities of lifestyle within the framework of the community. The origin of normative approaches and claims is based on biological-survival-cohabitational conditions (Schwartz 1992). In Schwartz's model, the five significant formal features of values are formed out of the survival needs of communities (e.g. social interactions, biological needs, group survival.) Thus, the fact that comparative examinations have serious relevance in the field of social sciences seems evident.

The history of empirical, cross-cultural comparative value researches goes back to the first half of the twentieth century. This was the time of anthropological researches like the analyses of Mead comparing different cultures (Mead 1949) which included e.g. gender roles and principles of raising children, or the examination of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck. The Allport value test was also based on socio-psychological foundations and it measured different value dimensions (e.g. economic instrumental, religious, political etc.) with the help of 45 items (Allport, Vernon és Lindzey 1951). In the field of international comparisons, one of the most widely known methodological procedures is the value test of Rokeach. The value approach of Rokeach presumes the universal feature of values and in his comparative examinations he suggests that the individuals can express their identity by identifying themselves with some central values (Rokeach 1973).

The newer wave of value researches was started in the 1980s by Schwartz who completed his method based on a value concept different from the former ones. This method aimed to discover the universal content and structure of values. The basics were different as Schwartz did not treat the shared contents of cultures as features. He deducted eight motivational value types (which was extended to ten in later researches) from the mentioned three universal tasks of human life (social interactions, biological needs, group survival), and by this he defined four higher-class values. The lesson of the international comparative researches was partly that certain motivational types regularly lined up beside each other (e.g. the types preferring individual interests like performance-oriented, independent, self-direction). Also, the overall universal reciprocal poles were traceable between value types (e.g. self-enhancement and self-transcendence, openness to change and conservativism) (Schwartz 1990). His model is demonstrated on Figure 1. In our own research, we approached majority and minority value preferences with the help of the value types of the Schwartz value test.
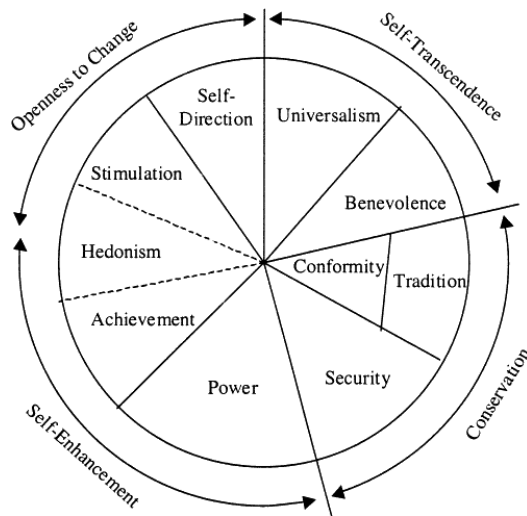
Figure 1: The value-model of Schwartz (Olver and Mooradian 2003)

The characteristics and transformation of the value system of Hungarian society were provided by the research results of the Rokeach value test for a considerable period of time (Füstös 1995, Füstös és Szakolczay 1999). An international comparison was made possible by the European Values Survey and participation in the World Value Study researches. According to the image outlined by these studies, the value preference of Hungarian society is dominantly material and secular and it is filled with rational and closed elements. The connection to society is complemented by strong micro-communal embedding (nuclear family relationships, the importance of friendship) and individual characteristics. (Figure 2)
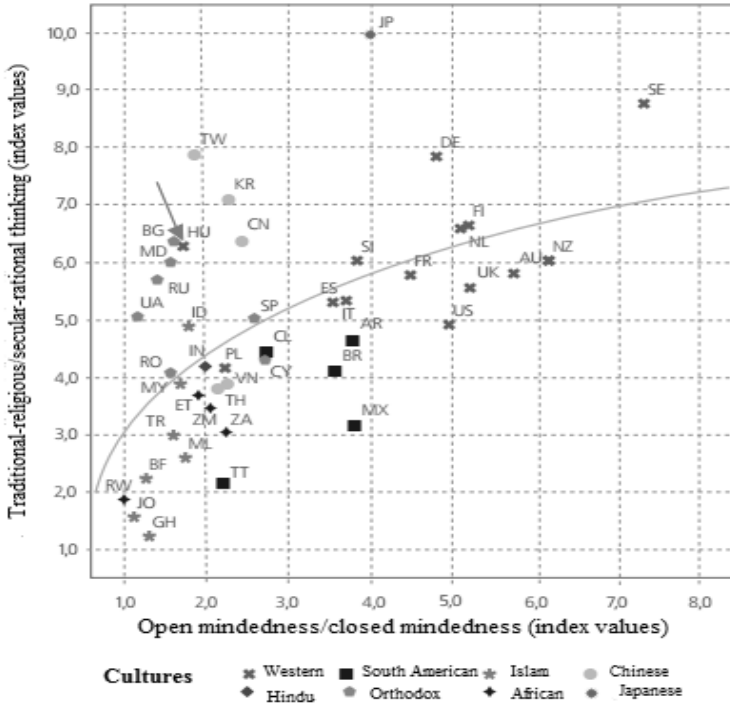
Figure 2: The place of Hungary on the world value map (Keller 2009)

We believe that for the mapping of the value structure of the gypsy minority we can use theories of modernization since majority and minority are characterized by a different position in the process of modernization. The embedding of value systems into economic situations is beyond argument and thus, on the level of theories and empiric researches, the formation of value systems is inevitably connected to the process of modernization. The embedding into economic processes is also connected to Inglehart's scarcity hypothesis which is based on the logic that if basic items of sustenance are missing, people tend to consider their desire to acquire these as their main goals and values, while, with the improvement of living standards, the elements that are linked to self-expression will gain central importance. (Inglehart 1997). This is the foundation of the distinction of materialist-postmaterialist value systems. The process of modernization and the changes of living standards affect the individual-communal axis, as well. The reason is that in more affluent societies, the advantages of social life are dimmed and the advantages of individual actions increase. (Triandis 1990).

According to Keller (2008), modernization can mostly be defined as a phenomenon which results in the dismantling of traditional society. This pro-

cess brings about an inevitable growth of the importance of rational and performance-oriented values, and the spreading of the elements of hedonism. It is well accepted, however, that modernization and the category of postmodern can have an effect even opposing the direction of the stability of value systems. For instance, Hankiss explains that modernization can bring about a "value crisis" (Hankiss 1977).

The methodological framework of the research and our hypotheses

During our empirical study, we did a half-structured interview with four students of the Roma Special College on the Faculty of Children and Adult Education of University of Debrecen in September, 2013. During our conversations we were focusing on three major areas: firstly, on the value system of Hungarian society, at second, on the value system of the Hungarian gypsy minority, and thirdly, on the value background of education and career. According to our expectations, the process of modernization leaves its mark on the value system of the gypsy minority. This means that the students gave a report on a less secular, less performance-centered value structure which, however, is filled with collective features. However, considering the scarcity hypothesis we presume that it would influence the value systems as the value structure of the gypsy population is considerably traditional, while Inglehart's thesis can rather be regarded as relevant in the context of modernization and industrialization. In the course of the interviews, the students received the figure of the Schwartz value model and we also provided them information on its interpretation.

The research results

As a first step, we aimed to map the value preferences of the Hungarian society from the point of view of the gypsy students. There were two essential factors that we had to take into consideration at the results we received: partly, these students come from very little settlements that are subject to economic recession and whose society demonstrates numerous traditional elements – thus, their opinion of Hungarian society will be formed by the features of their hometown environment. The other determining factor is that, due to the dividing lines between the gypsy minority and the majority of the society, the opinion of the students is greatly influenced by the segments of the majority that are "available" for them.

      According to the opinion of Roma students, the value system of the Hungarian society can mostly be described with material features. Therefore, the

presence of work-centered thinking and money is strong. These values were list-
ed by the students before they were introduced the Schwartz figure. The students
explain this process with economic problems and therefore, according to their
theory, the declining of the financial situation, the insecurity of life and unem-
ployment are responsible for value preference features.

> *"I think they (Hungarians) are hard-working people. In my opinion, they
> really must work – this is what they were born into… For them the most im-
> portant thing is to have a job and most of them do." (female Roma special
> college student)*

> *"I also spotted that because of the economic situation, everything is about
> money. Truly, things like family values have almost disappeared. Family con-
> flicts are down to money problems in the majority of the cases. This is a great
> disadvantage of Hungary." (female Roma special college student)*

> *"It (This value system) may be due to the economy, as they know that they
> may have to go through changes that they're just not prepared for. So, they're
> probably afraid of losing their wealth. Or not their wealth, just their every-
> day living." (female Roma special college student)*

The group of material values that are linked to security and planning, how-
ever, are not novelty. In the students' opinion this phenomenon has been a feature
of Hungarian society for long generations, and it helps young people start their
life and promotes the evolving of the values of independence – as opposed to the
life of gypsy minority.

> *"I think this is a really positive thing…They (the Hungarians) tend to think
> ahead and try to give thought to their future, as well. So, it's not just plunging
> into life for them. They also provide for their grandchildren." (female Roma
> special college student)*

Besides discussing the material mindset of Hungarians, the students high-
lighted the weakening of micro-communal and collective social values. They
found this feature to have been dominant for the last couple of years, as they have
completely different memories of their childhood. The importance of neighbors,
distant relatives has also decreased, and this, naturally, has been caused by the
dominance of material features, which is in accordance with the consolidation of
individual values. The sustaining of communal relationship appears in numerous
cases as compulsive or as some activity on show. The erosion of communal fea-
tures correlates with the weakening of the following of norms and conformity.

"What you can mainly see is me and me and myself and I…self-centered, egotistic thinking is typical. Sweeping away others. Tread on them. And it may not serve right." (female Roma special college student)

"I've recently talked to some people (not of gypsy origins) about Christmas on an internet forum. They added that they do not really prefer Christmas because at that time they have to put up with family members that they do not quite like and they hate this hypocrisy." (female Roma special college student)

All the students traced and evident trend of decrease in the value of love, helpfulness and politeness in the mental attitude of the society, while the desire for power, and the value of ambitions and career planning seemed to have increased in the last couple of years. Other significant changes of the post-millennium period is the strengthening of hedonist values, which the literature links together with the post-material feature becoming dominant. According to the findings of the interviews, the realization of these values was detectable even in the smallest East-Hungarian villages.

"Nowadays people do not strive to become professionals. They want to be CEOs and managers. They want leadership positions." (male Roma special college student)

"This feeling of full comfort began rolling like an avalanche before the post-millennial economic depression. People started to "infect" each other, convincing each other how great wellness centers are…and then these places started growing like mushrooms – almost round every corner. Villagers also tend to desire more and more comfortable lives. It is trendy to ask who's visited which wellness center. My colleagues are at a "team-building" session now at one of these." (male Roma special college student)

One peculiarity of Hungarian society is secularized thinking. The item of "salvation" on the Rokeach-test, for example, came last – that is 36th – in the 1990s (Füstös and Szakolczai 1994), and the value of religiousness has not increased significantly ever since.

The opinions of the interviewees on the religiousness of Hungarian society were different. The reason behind this is probably related to the geographical and social peculiarities of organized religiousness.

"It is rather the old people that seem religious to me. They dress up on Sundays and they do it also because of the traditions. I can't really see this among young people – but it can be that I just don't happen to be in one company

with them. At the university I have one or two peers who are believers but they're in minority. Not like in the old days." (female Roma special college student)

"On Sundays (people attend church services). At Christmas and Easter the church is crowded and you can't even enter. There's a group of people who regularly attend church – old and young alike." (male Roma special college student)

As the next step, we attempted to compare the outlined picture with the value system of the Hungarian gypsy community. Again, we must stress that the gypsy community of our country cannot be considered as organic and that the students do not have the broad view on the topic. Regarding the divergence between the two value systems, all the students emphasized the living feature and greater power of traditions. The greater measure of norm-following is synchronic to a higher level of communal embedding and the fixing of communal events into the way of living. Another important phenomenon parallel to communal embedding is the tighter nature of family ties and that the Hungarian gypsy minority set broader boundaries for the family. It is interesting that, with regards to majority society, the students highlight the erosion of micro-communal relationships, while international value-sociological examinations point out the relationship-oriented preferences of Hungarians.

"And you'll find their traditions in weddings, cooking habits and clothing. You can find these traditions even to this day. And dance…young people dance their traditional dance, even at home. So, they don't just go dancing, like Hungarians, but learn it from their mothers at home." (male Roma special college student)

"What's really great in us is tradition. For instance, death-watch. That is really beautiful. Or weddings. Elopement, proposal. Death-watch you'll find everywhere. When somebody dies, the whole family goes to their house and the close family prepares a feast for the relatives. Death-watch will not end until the dead person is buried. This is so beautiful. Religion is also very nice and it's great we haven't lost it". (male Roma special college student)

"I think the importance of the family is a positive feature of the value system of gypsies. And also that they are not afraid to have children. This I consider very positive. I can't see this at Hungarians. Many of them don't even have one child and they aren't family-centered very much, either." (female Roma special college student)

"For us, a second cousin is just like a real brother or sister. We meet and talk the same way. The relation is not at all distant, in fact, they are quite close. Family is much more organic, we're one." (male Roma special college student)

There is serious difference between the two value preferences in the field of performance. Achievements, career and ambitious behavior are connected to a work-oriented thinking whose origin should be sought in Protestant ethics according to Weber (2001). The lifestyle principles that were formed in this manner make social mobility possible and they place the desire for it in the set of individual preferences. However, according to Roma special college students, this performance-principle is remarkably missing from the thinking of gypsy people, whereas, there are reports on a change. Students highlight the role of labor market discrimination and blame it for the less dominant feature of the performance-principle, since the chance for advancement can only motivate a person when there is a real chance for being employed. The other institution to be blamed for the situation is the Hungarian aid- and benefit system which makes sustenance outside the labor market possible. Planning and the ability of future-oriented thinking is connected to performance: according to our interviewees, this ability is only hardly present in the thinking of the Hungarian gypsy minority.

The literature describes this phenomenon with the lack of the ability of delayed satisfaction which distances the incriminated segments of society from middle-class thinking (LeShan 1952). It is important to highlight that the Hungarian educational system is strongly performance-oriented and that it concentrates on precision, planning and long-term thinking. Based on the findings, we can state that the logic of school careers and the rules of school life are quite far from the traditional gypsy value system, which hinders the usage of the mobility channel in the majority of the cases.

"The negative element of their value system is performance…that they're not too keen on self-accomplishment. They don't want to learn – this is not what they bring from home and so in today's world they are lost. They become deadbeat. And by that they build up the poor segment of society again." (male Roma special college student)

"I don't think they're willing to work at all (a part of the gypsy minority). They say, why should I work when I can get the benefit from the government and make a living out of it? They are better off with the benefit alone as doing only seasonal work which brings only minimal sums of money is not worth it and it is not motivating." (female Roma special college student)
"There were about 4–5 years when their attitude to work was not like they really wanted to work. Everybody wants to earn money easily and everyone

wishes to make money from home. However, their thinking has changed in the last couple of years. Today everyone wants to work. They would take any job they could get. Of course, there are some families that go against the stream. The population of my village is 1000 and about one third of it are gypsies. There were 4–5 years when they thought that the amount of benefits would be enough for them – along with some other money resources." (male Roma special college student)

"I think they (the gypsies) are irresponsible because if they made more re-sponsible decisions, they could have a greater sense of security in the family, as well. Financial security – well that is missing completely. But the feeling of belonging to each other and being there for each other at all times: that is ever-present! Togetherness, as a sense of security, is there." (female Roma special college student)

According to the interviewees, a strong feature of Roma value preference is hedonism which differs in its characteristics from the hedonism of the mid-dle-class of society. This mentality is connected to a lack of long-term planning and it coincides with the results of "the culture of poverty" (Lewis 1968). The lack of secularization and the higher degree of helpfulness and hospitality were also marked as divergent features. All this brings about a stronger communal embedding.

"Gypsies tend to follow the norms more and they are also more religious. They are very religious and they're Christians. Mostly, they are Catholics but some are free Christians. They are God-fearing people to this day." (male Roma special college student)

"This is what they have, and it's much stronger (hedonism) in the community of gypsies. It's carpe diem – live for today – because you never know when it's going to end. This they bring from home." (male Roma special college student)

"We helped others buying an apartment, even. And not just as bailers. My parents took the loan for them – for my third cousin. And they paid it back. Or there was death in the family, and they had no money for the funeral. The Roma family collected the money and arranged for everything. Whatever each person could offer, they gave it and it was not to be returned." (Roma special college male student)

With regards to the compared positions of the two value systems we need to highlight that in the students' opinion the differences between the thinking of

the majority and the gypsy minority have decreased. The interviewed students explain this with the growing ambition of the gypsy community to catch up with the majority – the desire for integration which can change the traditional thinking structure and lifestyle features of gypsies.

Integration is only possible if the minority also takes up the norms of the majority. This process, however, does not appear as merely positive: the interviewed students are somewhat doubtful about the loosening of communal relationships and the changing in the goals of life, and they can see their negative consequences, as well.

> *"One thing in which they (the gypsy community) don't differ from the majority is materialism. They've become rather material in their thinking, too. This used to be different – then they were only interested in having the food they needed for the day. They are trying to integrate into the Hungarian society. You can see more and more Hungarian-gypsy marriages, friendships. There is no separation any more. They adopt each other's habits." (male Roma special college student)*

> *"Now, I went to this Roma wedding party. The beauty contest they had at the party was even shown on TV. I was there and I saw who won it. And all the traditions were gone. I missed the gypsy attitude and traditions. There was no theatrical proposal for example. The groom's family members used to go to the bride's house – now it was missing. And it's not just me who was left lacking something. People came from the majority and they were expecting a huge "Oláh gypsy" wedding… One tradition of gypsies for instance is eating stuffed cabbage at the wedding. We had it but not for dinner and not the way it is prepared by gypsies. We felt like being at a Hungarian wedding party." (male Roma special college student)*

Summary

The first hypothesis of our analysis pertained to the fact that the value system of the Hungarian gypsy minority has an overwhelming number of elements which can be explained with their divergent positions seen in the modernization process. We presumed that the higher degree of communal embedding, the stronger presence of traditions and the lack of secularization features will be detectable in the value system of the gypsy minority. The interview extracts support our hypothesis. Our second prediction was in connection with material value preferences. We presumed that, despite the fact that the living standards of the gypsy minority are considerably worse than that of the Hungarian society, the scarcity

hypothesis would not be present due to traditional relations. This hypothesis was also supported by our results. Nevertheless, as the two value systems seem to move gradually closer to each other, it is quite uncertain that the outlined characteristics could also be predicted for the future. It is questionable whether this process of the two value systems approaching each other can be traced in the case of the broader society, and we still do not know yet whether this phenomenon is a long-term one, as other studies on the gypsy minority have indicated that the relationship and the social distances between the majority and the minority have been restructured several times and in several ways in the past decades. (Ladányi és Szelényi 2004).

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TOMORY IBOLYA[1]

'Mawe Matatu' – Three Stones, or Warmth of the Family Stove Enculturation in East-Africa

Abstract

It often raises the question in the Europeans, concerning the culture and traditions of Black Africa, why is it so important to stick to habits, and to a more difficult form of life, and why is it necessary to get to know and learn recently less practical information, in a world, where everything is based on the knowledge transmitted be the European schools, in which knowledge the possibility of development, and progress is seen.

Naturally, Africans ask themselves and their relatives this question, just like we do.

We have seen that the most effective way of the enculturation is not consisting of direct tools, and we have seen, that people's lives, identities and roles are built and strengthened in the families.

The reality, which is important for the representing culture, community and family and would like to share with the following generations, is carried by enculturation, socialization and upbringing.

The term 'Mawe matatu' in East-Africa, means not only three stones, but also something familiar, home-bred, something that has a special meaning for the individual, like a subtle kinship, learning and persistence, but either way something nice. Maybe that's the reason we can find objects reminding of old times and kinship relations both in the largest urban households and in tiny villages, still nowadays, under all circumstances.

Places and methods of my research

In the last 13 years, I have travelled to the countries of East- Africa several times, and collected information about the education system, mainly with the use of qualitative methods. I followed the cultural anthropological approach using participant

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observation as a method of field research. It means that I made my observation while taking part in the relevant people's lives. I have explored the different levels and methods of the school education system in different context, from the traditional tribal education to the European style schools in Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda and Ethiopia.

Besides reading the well-known sources (studies, reports, library) I have collected data among various ethnic groups and social classes in multiple locations. I have visited the most different types of schools from the smallest to the university, and met a wide range of people, from illiterate people to the teachers of a university, being at different levels of the educational system. They are the most important information sources, informants, who helped me to supplement the knowledge coming from other sources, to find their real base and to identify hardly recognisable correlations. In this way I could better understand the socio-cultural system and its perspectives, and I could identify the role of education in this system.

My main questions were:
• what culture and studying mean for the individual and the society,
• what kind of forms culture has,
• how the process of education is changing,
• how the traditions and their culture are kept in a multicultural social environment and in their own ethnic group,
• what kind of a role the family, the narrow and the wide environment take in all of this.

During my study tours and fieldworks I started to realise, how important the culture, the transmission and holding of the values are, while learning how to adapt to the requirements of the modern world and education. I also realised how central the family is, in all of this. My personal experiences obtained in families, communities and schools confirmed that many traditional values are embedded in the modern education, however, the transmission of culture, traditions, habits and roles are established and strengthened in the families.

In this study, I am going to write about the importance of the family as a narrow environment, while outlining the perspective of the socio-cultural background, identity and enculturation.

Why Africa?

The significance of family relations and environment are known to everyone, so it might be a question, why I have chosen East-African examples instead of national or at least European ones.

My reasons and purposes behind this are the following:
• The pedagogical use of cultural anthropology, the realisation of field research based on fieldwork and participation.

- The importance of being informed about the educational issues of other countries, continents.
- The obscurity of African education in our country – the absence of real information, the presence of stereotypes.
- With the waves of immigration in the recent years, more and more people (increasing numbers of East-African) are coming and intend to stay in Europe and in our country.

So, one of the reasons is that we barely look further than Europe. However, a lot of stereotypes and misconceptions are still present in common knowledge. While we emphasize the importance of multi- and intercultural knowledge and understanding and accepting others, false utterances, which are not true in reality, can be heard several times.

On the other hand, we have to take into consideration that immigration is going to be a new, determinative factor between Europe and Africa, which is also important for the future of Hungary. Hungary is changing from being a transit country into a destination, which also means we have to reckon on longer residence time and settlement of African immigrants living in Hungary, whose number has measurably increased in the recent years. The number of African citizens with admittance, residential or domiciliation permits has increased up to 2513 people in the beginning of 2010, according to the KSH (Hungarian Central Statistical Office), which means a 26 % increase compared to the number of people in 2009. The number of people, now in 2013, is 3850. (I1)

Most of the coming people have an educational purpose, which definitely means a long term residence, often followed by domiciliation (Rédei, 2009). The presence of Africans both in the society and in the media is conspicuous, with excessive emphasis in many cases, which deforms the common knowledge about Africans, even more.

It cannot be a coincidence that a national research and communication project has started, with the name: "In Black and White – Here we are!" with the support of the European Integration Found and the Ministry of Interior, in 2011. The main purpose of the project is to reveal the motivation, life, and integration conditions of the African immigrants living in Hungary, which also means the cognition of their cultural background. Another purpose is to form a realistic view about Africans in the common knowledge, with particular emphasis on the expansion of awareness and knowledge of the future generation, to create the youth expertness. It correlates with the question of social openness and integration, and with the understanding of immigration, to what, people can prepare and be prepared. So, it is necessary to know and understand the world, culture and society of the African immigrants; it is worth to be informed, even if Africa seems to be far away.

The cultural background knowledge and up to date information contribute to methods and development that help the adaptation and integration of immigrants in a new country. These are the reasons, why I am collecting first hand

information about the cultural background and educational processes in field. These information are suitable for expanding the knowledge and forming a realistic view, in order to an appropriate approach towards the coming people.

Enculturation/ Socialization: Concepts

Enculturation

The most popular definition of enculturation is the following: "the transmission of cultural knowledge to the following generation (with the help of social educational tools)" (Hollós, 1995:151). The American cultural anthropologist, Herskovits gave firstly the name 'enculturation', in 1947, to the process which was examined a lot, both by his antecedents and contemporary people. Later on, the term became known and accepted in pedagogy too, in German speaking areas, and it has been connected to the concept of socialization (Kron 1996). It can be understood as a process of adaptation so as integration in a given culture or as a learning process. It is often understood as an introduction to the culture or as integration into a cultural complex. According to Nahodl (1986) tradition is what ensures the continuity and transmission of culture, and through tradition, we can approach the enculturation processes.

To put it simply, in this study, the storing, innovation and transmission of the traditional issues should be understood. As an example: During the process of enculturation such individual and communication channels open between mother and child and between the persons being part of the community, which are definitely not the same in other cultures, with different local characteristics.

According to Kenyan professionals, the importance of enculturation becomes understandable in adulthood by adapting new, cultural information, like in case of a teacher at a school, who is not able to appropriately describe the culture of the institution, because he/she does not know yet, how the given cultural formation works (Mwria – Wamahiu, 1995). Nowadays, also the American anthropologists think of the term enculturation which includes the integration process into a special culture and the acquisition of its norms and models. They claim, that this process continues after the childhood, also in the adulthood. Taking into consideration the example of immigrants, those people have to adapt to new situations and get to know new cultural configurations.

Socialization

According to other, mainly pedagogic views the term socialization might be understood as an introduction to a given culture. Here, the term culture describes the accepted rules and experiences concerning the behavioural norms in groups formed by people. Socialization is a lifelong process; its most determining periods are childhood

and adolescence. Parents also have fundamental roles in acquiring behavioural norms and personal traits (Vajda-Kósa, 2005). The term 'socialization' was firstly used by Durkheim in his famous presentation in Sorbonne, in 1902. He understood socialization as a specific cultural formation, as self-supporting implement of a society. He defined education as methodical socialization (Kron, 1997). Since Durkheim, more definition are used, and finally we get there, that the term 'socialization' means the acquisition of rules and norms, which are necessary by all means, to integrate into a society as an individual, and to play an effective role in that (Báboskik, 1997). Remaining by the example of the mother-child relation, the behaviour, requests and expectations of the mother predict the child's future social behaviour. The definition of enculturation is closer to the tight relation with culture; it comprehends better the sociocultural environment, so further on, I am going to use this term.

The warmth of the family stove in East-Africa

'Mawe matatu' in the title means 'three stones', this is the name of the most traditional stove with earthenware on it. However, it means more for the people living there. It both symbolizes and reminds of the spirit of home, the familiar environment, the objects, and the family and relatives altogether. It also includes the spirit and memories given by these things, also everything, we call the warmth of a family stove. However Black Africa, so East-Africa, as well, are multicultural societies, with a lot of people, various habits and different lifestyles living next or close to each others also in one region or settlement. Children also grow up in different cultures with distinct educational purposes. It is challenging to look for similar traits between a shepherd and a group, living in a city, with totally different lifestyles. For example: One child is born in the middle of the savannah and learns how to be a shepherd, while another child is born at the edge of the savannah or in the mountains learning how to be a farmer and a third one is going to learn in a European style school in the bustle of a town. One thing is however similar in their lives and development. Their most important base, their 'safety zone' is the family and their integration grows from the tight physical and social environment. Also more types of 'stoves' exist both symbolically and physically. The traditional 'mawe matatu' already has new variations and new even more modern types are going to follow or to be used in parallel, but the name is going to remain through the whole East-Africa with the same meaning for everyone: the world surrounding the people;
- the natural environment (familiar landscape, plants, roads, etc.),
- the physical environment (familiar, friendly objects, well-known tools which are carrying information, working and educational tools, symbols of the constancy),
- and the most important, the personal environment and the family.

The family: Persons, relatives, kinship

The most important enculturation milieu, what is the soul and life-giving of the stove, is around the prevailing family stove. It means the people, the individual lives with, meets them day by day or on specific occasions. Relatives, who form connections and a kinship system.

The family is always the carrier of the culture, too: the local culture and wider culture which surrounds. If we think of the family members, probably we think of the parents-children and grandparents. Even if we count further relatives, as well, probably we will not go too far. It is also common, that we know about the existence of our relatives but our relationship is limited to some greetings pro year. In East-Africa, families are much bigger than by us. In Africa, both in the country and in towns, is typical that the big family is naturally together. The family relations and the cohabitation of a bigger family, or at least the track keeping about the relatives are much more extended in Africa than here in Europe. Many people know their family tree till a common ancestor and bear a difficult system of relatives in mind. Often, the names of the relatives also carry a lot of information about the connection. It refers to the kinship, sex, age and to the behavioural norms, social rules, and also to the system behind, how people have to treat others. For example in a Swahili family tree, the name of the father's younger brother is Baba M dogo, which contains the sex, age, brotherly relation, and the taken place in the hierarchy, that also defines the individual's relation to him.

The acquisition of the family system (which is not easy to understand), kinships, and habits connected to them, is continuous from early childhood. They also have to learn, how the society's and the individual's ambitions meet; imitate the different behavioural norms through the connections with the environment and to find their way in the multiple system of the relatives.

Visible and invisible family members – magician teachers, ancestors, lost relatives

In the traditional African communities, magicians and healers had an educating role, kind of a 'folk-teachers'. The magician-teacher teaches also individuals with great spontaneity, and later on he trains the children for the initiation, in the form of an official education, in the tribal school ('bush school'). Also he, with the parents together, prepares them for social engagement, exams and for the adult state, parallel to the European education, in many places.

They keep the memory of their ancestors, and their lost relatives carefully, their presence in the family is steadily, they always remember of them and show regard for them. Their presence is almost as intense as other family member's, they are part of the family life, and they get roles. Dealing with the ancestors is

also part of the children's task and roles. At least, they are present in rituals; they hear their ancestor's names, history and so on.

Hence, concerning Africa, everyone is a genealogist and a family tree professional a bit, because the own narrow family, the extended family, or even the origin and history of the ethnical group are part of the knowledge, acquired during the enculturation. What does it mean in the life of a child, an adolescent or an adult? This means reciprocity and balance for both the individual and the society. In East-Africa, it means the big family, as an extended social unit, which is by us practically unknown. It means such difficult, cultural contexts, which surround the people like a subtle system in Black Africa thus in East-Africa. In these systems, traditions and new components are together in the also subtle world of relatives, which is difficult to understand for the people living in them, too. It usually requires a continuous, long learning process from early childhood and growing into a specific sociocultural community, a given cultural system and habits. This is not just the acquiring of rules, models and norms, but also the knowing and understanding of the social system and, with this parallel, the learning of the rules, models, norms and roles. We should talk about enculturation rather than socialization, in this sense, too.

Individual, community and social roles

Thinking of the above mentioned issues, it might raise the question, what the huge relative systems and big family connections still motivates. One of the key factors is that it connects the community with the individual, and also with narrowed and wider communities. Its benefits are multiple both for the community and the individual, it comes up in different situations, often indispensable concrete physical cooperation and even more emotional effect.

Economic balance – pick up a living together, sharing the difficulties of subsistence and survival

Economies, especially by the peaks of work, need regular help for the most part. The source of this help usually consist of two groups: relatives and the neighbourhood. It is not rare, that the two groups are the same, either because the households-farms next to each other originate from a common ancestor, or because the relative families often try to settle down next to each other or close, at least.

Nevertheless, we could tell the same apropos of protection, getting knowledge (education), reaching, transmitting, and ensuring a social position, as well. In the traditional world, all of this rather connect to one narrower community, in which the individual was born into (household and kinship), than to the nation, or

formal organisations, and institutions. Hence, if someone has no kinship, or has only a very few relatives, he/she is at an economical, social and cultural disadvantage, in this world.

Loyalty, identity, safety – role – and task orientation

If children grow up in a big family, everyone is looking after them, everyone is responsible. When children start to walk, also the community of the settlement takes care of them and everyone love and watch them. Such a community works as family, relatives, and the kinship organization is frequent. Children are never left alone; never feel lonely, lost, or rootless. Besides the mother, other members of the household and in need take care of them. The child's sense of security is prior, it is strengthened consciously. The role of the community has always been important. The role of the community has always been primary, and it has a philosophy which has helped the mother to raise her children, by strengthening the group cohesion. Since children saw the parallel between them and the society's happiness from the beginning, they grew up in accordance with this, and have accepted as their own. The effect of this is still alive in the recent families and between further relatives, as well. I have heard many times, that a relative 'has borrowed' the child or the parent said that 'Now, I am going to 'loan' my son/daughter'. Borrowing means not a few days or a holiday (however it reminds of that) but a longer stand instead. The temporary tutor takes over all of the duties, costs and education etc. He/she ensures the parental, cousinly, brotherly, and communal care; the child becomes part of his/her family and community.

It's another form is the adoption: Tanzanian, Kenyan families, small communities often adopt and take care of a poorer relative, a friend or their child. The host family ensures the education, or support, raise, and help the child, according to his/her potential, at least. In return, the respective person helps around the house, or whenever it is necessary.

Also, the life of the individuals never remains aimless, they help them, to have meaning in their lives and to be needed somewhere. It means the sense of achievement, prestige, rank and role and promotes the need of self realization. The survival of the following generations, the transmission of social roles, and positions, and cultural values are also a serious job of the family. The experiential, rhythmical and sometimes literally cognition of the fairy tales, legends, stories, history, monarchs and important affairs happens continuously, around the evening or even the day fire, imbedded in the study on weekdays. The irregular happenings and holidays form a frame for acquiring the new information, roles and tasks.

The family is the cultural system of the inner kinship

Why are these connections so important? Why do they last as values till nowadays? The answer is the family itself. There might be difficulties, problems, and conflicts in a family, but on the whole, the family is the source of the identity, a helping and a reference point. The conscience of kinship is also a place and acceptance in the world. So a relative relation carries not just social but also cultural and psychical (emotional) relations. The importance of kinship is that we have to become relatives internally. People have to develop a 'kinship consciousness' and acquire the behavioural culture, necessary to be a relative. Furthermore, the group of relatives has to take the person in. It is particularly important in the traditional communities, where it is impossible for a person to survive alone, without getting to the periphery of the society, because of the technical difficulties of farming, the difficulties of subsistence and survival, and because of the protection against the known and unknown dangers. In the culture of Black Africa it still has significance. So kinship is rather a social and psychological relation than biological.

A writer from Zimbabwe, in her novel writes about the importance of the family, to his daughter. Her sentences also summarize the essence of the above. 'Culture has many parts that are difficult to understand. You have often cried because of our difficult connections to another nation. However, I have tried severely for years, I, myself also often mistake, what kind of a relation is between two people. Remember, how desperate you were, when you have realised that your new friend.... he is your close cousin? 'But mum, is there someone in this city, who is not my relative, at all?' – asked you sadly-'Every time I met someone, it turns out that he is the nephew of the niece of grandfathers uncle, or something similar. It is impossible!' We laughed, because it is true. The hierarchy and the habits connecting to the relations of our extended family tree are even more confusing. It takes time, till you learn it. You are my daughter; it is going to be your job to take care of these relations. Don't be afraid, because it is a big task! It has its beauty in this: there is always someone new to get to know, a new friend, a business partner, a confidant and it means the never ending source of the advices and help. This big family is our society, emotional, financial and cultural safety net. This is Africa's most effective power source.' (Maraire, 1997:39).

Family, children and cultural 'dowers' – some components of examples of enculturation

'Every human being has a culture, the question is always, what characters it has and what makes it unique, in the given moment?' (Prónai: What is cultural anthropology?)

In Dar es Salaam, the biggest city of Tanzania, a mother teaches her three years old daughter to speak in Hungarian, and talks about the culture, emphasising that the girl is half Hungarian. The child is repeating Hungarian rhymes and poems, watches Hungarian fairy tales on video, and sends messages to her grandparents in Hungarian. She can already tell, what colours the national stripe has on the bed of her younger sibling, and also knows that it is something connecting to the country of her maternal grandparents. However, she will only much later understand, what the flag means and what kind of a symbol is it, at all. She likes the goulash soup and she hears a lot from her mother that the cakes coming from Hungary are only there, by that grandma. In this way she gets to know the habits, holidays and objects of her mom's distant family, symbolizing the Hungarian culture for her mother.

However, her favourite food is 'ugali'[2] which belongs to the Tanzanian world. The food is a seemingly tiny, but important part of the culture, without it, barely grows up a child. I remember well, when the family came to visit the Hungarian grandparents, the girl wanted to eat ugali, at all cost. They had to substitute with something similar (thick semolina/porridge). She was used to that in the other culture. The best is to eat the mashed food by hand, making little balls, just like her father and the others. The environmental conditions, namely the objects, foods, eating habits which were created by people, are that much important in a child's development.

The polite and respectful greeting with a bowing toward the paternal grandmother (and relatives) becomes more and more natural for the children in the family, like it became familiar for me, while trying to integrate into the culture, accepting the local (Rangi[3] Muslim) rules. One of the expectations is that women's dresses should not be too easy-going, and provocative. Due to this, it is not proper for girls being without clothes at home, especially in front of the father, even after a bath, they should immediately put on something, which might be a light 'kanga'[4]. The formation of the habits, and the habits becoming permanent – so the proper behaviour – is taught and strengthened by the mother, who met this by acting on a new culture, praising the dress: 'Wow, you are really lovely in that beautiful kanga. It fits you very well.' Then, the child shows it proudly and happily: 'Look, how beautiful my kanga is!' Her one year old brother will know the same cultural values, but he will learn and practice the male roles, first in the family and later in the wider environment. The father stands early, as a model to pick up these roles. They

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[2] Ugali: The Swahili name of a stiff porridge, necessary part of the daily eating, also eaten with meal or vegetables, in East-Africa.

[3] Rangi: A Muslim ethnic group, with Kushita origins (relations to Somali and Ethiopian ethnic groups, eastward) living in the middle of Tanzania, north from Kondoa.

[4] Kanga: It is also a Swahili term; it refers to the half of the doti (women's wear, consisting of two similar sheets). Most East-African women wear the colorful, patterned sheets made of light material, by choice, as a skirt on their clothes, or as a veil on their shoulders. Its wear is almost compulsory for Muslim women.

meet the characteristics of two cultures at the same time, which obviously pertains to the mixed marriages.

Outer, in the harbour of the town, and even outer, on the roads lying under the Kilimanjaro, I have already seen Massai[5] women making their jewels diligent (they also sell it nowadays) while their children being around them. I understood that this seemingly easy idleness is actually part of the maternal education. I noticed that children get instructions; the girls are helping, sorting beads, stitching, taking part in women roles. Sometimes, they are sent to the neighbour to bring, watch, and ask something. The boys are left a bit more to go up and down, look around, and move until they do not join the men, because they have different roles. Firstly, they are going to shepherd small animals, goats and sheep, later on watch the beefs and swap them – the 'economic science' of the beef market – is waiting for them, as I have seen it on the weekly market by the Kilimanjaro, next to Arusha (Tanzania). The youngest are however continuously with their mother. The mothers are teaching the same, verbally and non-verbally to the children: this is how it works by us, you have to behave like this, and you like that, this is right. Thus, we can often hear the notice towards both genders: 'Greet nicely the grandpa, or say hello to this mother and her daughter, as is only fair!' Every children learn from the beginning to behave properly and regardful with elder people and guests. Taking the take to go further upwards on the downhill of Kilimanjaro, we find a very beautiful land, the country of the Pare[6] people. One day, during my stay, I have met a mother collecting brushwood with her children, applying the rules of the family division of labour. Later on, the mother explained to me that these children are not going to school, because they are poor. Firstly, they learn how to behave and live among people, like others hereabout. They are going to be good people, knowing this, because they will know how to live in peace and orderly among others. In order to happen this normally, they are always present at the family occasions and weddings, listening to songs, fairy tales and stories, imitate them, taking part on holidays. They are present, when a baby is born, and they are able to appreciate the value of a birth. This is the acquisition of the culture, the interaction of the individual and the family, the transmission of the education and cultural knowledge. Many things are taught in the schools, but according to their mother and family, they have to be mature first.

Our new location is Uganda. We are in visitation in the southern region by a Gisu[7] ethnic group, where the parents are watching the children playing with jumping-rope, and explaining, helping them to keep the rules. One child of the families, who are sitting in front of the house, holds her sister in her lap and watches the others playing. While she keeps her eye on her sister; too, she

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[5] Maasai: An ethnic group, mainly herds, living on the southern part of Kenya and Tanzania.

[6] A very little ethnic group, in Tanzania, in the foreland of Kilimanjaro, in the Pare mountains.

[7] A farming ethnic group in the northern and east parts of Uganda, next to Kenya, from the Elgon and Tororo mountains.

already gets acquainted with her further role: she will be a mother once. We see her learning how to take care of someone, which type of education has a highly effective role in her personality development, according to psychologists (Cole-Cole, 1997).

Every time I was watching a nursing-teaching moment, every time I heard or remembered of one, I always concluded in myself (sometimes words spoken aside): 'Hence, this belongs to the culture, as well as its transmission to a younger generation.' Obviously, I am not saying anything new with the fact that those values, behavioural norms, habits and symbols etc. which belong to the culture transmit from one generation to another, from mother and family to child, through education and teaching similarly to the ones described in the examples. From them gets the child firstly, these cultural 'dowers'. But the purpose of these dowers is not only the loyalty towards the family, environment and relatives and assimilation and adaptation to them, but also to be part of the child's personality, which handle the child to belong to a bigger family. What does that mean? Optimally, the need and sense of belonging to wider communities, local society, and bigger society besides the personal connections and relations formed in the individuals, and the ability to hold on in new situations independently.

It is undoubtedly a process. A long and difficult process which affect psychological – cognitive, affective, personal, individual- and social, habitual components at the same time.

Hence, people do not get to know the culture in pieces, but they are going to acquire it on the whole, while living their daily lives and taking part in cultural holidays. In this manner, integration correlates to breeding, because through integration, the individual becomes part of something. It also becomes clear, that by the seemingly 'not nursing' ethnic groups, this phenomenon is exactly, what becomes an important virtue. However it is often judged superficially, and called it as not-nursing, or as a simple irrational ignorance.

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PART III

BARNABÁS SZILÁGYI[1]

The Talent-Centred Approach of Managerial Competence Development

Abstract

There have been many attempts to define the talent, but regarding its conceptional clarification neither a uniform consensus nor an agreed definition has been found yet.

All the attempts trying to define this concept aim to capture the concept of the talent from a single-factor approach through multiple approaches to the presentation of talent models classified in different ways.

When summing up the single-factor concepts, Gömöry (2010) puts it in the following way 'Gifted students are different but they have in common that they show high intelligence in reasoning, memory functions and processing speed.' The skills – which can help someone to become gifted in some area – are partly genetically defined and there is no way to influence them. However, the effect-system of environment should also be taken into consideration which may greatly promote or inhibit the way of becoming gifted.

I.

I undertake the presentation of those theoretical connections and approaches in my study which examine the identified talents' thinking operations, learning abilities compared with the basic competences related to conducting functions.

In my opinion managerial talent development, based on the scientific measurement of the above mentioned factors, can be started in the school system. If the supposed correlations are proven, the developing program may take the road

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within the frameworks of public education for the suitable students. Starting the program which prepares for managerial tasks would be particularly useful for the students coming from a disadvantaged socio-cultural environment. As a result of selection based on scientific support such early development programs could start in which case the success of the programs to find the organizational managerial key person can be probable.

The conceptual definition of the talent is not a simple task, even it does not have a uniformly agreed definition in the literature. There are different approaches, conceptions which go round the interpretation of the concept well. In the early theory of single-factor approaches the examinations of intelligence and creativity stood in the centre of the interpretation of the talent as if we would face synonym concepts. In the row of the theories related to the talent, Searman's (1904) approach in which he regarded intelligence as a general ability or intelligence (g factor) was competent. The measure of general intellectual abilities is an important datum and information about the individual's nature even today. Spearman's specific intellectual abilities were defined as learnt abilities, skills by Cattel (1940).

In Thurstone's (1938) ability model or mental ability theory 7 primary intelligence factors are identified.
- fluency of vocabulary
- ability of verbal acquisition
- ability of counting
- memory, that is, storing new information
- induction serving as the deduction of a rule, principle
- velocity of perception
- spatial perception

After Cattel, Balogh (2004) made the next statement. Fluent intelligence is the ability which helps you to present arguments correctly, deductively and inductively. The crystalised intelligence helps problem-solving in the daily work.

Cattel-Horn's fluent, that is basic intelligence components are the following ones. (Gömöry 2010)
- fluent argumentation
- accultural knowledge
- visual processing
- perception after hearing
- velocity of perception
- velocity of right decision-making
- short-term memory
- long-term memory
- visual sensory cognition
- hearing sensory cognition

Another single-factor information processing model of the interpretation of intelligence of the talent is given by Sternberg's (1991) triple model of Intelligence structure which identifies the next elements

- metacomponents
- performance components
- components acquiring knowledge

We can track it on Balogh's (2006) trace that in Sternberg's model it appears as a new element that intellectual behaviour is context-dependent which means that we can behave better in such an environment that we can transform based on our demands or which we can choose for ourselves.

In addition to the intelligence approach of the talent, creativity as a determining factor also appeared in the centre of the researches of the 50's. New conceptual approaches of the talent were revealed. Guilford and Hoepfner (1971) dealt with one of the starting basic conceptions of creativity abilities related to the talent. (Gömöry 2010)

When examining creativity they distinguished the following factors considering its conceptual elements.

- fluency of thinking
- flexibility of thinking
- originality
- redefinition
- development
- problem sensitivity

The model separates the factors connected to creativity from the velocity of associations, through the control of the ordinary procedure, to problem-realizing and drafting abilities. Later Sternberg who also suggests distinguishing six factors, in his model he calls attention to knowledge acquisition. Motivation, the inspiring environment like an reinforcing factor leads to a creative thinking activity of high-level.

Treffinger-Huber put forward proposals in the interest of creative problem-solving which can be summarized the following way.

- sensitivity to problems
- ability of defining problems
- ability of pushing off the usual
- ability of making decisions
- ability of realizing new connections, correlations
- assessment of the consequences of actions
- ability of planting ideas, concepts into practice

After shortly looking into the single-factor theories we can state that the early approaches of intelligence emphasized the functions connected to

thinking and the characteristics of getting and processing information in their approaches. The creativity examinations, and the interpretation of the talent like this started to draw attention to the environment, motivation, behavioural elements fostering creativity. The environment itself is the determining element and condition of the development of creativity which can make such circumstances that are able to handle the individual as an actively adapting paticipant in today's changes. In my opinion the interpretation of the environmental condition system outgrows the school scene of the examinations, the organizational condition, and environment system can be similarly interpreted here.

The next approaches of the talent research mean the multi-factor conceptions. The multi-factor indicates that the early single-factor approach – intelligence or creativity - of the talent is not possible, it should be rethought based on more criteria.

Renzulli's triple-circle model of the talent is one of the best known multi-factor approaches.
• Cognitive abilities above the average give one of the fundamental pillars of the model including abstract thinking, verbal and numerical thinking, memory, exact selective information processing. (Tóth. 2003)
• Creativity as the other fundamental pillar occurs as a more overal concept.
• Commitment to the task as a concept connected to motivation contains the emotional impulses of enthusiasm for the task. None of the elements of the model recognizes the talent, the intersections of the fundamental pillars reveal the talent.

Mönks's triple-sided talent model is built on Renzulli's model conception and completes it with the relationship system with the family, school, companions of the social environment. The commitment to the task appears as a motivation in the model. (Tóth. 2003) Creativity beside the social environmental condition system can be defined in the combination of motivation, creativity and outstanding abilities determined in the personality model.

Mönks's and Renzulli's models were developed by Czeizel's (1997) 2x4+1 model.
In his model he determines the talent as the result of 4 genetic aptitudes
• general intelligence
• specific mental abilities
• creativity
• motivation,
and 4 environmental factors
• family

- school
- age groups
- general social environment (Gömöry 2010)

The fate factor appears as an extra factor in his model. It can be considered as life health which is needed to live in the era which gives the right time for creation for the talented individual.

Based on the models the determining role of the social environment can be emphasized. Like a catalyst of the environmenatl factors the talent is realized together with the individual's interpersonal abilities and means development.

Gömöry's comperehensive table demonstrates the complex models built on each other well.

Table 1: Summary of the complex models

Components	Model Planners				
	Renzulli	**Mönks**	**Piirto**	**Czeizel**	**Gagné**
Cognitive abilities above the average – general and specific abilities	+	- excellent intellectual ability	- cognitive aspect: minimal intellectual competence	- general intelligence, specific mental aptitudes	- a dormant talent who surpasses the average in some fields of human aptitudes eg. intellectual
Creativity	+	+	+ emotional aspect: creativity	+ aptitude for creativity	+ at a dormant talent creative ability area
Commitment to task	+	- motivation	- talent aspect: commitment to a field	-	- interpersonal catalysts: eg. motivation

Environment – family, school, age group	-	+ social pillar: family, school, age group	+ environmental aspect: family, school, community + possibility of coincidence	+ environmental factors: family, school, age group, society: expectations, opportunities	+ environmental catalysts: family, school, community

Source: Gömöry 2010

After reviewing the models connected to the talent we turn to the topic of managerial competence. The concept is important, it is hard to define it accurately. Competence means behavioral features, characteristics mostly in our present interpretation, at work what kind of behaviour helps to meet the targets.

Klein considers the features which competence includes in the background of observable behaviour as the key of understanding. The condition of the practical usage of competences is the definition of the underlying behavioral patterns. The identification of the fields related to management helps to define the competences of the management. Klein's comprehensive table helps to overview this.

Table 2.: The SHL model of managerial competence

Field	Competence	Definition
	Management	He motivates others to achieve the organizational goals and provides the conditions in the interest of this.
Managerial abilities	Planning and organizing	He organizes events, activities, resources, plans the program. He develops schedules and plans, and checks their execution.
	Striving for quality	He pays attention to the goals and the standard. He does everything to keep the qualitative and productivity regulations.
	Persuasion	He is able to influence, convince others, can affect people, and due to it they accept his opinion, agree with him, or change their behaviour.
	Professional knowledge	He is good at the technical and professional concerns of his work and he ensures the preservation of the standard of his technical knowledge continuously.

Professional abilities	Problem-solving	He anlyses and divides the problems into components. He bases his opinion on the essential information and makes systematic and reasonable decisions.
	Oral communication	He speaks to certain people or groups clearly, smoothly and effectively.
	Written communication	He writes clearly and shortly, he arranges the grammatical structure, style and language of the text to the reader.
	Business awareness	He understands and applies the commercial and financial principles. He contemplates the cases according to the viewpoints of expenses, the profit, the market and value addition.
Entrepreneurial abilities	Creativity and innovation	He has new and imaginative ideas in connection with his work. He finds modern approaches and he is tend to question the traditional conceptions.
	Readiness to act	He is ready to make decisions, he is initiative, the man of deeds.
	Strategic sense	He handles the cases, events and activities intellectually, and takes their long-term effects and their wider contexts into consideration.
	Social sense	He is sensitive and smart in the social contact. He respects the others and works well together with them.
Features of Personality-	Flexibility	He adapts successfully to the changing requirements and circumstances.
	Degree of tolerance	He works efficiently even in the case of obstacles or tense situation. He keeps his calmness, balance, and rules over himself.
	Being motivated	He works hard to meet the targets. He is enthusiastic, and wants to be successful in his profession.

Source: Klein B., Klein S.: Competence at workplaces.

During overvieweing the models of the talent we can realize that in the background of certain conditions thinking operations can be identified. The thinking operations are the toolbars of thinking ability which help to solve such subtasks that lead to the definite solution of the problems.

We consider the problem a situtaion in which we want to meet a certain goal, but the way is hidden for us. Thinking is the process in which the new mental representation of the information comes into existence as the result of a new abstraction, inference, problem-solving. (Pálkúti 2005)

The thinking operations are the toolbars of the thinking ability which help to solve such subtasks that lead to the definite solution of the problems.

- Analysis: divides an object, phenomenon into parts which can be considered independent
- Synthesis: is that thinking operation which helps to link the independent parts into a uniform whole one.
- Comparison: is that thinking operation which reveals the identity or difference of two or more objects, phenomena.
- Perception of correlations (relations): is that thinking operation with which it graps the correlation between two objects, phenomena. The relation may be like this: part-whole, smaller-bigger-equal, cause and effect, tool-target, condition-consequence.
- Supplement: in the case of knowing the object, phenomenon, the unknown member of the relation can be found by indicating the relation belonging to it.
- Generalisation: the superior concept is found belonging to a concept.
- Concretisation: is that thinking operation which helps to find the subordinate concept belonging to a concept.
- Arrangements: from the group of objects, phenomena the right ones are selected based on some kind of principle, and this way a homogeneous group is created.
- Analogy: after finding the correlation between two data, the fourth one is looked for based on the relation to the third given one.

The two-stage thinking operation:
- Perception of correlations
- Supplement

With problem-solving as an activity where we want to meet some kind of goal whose way is uncertain currently, as a related thought beside the conceptual frameworks of creativity we are within the models related to it. The definition of thinking operations and abilities and the managerial competences can be compared, correlations can be found between them eg. the parallel of originality as a directed thinking ability and creativity-innovation as a managerial competence.

Thinking operation, – directed thinking abilities:
Task accomplishing thinking, logic-algoritmic abilities, inference, conceptualisation, problem-solving thinking, heuristic-creative abilities, distant association, flexibility, understanding, assessment – review, choice – decision.

Managerial Competence:
Management, organization of planning, striving for quality, persuasion, problem-solving, oral communication, written communication, creati-

vity and innovation, readiness to act, strategic sense, social sense, flexibility, tolerance.

We find a parallel in the case of the competences related to each field of management, that is, certain thinking operations or directed thinking abilities make you capable of practising certain kind of behaviour and managerial competence connected to it.

Summary

The early identification of the individual patterns of thinking operations helps to define the directions of managerial competence development. In my opinion the early identification of the characteristics of thinking operations can be realized by the time of secondary studies. The individual patterns of thinking operations make the definition of personalised thinking profiles possible. In the case of defining the directed operations and fields of thinking of such a degree, the opportunity may arise to define the directions of individual development pointing to the direction of management.

The identification of thinking operations belonging to the competence areas of different trades, professions and the comparison of the individual's thinking profile may provide an opportunity to define the preferences when choosing an occupation and related development plans.

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MARIANN MÓRÉ[1]

The Employee Knowledge is the New Opportunity of his Utilisation in the Higher Education

Abstract

Knowledge and qualifications are becoming increasingly important factors on the job-market, however to obtain both of these means a particularly timeconsuming and expensive way for the individual, the society and the companies. The educational costs are considered in economics as investment, which do have a meaning and a benefit. For the employers it is only then sensible to invest into education if as a result the production of the employee will increase or they will be able to create new things. This essay attempts to direct the attention on the fact that there is another approach to the beneficial use of knowledge: knowledge is the condition of any further education, moreover education of various codependent or independent segments of study fields has common parts, as well as the avoidance of repetition or the approval of previous knowledge can become an economically integral part of the education. In many EU countries it is not unusual that the knowledge obtained from various sources and of different educational background is often approved and acknowledged in higher education, thus a new model of the interference of practical and theoretical knowledge is applied. In Hungary the acceptance of the former knowledge has been in practice at workplaces, but in the official educational organisations this acknowledgement is not traceable, although it would mean individual, social and economical benefits.

Knowledge acquired outside the school system individually

In the 21st century, considering the theory of life-long learning, the benefits and returns of acquired knowledge have become an important issue, both for the indi-

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vidual and society. Education is only effective for the individual if it provides extra knowledge which can be validated on the labor market, when it can reproduce the invested mental and/or financial capital and the acquired knowledge may be sold at a good price. At Lisbon, The European Council drafted the 2000 document titled "Memorandum on Lifelong Learning" in which it raised awareness of the importance of validating knowledge achieved by various means. One emphasized objective therein is the increase of need to learn in those individuals who have thus far only rarely experienced the results and benefits of learning.

The document defined those learning methods which differ from formal learning possibilities:

• non-formal learning: occurs outside the institutional system, the result is not formalized, it is something related to one's workplace or a civil organization
• informal learning: that which is learned naturally in the course of everyday life

The document defined the utilization of acquired knowledge as the true acknowledgement of the knowledge in question. The advantage of that knowledge achieved through formal learning results in concrete, practical individual outcome, as has been introduced by Polónyi (2004), in the framework of a national research project.

Research results determined by level of qualification justified the benefit of obtaining extra knowledge. As mathematical research demonstrates, the individual return is the lowest for those graduating only from vocational education programmes: 4.69%, for those with college and university degrees, the value is almost identical: above 13%. Few examinations have been carried out on the utilization of non-formal and informal learning. The monetary returns on the energy invested in obtaining this type of knowledge and the remaining benefits of acquiring it are mainly connected to the locally acceptable concepts of the value of labour for any individual of working age. Based on theories and examinations, we have defined the utilization of knowledge acquired through non-formalized learning processes (1.Table):

Table 1: The benefit of knowledge gained in different ways

	Occupational benefit	**School/ institutional benefit**
Formal learning	verification of the competence	recognized by the successive courses
Non-formal learning	requirement of the work	sometimes recognized as prior learning
Informal learning	requirement of the work	recognized in foreign language trainings

Source: own creation.

It is my contention that formal learning and the certificate are verifications of the competence at the workplace, non-formal learning and informal learning are requirements of the work, and the institutions recognize formal learning in successive courses. Sometimes the institutions recognize the results of non-formal learning as prior learning. The institutions recognize the results of informal learning, almost only in the case of foreign language trainings. This categorization is supported by the results of Varró (2002), who examines the utilization of different learning methods in seeking the answer to the question as to what types of knowledge the sample group (correspondence students at Szent István University) possesses, in validation their knowledge acquired through non-formal education. Of the respondents, 80.4% considered validation acceptable for such acquired knowledge to be accepted in the form of credits by higher education. This survey also revealed that most of the respondents were not aware of the differences between non-formal and informal learning. The claim is supported in a representative survey of Hungarian full-time employees (Török 2006). 48.4% of the survey's respondents reported that they have not been learning anything in the last 12 months during their work activity. However, in his research conducted in Canada, Ron Faris (2005) underlined the notion that the majority (upwards of 70%) of learning in the workplace is informal. However, he has also drawn attention to the fact that informal knowledge gained in the workplace is rather difficult to externalize, identify and recognize in formal education. The British researcher Faris, in his examinations done in Canada, stated that the identification and legitimization of knowledge acquired through informal learning procedures at workplaces by the hierarchically organised educational structure is difficult. Faris's result is also remarkable in comparison with those of others, since Canada may be considered to be a model in the development and widespread application of tools for gauging knowledge acquired in various ways. The recognition of skills and knowledge gained through various learning methods in Hungary has been analysed with the assistance of Tempus Public Foundation (Vámosi 2010). The study emphasized that 22% of higher education teaching professionals are acquainted with the notion of "application of learning outcomes", although it does not indicate its actual application. One fifth of the teachers recognize knowledge gained in formal learning, while the higher education sector is rather dismissive towards the formal acknowledgement of other forms of prior knowledge. Only 8% of the instructors of 57 higher education institutes participating in the survey reported that prior knowledge obtained in periodic training should be recognized in higher education, while a negligible part of the participants (less than 5%) believe that the accreditation of informal learning should be emphasized.

Knowledge obtained outside the school system, as seen by higher education institutions

France possesses the longest tradition of validating previously acquired knowledge in Europe. The opportunity to validate knowledge brought by immigrants into the country became widespread starting in the 1980's; the possibility of validating knowledge accumulated over years in the workplace became legally recognized in 1985. This act of law was modified in 2002, so that, as a result of going through a procedure to validate one's acquired knowledge, approved validation could be credited, in lieu of requiring actual course attendance for a given subject. Perhaps it is not accidental that the name of the procedure applied widely in several European countries comes from the French term 'validation'. Validation in higher education means the recognition of that knowledge brought by an individual, which does not result from education-integrated practice, but which is rather determined by the traditions and the characteristics of the national educational system.

Validation is also applied in lieu of one's taking an entrance examination and being awarded immunity from taking certain courses in Belgium, Croatia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Holland, The United Kingdom and Norway. The number of credits obtainable through validation is limited in Scotland and in Germany, to 50% of the prescribed total credits for a degree. Validation is only applied for the adult target group (age above 23) in Portugal and Norway. A complete diploma may be achieved by validation in Belgium and France. No national regulation, i.e. validation is a question of university autonomy in Spain, Cyprus, Malta and Italy. Validation is not authorized in the Czech Republic, Iceland, Latvia, Poland, Lithuania and Cyprus.

In my first research I studied the validation system in Estonia at the University of Tallinn in 2012. I travelled to Tallinn with the intention of   understanding a working model and of finding a method which is adaptable and can be introduced in Hungary. (Figure 1)
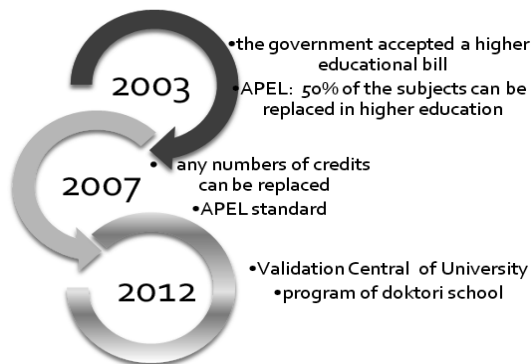

Figure 1: Validation system in Estonia

Source: own creation.

In 2003 the Estonian government accepted a higher educational bill, according to which 50% of the subjects can be replaced in higher education with the APEL procedure. In 2007 they amended the law, they stopped this limitation, as a result any numbers of credits can be replaced. What was the government's aim? They wanted to recall the students to the university who had formerly stopped studying there. They assumed that the ex-students were working, they had work experience, they had knowledge that could be gained by learning some subjects at the university. Through the APEL it is possible to take part in fewer semesters and to fulfill some subject requirements or a whole module at the University of Tallinn.

In my second research, I present the prior learning of the correspondence students with the document analysis method. The location of research is the Faculty of Child and Adult Education. I analysed the documents of those students who took part in validation. The aim of my research is to present what prior learning and what competences the students have. In the 2. table I summed up the most important competences and practical knowledge.

Table 2: The most important competences and professional konwledge

Professional knowledge	Competences
Labour process Counselling Labour law Prefectural knowledge Invitation to tender Andragogy	Communication Management sciences Computer knowledge Social sensitivity Insight into character Presentation Event management

Source: own creation (n=26).

According to the results of scientific research, the students have knowledge in the categories of labour process, counselling, labour law, prefectual knowledge, invitation to tender, andragogy. According to the results of scientific research the students have competencies in the categories of communications, management sciences, computer knowledge, social sensitivity, insight into character, presentation, event management. It's not a marginal factor that because of their work and status they continually get written informational materials   from which they learn a lot. Taking everything into consideration, the documents prove that the students' practical knowledge is up-to-date. According to the results of the scientific research, these students have knowledge which can be gained by learning some subjects, so validation is possible in Hungary at the University of Debrecen. In my third research I asked correspondence students whether they found validation possible in Hungary. The method of research: questionnaire. The result of research is shown in the second diagram.
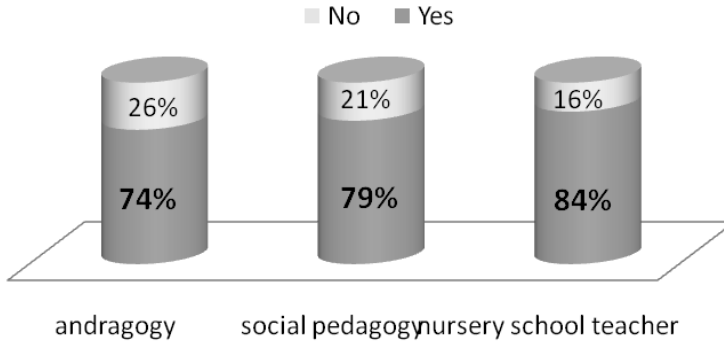
Figure 2: Is validation possible in Hungary?

Source: own creation (n=199).

If you compare the data, you can see that mostly the nursery school teachers responded yes. According to the results of scientific research the majority of the students think it would be good to introduce validation in Hungary.

Summary

After studying the professional literature and international practice, and my research we assert that validation will become an important and inevitable part of the individual learning procedure and the higher education sector in Hungary. Naturally, they also seek documentation attesting to their having completed a degree programme. The acceptance of their preliminary knowledge in credits occurs in a professionally grounded manner, made with adequate quality assurance, taking both the needs of the individuals applying for validation and those of the validating institute itself into proper consideration. There is a natural risk when some obtain a document proving qualification with less formal educational effort by validating knowledge acquired through different forms of learning. These documents are highly symbolic assets and they can provide their bearers with tangible economic benefits. The related quality assurance, transparency and trust make all these cases easily manageable. An important pillar of institutional introduction is the appearance of the idea of life-long learning in the mission statement of the higher education institution. Additional elements are student-oriented administration and service, assistance, the promotion of private learning activity and the commitment of lecturers towards the content renewal of the education they are providing. The acceptance and validation of the results of formal, non-formal and informal learning are typically an interest of the student. Acknowledgement may contribute to social integration, employment and further desire for learning. The procedure plays an important labor market role

in employee integration. In the best case scenario, validation of such knowledge may become an integral part of one's professional development and how one earns acknowledgement in the workplace. The utilization of the knowledge of an additional training, course or a higher level study programme rarely prevails. In the institutional sphere, educators do not build on preliminary knowledge; outside the institutional framework, educators are not financially interested in the procedure. The acknowledgement of this knowledge may be important for an individual possessing knowledge. The acknowledgement of knowledge learned in different forms may also be in the interest of the higher education sector. The acceptance of the principle of acknowledgement means a considerable step in changing the understanding of learning and its organization. A shift in approach like this may put the individual into the focus, instead of the educational organization.

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ANITA KOZÁK[1]

Perspectives for Workplace Socialization and the Importance of Organizational Culture in It

Abstract

Many studies and resources are known about hiring, keeping people at the organizations and maintaining their loyalty towards the organization. Work socialization is the first step to keep people and. various perspectives of work socialization have been discussed including socialization stages, guidance, carrier development, etc. In this essay the approach of Human Resource Management is focused on, but the scope is expanded to the individual as well. In this paper the reasoning, the methods and the questions of a future research in integration at the workplace are analyzed. Firstly, the issue is discussed from the perspective of social changes in Hungary. The next part of this essay illustrates different definitions by authors and what I would like to call the attention to during the research. This part of the essay also aspires to present a new model of organizational culture on the basis of Schein.

Finally, paper aims to show the possible methods (half structured interviews with Human Resource Managers and document analysis) to examine the topic within SSC companies in Hungary and the most important questions concerning this examination are pointed out.

Introduction

After the democratic revolution of 1989 I realized that the country became a part of the global community; as a result global processes have had enormous impact on the country. These effects may have proved more important than the actions of the

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government. Due to the suddenly unfolding world after 1989 and the exposure of Hungary to global changes, the life of ordinary people has been influenced as well. In the socialism the purpose of the government was to provide full employment, accordingly people could feel security in their job and it was natural to retire from the first workplace. In a market economy the need for new workplaces is highly influenced by different circumstances such as well-educated labour, taxes, infrastructure, market, wages, etc.. And because of the permanent changes of these factors and also the economic situation, workplaces are quickly established and eliminated. It follows that people change their workplace more frequently than ever before: 77,8 % of employees between 15 and 19 years old, 55,2 % of employees between 20 and 24 years old and only 38,2 % of employees between 25 and 29 years old work at their first workplace [Internet 1]. It means that organizations have more newcomers who are of different age, work experience, education background, social background and behaviour [Móré, 2011]. Therefore new challenges are created in the process of integration in Hungary, which should not be neglected in 21st century management literature

Literature Review and Hypotheses

This part of the essay illustrates different approaches of work socialization and through which what I would like to call the attention to during the examination. It also presents a new figure of organizational culture on the basis of Schein.

One of the most well-known approaches [Van Maanen & Schein 1979] defines work socialization as a process by which newly-hired employees learn about, adapt to, and come to identify with the organization. Louis [1980] thinks workplace a process by which an individual comes to appreciate the values, expected behaviors, and social knowledge to participate as an organizational member. Other scholars (Bauer et al. 1998; Saks & Ashforth 1997) also strongly emphasize the individual's responsibility during the process of learning in order to fit into the organization.

When it comes to learning during work socialization, Feldman (1976), Fisher (1986) and Reichers (1987) differentiate four dimensions or tasks of the learning process:

1. task mastery: learning how to do the components of one's job, needed skills and knowledge,
2. learning about the organizational culture, values and goals,
3. understanding one's role in the organization (identity, self-image and motives)
4. social integration: developing relationships with co-workers, friendships.

Newer definitions also stress the goals of learning. Haueter et al. [2003] and Saks et al. [2007] refine work socialization as a procedure, through which employees acquire information, knowledge on how to adapt to new jobs, roles, work groups and organizational culture in order to be a useful member of the organization. Furnham [2005, 145. p.] defines it as a procedure through which the organization changes its newcomers. He suggests that its basic objective is to maintain control by ensuring that newcomers share the same norms and values as those already established; attempts to teach the newcomers new rules, roles, norms, values and concepts used by the organization.

My view for the workplace integration task is an organizational psychology's perspective: not the newcomer's socialization for the work in general or for that special position. My view is a more complex procedure, namely the integration at the organizational level. Integration at the workplace is a process through the newcomer - if its his/her first workplace, adapting to the work as well – gets to know, sees through and accomplishes completely his/her tasks, realizes that his/her work became value for the organization, builds network contract and finally gets to know, accepts and integrates in the organizational culture. The work socialization, the socialization for the current position and the integration at the workplace cannot be separated; these are different sides of the same process. During adapting to the work or working in a new position, the integration at the workplace is happened too, because the organizational norms and habits became known as well.

A recent approach [Brown, 2011, p. 31–32.] also itemizes the process, but it emphasizes the importance of fitting in the organizational culture. It suggests that for a new employee, the socialization process evolves through four stages:

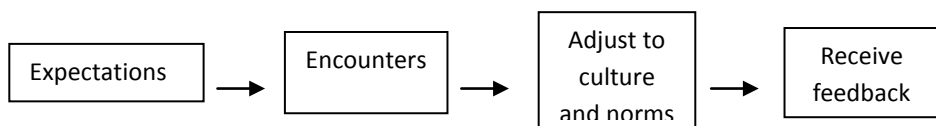
Figure 1: The four stages of work socialization

Source: Brown, D.R. [2011, 32. p.].

Considering the consequences of an earlier half structured interview with an HR manager, the last and longest part of the integration is getting to know and fitting in the organizational culture. The HR manager emphasized that it takes 2 years for a new-comer to become a sterling employee of the organization.
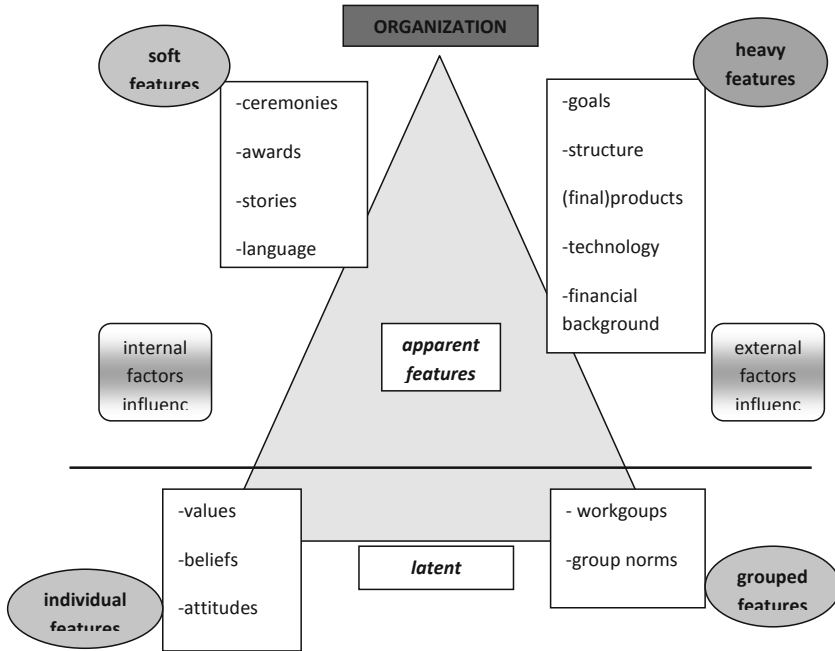
Figure 2: Sorting of the organizational culture's factors

Source: own figure on the basis of Schein [1992, 9. p.]

Many authors [Cameron-Quinn, 1999; Shamil, 2001; Carnall, 2007, etc.] have given different approaches about organizational culture. Since this paper doesn't aim to collect the definitions of organizational culture and either doesn't seek to make distinction among them, it highlights two approaches. Deal & Kennedy [1982] suggest that the history, the values and beliefs, the rituals and ceremonies, the stories, the heroic figures and the cultural network are the basis of corporate culture. The simplest definition is "the way we work here" [Fábian, 96. p.].

A new model has been created [Figure 2] on the basis of Schein [1992, 9. p.] which demonstrates the most important features of the organizational culture.

• Heavy features: these determinate the basis of the organization; it means that these factors are not easy to change. In order to modify the heavy features leadership should consider any external factors like the actual financial, economical and political circumstances, the market situation and the legal regulation in the country.

• Soft features: these factors change easier, for example a generation turnover can modify the lingo and/or the language at the organization. The direct changing of these factors is also easier, for example creating a new symbol or making up

stories in order to highlight some values for newcomers.

• Individual features: the values and personality of the newcomers are influencing these factors of the organizational culture. These are different among each employee and also these determinate the collection of this latent features the on the whole. In order to change and/or develop these factors leadership should consider that the values, the attitudes and norms are not easy to revise because these are already evolved through the socialization of the newcomer.

• Grouped features: these are created by the group, so the newcomer should consider them when he gets employed by the organization. These are shaped through interpersonal communication and relationships. New ethical guidelines and policies can change these factors.

The theory may help everyone who endeavour to analyze or to rethink the features of the organizational culture, as this model constitutes the practical framework of their tasks.

Getting to know, accepting and fitting in the latent features of the organizational culture takes a long time and needs more investigation from the newcomer and also from the organization.

In order to clearly determine the HR/direct manager tasks through the newcomer's integration, a separation in the process is needed.

Process of integration at the workplace

formal part   *informal part*

(documentation)   -   task
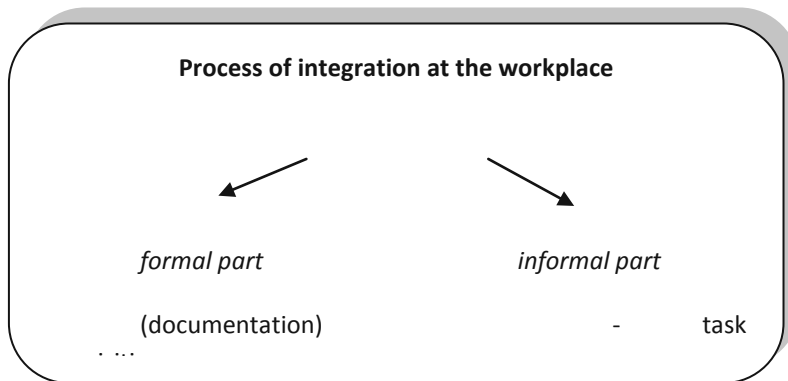
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Figure 3: Parts of integration at the workplace

Source: Kozák 2012, 70. p.

My explanation for the integration at the workplace includes two parts: a formal and an informal part. The formal part essentially contains the documentation for which there are legal and/or organizational requirements. The informal part of the integration process has three important factors:

1. Task acquisition in practice: knowing the tasks on a daily basis and the way these should be accomplished – the ability to work independently and the realization of the added value to the organization;
2. Contact creation: getting to know the direct co-workers and managers, building connection networks at the workplace and fitting in the hierarchical system;
3. Organizational culture: getting to know the organizational habits, values and rules (Kozák 2012).

Considering the literature review in workplace socialization and my professional experiences in Human Recourses Management, I have settled the following hypotheses:

H1   There are workplace orientation programs for helps desk positions within SSC companies in Hungary.

H2   Workplace orientation programs strongly emphasis the importance of tasks and no or less attention is given to fitting in the organization culture – especially for the latent factors of organizational culture.

H3   Orientation programs are the same in the parent company, too (exempt the legal requirements).

H4   These orientation programs cost a lot (on the basis of my pre researches, at least 300 unprofitable work hours plus 150.000 HUF) for SSC companies.

Aims and Methodology

In this part of the paper the aims and the methods of a future research are analyzed. I have choosen the SSC companies for research, because most of the positions are similar within the SSC companies, especially the help positions, which are very similar.

Considering the social changes, the economic situation in Hungary, the literature review and my explanation for the orientation at the workplace, the research will consist of three questions, and each question includes sub-questions. The questions are the following:

1. How does the integration in practice at Hungarian SSC factories work? What are the steps of integration? Are there steps for the goal of getting to know the workplace socialization, too? How can companies integrate newcomers in the organizational culture?
2. Multiculturalism: does the subsidiary company use the same process as the parent company? Which are the same factors of integration at the workplace and which factors have been changed because the cultural specificions?
3. How much does the orientation process cost for the companies? How long does it take? Can they reduce these costs? If yes, how?

In order to answer these questions and those which will arise thought the examination, the document analysis in organizational documents and half structured interviews with Human Resource Managers at the organizations have been chosen as research methods. The document analysis shows the way the orientation process is regulated and the interviews are pointed out how it works in practice.

Antal [1976, 15 p.] calls document analysis every process during which on the basis of the regularly recurring features of notices and messages we come to conclusions which are not overtly stated but they can be read from the way of the message formulation i.e. coding and maybe they can be verified and continued in a different way with other methods not document analysis. Klein [2004, 120. p.] defines half structured interview as a conversation which aim to get information and collect data. A more detailed approach suggests that half structured interviewing known as unstructured interviewing, is a type of interview which researchers use to elicit information in order to achieve a holistic understanding of the interviewee's point of view or situation; it can also be used to explore interesting areas for further investigation. This type of interview involves asking informants open-ended questions, and probing wherever necessary to obtain data deemed useful by the researcher. As half structured interviewing often involves qualitative data, it is also called qualitative interviewing [Internet 2].

In the first period of the research the document analysis will be made and considering its results the half structured interview questions will be compiled.

Results

In this part of the essay, the expected results of the analysis in workplace socialization are presented.

Document analysis will show the legal and organizational requirements for orientation programs. Legal requirements are based on employment law (employment contact, scope of activities) and labour safety law (regulations for work hours, work conditions, ect.). Organizational requirements are based on the parent company's policies.

I assume that the orientation programs are well-organized and the programs take maximum three months. I also guess that in the process of workplace orientation HR stress the goal of learning the knowledge for the position (for example there is a mentoring system and required SAP training and exam). Knowing the tasks on a daily basis does not everything: fitting in the work team and getting to know the organizational culture is also important. Supposedly HR does not emphasis these factors; there are no or less actions for them.

After the workplace orientation programs HR regards the newcomers as old employees, there are no more organizational actions in order to integrate them.

The cost of fluctuation is much for all type of companies, especially for SSC companies because in helps desk positions there is an organized training program for newly hired employees. SSC companies are searching for employees with command of languages and this type of company say that "we will teach everything else for the newcomers". Literature shows that good orientation programs reduce the cost of fluctuation. The cost of orientation programs is the part of the organization's fluctuation costs. In my view my results will show that orientation programs are too long (there are too much unprofiatable work hours) and it would be more beneficial if HR would pay more attention on fitting as a team and as an organizational member. Being an organizational member (getting to know and accept the latent organizational culture's factors) has its own merits: loyalty towards to the organization, willingness to work more, etc.

My results would be useful for SSC companies to re-thing orientation programs and the integration/socialization activities after that.

Summary

The goal of this study was to illustrate the reasoning, the methods and the questions of a future research in integration at the workplace. The social changes in Hungary justify the analysis of work socialization and the review of the literature shows that there is a wide-range of studies about work socialization, but less attention has been given to the importance of organizational culture. This paper also illustrates a theory for organizational culture which may help everyone who aims to analyze or to rethink the features of the organizational culture. Considering the literature review and my professional experiences in HR management, at the end of this part of the essay the hypotheses were settled, too.

This essay analysed the chosen methods (half structured interview and document analysis) which will be used for the research. The most important questions of the examination were also pointed out.

The analysis of work socialization has its own practical merits and I intend to deliberately and analytically reveal its important factors and steps. Furthermore, I endeavor to focus on its organizational effects and also try to come up with suggestions that would be taken into account in the human resources activities.

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MAGDOLNA LÁCZAY[1]

Relations of Social Traditions and Progression Processes in the Enterprises of the Northeastern Region

Abstract

The social processes of borderline minor villages have developed unique formations since the regime change in Hungary. Initially they were realised in the creation of forced enterprises and later on in the modern forms of the so-called social enterprises of local authorities. Hereby I examine the survival of traditional social values on its complexity by the more popular integration approaches of historical and management sciences. In minor settlements local entrepreneurs, even mayors, who were earlier considered to use outdated methods, adapt their previous knowledge and traditions to the organization and management of their present enterprises. They mostly employ communal workers or unemployed ones for these traditional agricultural enterprises. As for the schools of management, contingency theories seem to provide us with the combination of methods of the fields of sciences, which focus on the question whether the phenomenon can be considered progressive.

Sustainability in a region behind?

To define the abovementioned northeaster region seems quite difficult even with the knowledge of the various disciplines of social sciences. The definitions of regions on an economic, geographical, historical basis, or on that of size (as micro, mezzo or macro), spatial structure or development are subject to conditions. Therefore I am obliged to use the expression *area* to describe the territory as it was applied by László

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Gulyás (2012) to combine the qualities. I apply the expressions region or regionalism only when sources or programmes require them. When trying to define the borderline areas it is necessary to face the dilemmas of administrative, development-statistical and spatial structural grouping. However, I intend to emphasise that these have all influenced the definition. Although the small borderline settlements (as now called districts) of Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg county are part of different minor areas, a certain historical factor makes them identical, namely that of the borders. This man-made barrier blocked the organic development of the settlements during most of the 20th century. The old-time memories of the inhabitants enabled them to cope with the situation since split power and administration, although in different forms, had been well-known for long since the age of the Turkish occupation. In the territories between the separated greater areas, in the Partium, not only the separation and the openness but also the defencelessness and the ability of self-organizing could be seen. The 20th century brought long-term diseases for the local inhabitants. As for the second half of the century the researchers of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences (László Bognár and Adrienn Csizmady, 2004) came to the conclusion that "In the past 60 years the economy of villages has been changed three times. All three reforms lacked economic reasons. The principal reason was politics… In the past 60 years the life of village societies had to be reorganized three times for political reasons. Groups of prestige have disappeared or have been reshuffled. New values have gained ground." The 60 years above have affected more than one generation and have led to more changes of regime. There have been land distributions, co-operations and privatisations with further sections of changes. It would be worth examining the existence of possible meeting points of the passing of human generations and these economic and social changes. A relatively small number of researchers have undertaken the task of studying the vertical changes that take place in the lifetime of individuals and which differ from the situation of parents or their previous way of life. László Szabó (2008), one of the ethnographers studying peasant lifestyle, has come to some rather remarkable conclusions. In his view, there have been no effective organizations in history based exclusively on generation gaps. Generation interest, knowledge, relations may certainly be different, although rural (meaning peasant here, LM) communities had a respect for the elderly ones. In Hungary, agriculture is a unique but also the most significant social scene of the phenomenon. Since the 18th century the modernity of a society has included the quality of its agriculture, and the extent to which old feudal restrictions have been replaced by the achievements of middle-class or commodity production. At the beginning of the 1970s Hungarian agriculture attracted the attention of the world (Honvári, 2006). The co-operatives with their harmonized size, the management and production structure lived parallel with the household farming of the "Hungarian model". The latter one led to the upspring of the private sector with the cultivation of market-sensitive and labour-intensive cultures. By this time a new generation of experts had appeared. They had learned the modern technology of mechanization, plant protection, processing and marketing at technical schools, agricultural colleges

or universities. They made up the elite of the Hungarian agriculture possessing both the financial and local political power, most often as the leaders of the local authorities. But their main virtue lied in their competence. During the changes of the next decade some of them stood out by the help of their private properties while others attempted to organize processing for the traditional production. The Compensation Act first resettled the properties as they were in 1948 but later on by the soon-coming structural changes these experts became the elite of the agriculture after the regime change. As it was proven in my previous research (Láczay, 2008) two groups could be distinguished. The first one was comprised of the leaders who were able to establish their properties at the time of privatisation, their competence was guaranteed by their high education degrees and possessed a wide range of professional contacts. They made up the group of agrarians who started their career at the successful time above and are retiring in present days. The other group comprises the old smallholders' children who are attached to the land for earlier traditions. They were educated, may have started to work in other sectors, but after losing their job they returned to the job of their parents and moved back to the villages. They gathered enthusiasm to restart by the regained land, by the compensation they received at their workplace or by the adaptability acquired during their higher education. Today this layer has mostly risen, they back local authorities and educate their children in agriculture-related fields. Although it is not yet appreciated, it is evident without any doubt that both groups are comprised of highly educated individuals with professional traditions and the relevant prestige and influence on local matters. They meet the specifications of the nationally and internationally accepted elite of the regime change. We suppose that the same processes have taken place in minor areas, regions as in the national or international economic, political and social life. Parallel to the national events the counties and villages have had their particulars, their own models of social structures relevant to the processes of the centre.

In the past 25 years this old-new elite, which may be called peasant-citizens or agricultural entrepreneurs, have given their place to their children. Partly due to the specifically Hungarian interpretations of convergence programmes and mostly to the long-lasting economic recession, the entrepreneurs and authority leaders of present-day smaller settlements have been forced to face new issues. In lack of effective external model for solution they are obliged to revise the practice of their own predecessors.

Local effects of development programmes

In 2009 the Demographic Research Institute of the Hungarian Central Statistical Office published the Demographic Portrait of Hungary with the subtitle Report on the Conditions of the Hungarian Population. This work documents some of the social

and economic changes which have been formed and strengthened since the regime change or our EU accession. Unfortunately, some of the negative facts are more relevant to the northeast area. Unemployment, employment, migration and ageing small settlements, but also the greater range of Roma population showed the most significant differences at the time. Mostly the facts and data of the disadvantageous areas listed above urged the integrated programmes of regional development, rural development and of environmental management. These programmes intended to prepare the candidates of the region for an efficient use of the EU sources. I examine the mostly affected regions (called districts again from 2013) of Fehérgyarmat and Vásárosnamény. The chances here were seriously harmed by the enterprise structure, having mainly self-employed forced entrepreneurs with weak capital and competitiveness. The economy of the area at that time lacked medium-sized enterprises with solid capital.

The 2005 integrated development programme of Fehérgyarmat stated that "As part of the country development programme and of the regional development objectives, regional compensation and improvement of borderline relations make the Fehérgyarmat Small Region a featured area. The significant subsidy supports the implementation of the integrated programme."

Furthermore it expects "the society development programme, known as social land programme, to improve the living standards of socially disadvantageous families, the permanently unemployed ones and those who own no land and also to initiate current workforce and techniques in agricultural activities. The sample programmes of the Small Region in Túrricse, Cégénydányád, Tiszakórod, Milota, Tiszacsécse, Fülesd, Botpalád, Kispalád, Uszka, Tisztaberek and Túristvándi focus on support and service in kind."

These are the roots of the economic form I define as the economy of local authorities or settlements or as social economies. Inhabitants of the abovementioned villages earn their living from the same forms. Meanwhile, however, the New Hungary Development Plan was accepted for the period of 2007-2013. As a comprehensive objective to develop the northeast region it plans to make it the centre of quality life, health and recreation in East-Central Europe. As opposed to other regions this unfortunately resulted in the fact that no job generating investments were planned. The sustainability of ecological systems needs to be protected from one or two logistic centres and the objectives related to tourism require some explanations. However, numerous tenders were successful and there was some infrastructural development. But there were hardly any new workplaces created thus increasing unemployment to extremely high levels. The county average itself shows great extremes with 15–19% at certain small regions.

Table 1: The rate of employment and unemployment 2006–2012

	2006	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**
Country rate of employment %	50.9	50.9	50.3	49.2	49.2	55.8	51.4
Rate of employment in Sz-Sz-B County %	42.9	42.4	40.9	40.6	41.9	42.4	45.7
Country rate of unemployment	7.5	7.4	7.8	10.	11.2	10.9	10.6
Rate of unemployment in Sz-Sz-B County %	13.6	14.7	17.5	19.1	18.4	15.8	13.3

Source: County Statistical Periods (2000–2012), HCSO.

From social land programme to settlement social economy

This paper does not intend to give a historical approach to public employment, not even to explain the several regulating laws and acts. However, it is necessary to outline the changes of the state's concepts on passive and active employment policies which have been applied to manage unemployment. Although there was a disposition for the provision of the unemployed in as early as 1886, it was not at all such a serious problem as it has become for today. For the sake of our discussion here I focus on three forms of employment which followed and modified the opportunities of the unemployed, namely public works programme, public purpose work and public employment service.

The Act III of 1993 on social administration and social provisions provided and established the extents of future modifications which were meant to influence the rates of aids and reemployment. From 1996 on the Board of Public Works managed the public works programme which aimed to promote active employment. By 1997 local authorities had the right to modify the system of provisions for their inhabitants since they were obliged to organize public purpose works for the unemployed in an active age. They were most frequently involved in the authorities' operative work. However, there was a limited number of temporary and unskilled jobs and the supervision of public purpose works also proved to be difficult for some settlements. Public employment regained its importance in 2000 but was not modified until 2011. Act CVI established the National Employment Service and entitled local governments to become public employers. Act I of 2012 determines the work forms and payments of public employees. Previous traditional work forms for national public tasks, regional Start programmes and further, non-classifiable works can be considered as types of public works. Act

CLXXXIX § 13 of 2011 defines the responsibilities of local governments, being both administrative body and public employer, on local public matters and on locally performable public tasks.

The newly formed judicial-administrative rights enabled the governments of the settlements to act upon the management of the current constraints. The objectives of the Start work programme, including cooperative enterprises in agriculture, self-supporting and self-sufficiency, etc put a stress on them. It reminds me of a sad parallel and the first Hungarian economic periodical, Vizsgálódó Magyar Gazda and the specialist book entitled Nemzeti Gazda have come to my mind (both were edited by Kisszánthói Pethe Ferenc, who was born in the region in 1763), as well as his advisory book entitled Pallérozott magyar gazdaságra. The world has changed dramatically during the last two hundred and fifty years but we still have the old problems hidden beneath and we need to ask whether the old remedies can be applied today.

For this reason it is essential to define public workers. Without undertaking a sociographic analysis we need to focus on some facts in order to understand the establishment of regional economies. When describing the migration processes of the 20th century, nearly all demographers emphasise the fact that it is the northeaster regions of the country which were most often left. This has been the case, with some minor differences, since the change of regime. The years between 1990 and 2006 witnessed a remigration period when the unemployed, the pensioners, and the previously commuting ones moved back to their earlier place of living. The northeaster area, on the contrary, has a constantly negative internal migration balance. Compared to the country population the most significant loss in migration can be seen in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg and Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén Counties (Demographic Portrait of Hungary, 2009). On the other hand, the Northern Great Plain region seems to be the third most highly-populated region following Budapest and Central Hungary. This can be traced back to the moving back discussed above, leading to the increase of inactive aged and unemployed population and also to the growth of Roma population which has the second highest rate following the Northern Hungary region. As for the borderline small settlements under my investigation, the growth of Roma population is considerable and in some settlements it is even several times higher than the average in the county. Researches or census are unable to provide us with the exact data. The experimental calculations of László Hablicsek (2007) predict that in one or two generations the number of self-identified Romas will double or even multiply. Predictions are rarely prompt, but no matter what will come, it is evident now that Roma women are much more willing to bare children. As a conclusion, small settlements need to face a twofold tendency. Most of the native youth look for a job and settlement elsewhere, while it is for the locals and the local governments to support the integration of the coming Roma generation.

tel epülés
% szerit

☐ 0-0,9 % (1207)
☐ 1-2,9 % (373)
▨ 3-0,0 % (550)
▩ 10-24,9 % (431)
■ 25-100 % (485)
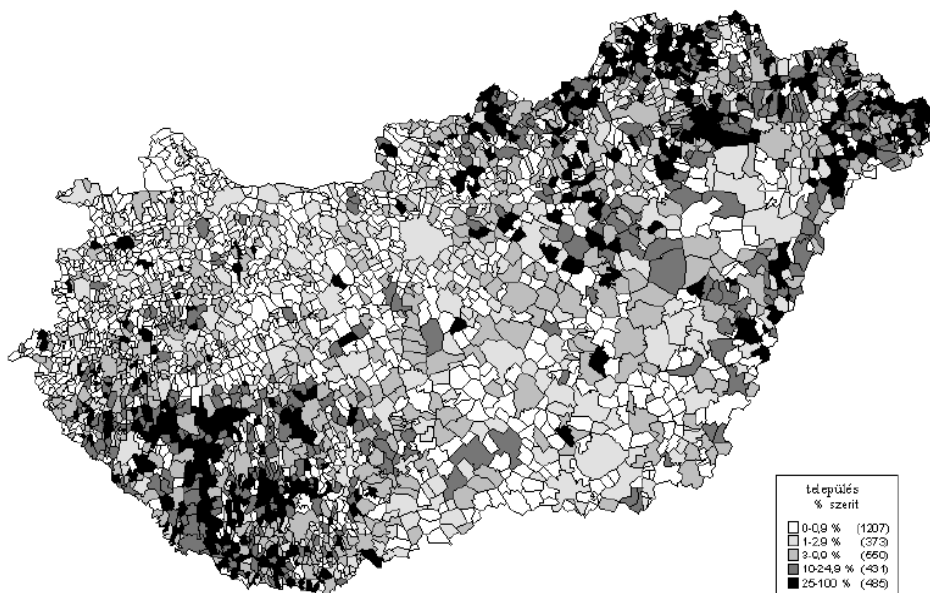
Figure 1: Roma population in Hungary – in relation to the rate of local population. Settlements in %

Source: Hablicsek, L. 2007, Kertesi, G. – Kézdi, G., Socio-typo. Bp. 1998.

These data are only for informative use since not all the population identify themselves as being Roma and there is constant migration and a rapid change of generations. However, in the last 15 years the tendency has not changed and the number of settlements with more Roma population has also increased in the area. Within the settlements of the districts the number of highly affected small settlements is rather high.

Table 2: The rate of small settlements in the districts

Population of settlements	Fehérgyarmat	Csenger	Mátészalka	Vásárosnamény
Rate of settlements with less than 500 inhabitants	39%	63%	7%	15%
Rate of settlements with 500-999 inhabitants	46%	9%	23%	59%
Rate of settlements with less than 1000 inhabitants	85%	72%	30%	74%

Source: edited by the author

To sum up, in small settlements the number of the educated youth has decreased while the number of the unemployed has increased. The latter ones are offered seasonal agricultural work which provides them with temporal employment. A certain kind of regular employment is gained by public employment.

Leaders of the settlements need to apply for the subsidies of public work programmes every year and thus the planned, conscious economy and the security of social provisions is guaranteed only when they are able to reach a level of subsistence. When choosing the possible forms of work leaders need to face further problems. The number and preparedness of public workers enables them to undertake mainly labour-intensive work, such as forest plantation, supposing that the saplings and the necessary devices are provided from subsidies. When launching social enterprises mayors need to cope with the lack of the most important conditions, with the lack of the starting capital, and with the fact that their employees, the public workers miss up-to-date technical skills, and they do not own modern technical devices for production. Although there is a demand for their products, it is not entirely of marketing nature, rather than a means of redemption of and addition to aids while with the traditional public works they fulfil some of public tasks of the settlement.

Who are the entrepreneur mayors?

41 of the mayors questioned have told about why and how they organize public works and what kind of agricultural productive work they lead. The questions "who they are" and "what motivates them" naturally arise. These questions have been asked when examining the position of the agricultural experts of the regime change and I found it suitable for proving the theory of the introduction, namely that of the existence and behaviour of the local elite. This has been reinforced by the change of generations.

Most of the mayors of the small settlements are among them. Only two of the entrepreneur mayors are not locals, and their fathers and grandfathers were also leaders. The two mayors are also from the county and came to the settlement after their marriage. I intend to illustrate their professional suitability by the level of their qualification and the sectorial distribution of theirs.
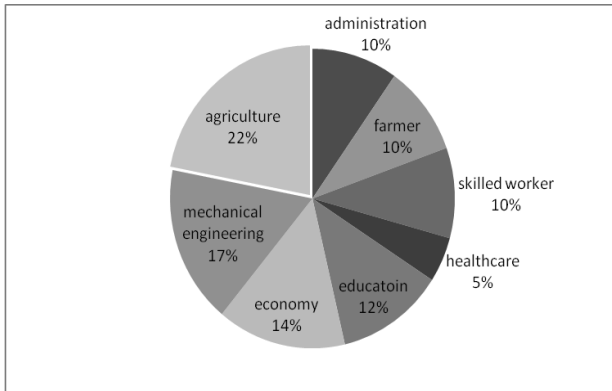
Figure 2: The qualification of mayors in sectors

Source: own survey.

Traditional sectors recall the former branches of the cooperative farms since mechanical engineers most often graduated from agricultural secondary schools or colleges, while the economists did not tell about their qualifications but are elderly and possibly have no documented professional qualification. Among educators there are only a few ones with administrative qualification, but leaders with more than one degree are also common.

The level of education shows a similar division. 51% of mayors have higher, 27% have secondary education qualification. Some of the latter ones perform their service-like duties in settlements with only one or two hundred people.
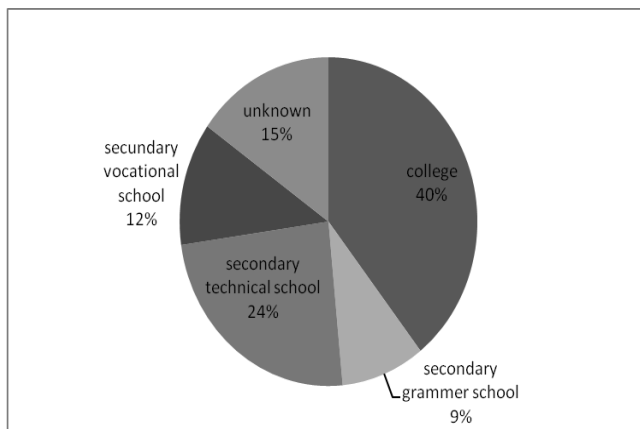
Figure 3: The education level of mayors

Source: own survey.

The scientific evaluation of the phenomenon may not be popular due to the small individual samples, the delicate socio-political questions or the administrative body which cannot bear an interpretation as the achievement of the western middle class. It is more difficult to form an opinion when considering the contradiction that considers concentration or atrophy, and at the same time the protection of the values of tourism and ecology as being the rations of sustainability. On the contrary, the international phenomena of management sciences of the 21st century are also applied. According to Berde (2013), the significant change is due to the presence of task-oriented structures. Ad-hoc and project organizations can adapt to the challenges of the environment, can utilize the sources of organizational culture and are able to transform more flexibly. The organizations of the local social enterprises can be defined from this approach as being a combination of ad-hoc and project organizations. The recruitment of workforce is launched based on the laws of provisions for the unemployed, while the start of the work is marked by the successful tenders of public employment. Although the economic analysis cannot experience much efficiency, the analysis of leadership conditions can be rather instructive. The theory of contingency is realized not only within the factual ranges of tasks of the greater tenders but also within the minor tenders of the small settlements. Individual values may represent a source of power and thus represent the hope for the start of a slow organic development. This, however, requires the public employer-mayors to have certain alignments which are motivated only by theoretical assumptions in specialised literature. Hereby I can only undertake the description of the phenomenon and the definition of the questions and doubts which arise within, instead of evaluating them from a historical and managerial point of view.

Applying the works of Herzberg, Meyer, allen and others, Zoltán Krajcsák (2013) defines three occurrences of the relations of alignment and motivation. *Affective alignment* creates long-lasting identification with the organization supposing the attitude of emotional attraction. In the present case it is doubtful whether it is affection for the settlement or for their position. Krajcsák describes a so-called *calculation-based attitude* which links the employee to the organization only as long as it is worth for them or until they find a better job. There is also a *normative alignment* based on moral values. The stability and the hereditary nature of settlement leaders have given rise to further doubts for the researcher of social history.

May the mayors of small settlements regenerate the society of gentries in the new century? It is evident that we have all the conditions given. However, we are more likely to believe in the revival of attitudes of the reform era of the early 19th century and also in the fact that by the affective alignment of the gentries the inhabitants of the area will be directed towards an alternative of a working Hungarian model. According to Berzeviczy, the English word *gentry* was meant for the entire group of educated, wealthy and prestigious middle class including

major landowners, men of sciences, lawyers, wholesalers, army officers, priests, etc, regardless of their birth. Their only task is to become gentlemen, as the old saying says, "A King may make a nobleman but cannot make a gentleman."

When facing new phenomenon we always look for the experience of our predecessors, we apply their intellectual heritage. That is why I believe their revival may not isolate the dilemmas of small settlements but rather appreciate them. And thus will help the old-new elite to represent and meet the old objectives more effectively.

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ZBIGNIEW MAKIEŁA

Regional Innovation Systems in the Process
of Region Management

Abstract

Regional Innovation Systems constitute a particular type of network systems. All belonging to them, and institutional traders are to actively participate in the creation and implementation of innovation and achieve in this respect as the greatest benefits. Relations between the network participants based on the principle of cooperation, exchange, and not on the principle of subordination of some subjects to others. RSI require such a change in the approach to the management of the region to the individual network elements have been able to meet emerging in the manifold difficulties of everyday life. The implementation of innovation policy in the region requires absolutely support from the local authorities. RSI network system is the optimal solution for the construction of a regional knowledge-based economy. In Poland we are now at the stage of developing RSI and support them-Regional Innovation Strategy. The latter are designed to raise the level of innovation in the local economy by creating dependencies between important for the actors (universities, regional development agencies, local authorities, institutes, R & D). It's about even better use of the resources accumulated in the region of knowledge, technology and experience related to the implementation of innovative business ventures.

Introduction

Changes currently taking place in the global economy focus on gaining lasting competitive advantage of particular company, region, country or organization over competition. This process requires changes in the very concept of how business entities function, as they have to adjust to new trends of global economy: there is a shift from mass production, labour-consuming and material-consuming type of economy

towards the type of economy in which innovation is the main factor stimulating economic growth and competitiveness. The regions which based their development on innovative economy have become the leading regions in a relatively short period of time. Specialisation in manufacturing products which require a great deal of innovation led to technological advancement of such economies and, consequently, their economic growth. Currently the most significant challenge for business entities and regions is finding the answer to the question as to where and how to search for innovations? Identifying the sources of innovation requires not only a careful diagnosis of regional material resources but also intellectual ones since they are absolutely essential in gaining a lasting competitive advantage and becoming successful on the market.

Regions of Knowledge

Creating the Regions of Knowledge and Innovative Regions is a process which is complex, long-lasting and diversified regionally. The regional aspect is especially noticeable in Poland with its significant diversification of particular regions in relation to their development potential. In well-developed regions the process of building the knowledge-based economy can be achieved relatively quickly and so can be enhanced their competitiveness. In the reality of a free market economy, competitiveness of a region means gaining lasting advantage over other regions. It manifests itself in systematic reinforcement of regional firms, searching and developing areas of business activities, building links between science and economy, caring for the development of regional labour market. Great care in attracting new investments, which are necessary to boost development and competitiveness, is particularly crucial in poorly-developed regions (e.g. provinces of eastern Poland). Investments, and foreign investments in particular, are especially desirable in such areas due to the possibility of importing innovative capital. Not every region is the area where there exist adequate conditions for creating and implementing innovations, which are, as it has already been emphasized, absolutely essential in creating modern economy. The best conditions for developing innovations can be encountered in well-developed regions and, these are the ones which are already competitive. In such regions the local self-government and entrepreneurs can identify correctly the needs of domestic and local economy, and they can utilize knowledge for the region development and modernization[1].

In Poland the best chances for building a modern economy have those regions where industry and service sector are already technologically advanced, and the links between science and economy are likely to increase the competitiveness

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[1] S. Korenik, 2007, Budowa Gospodarki Opartej na Wiedzy w przekroju regionów jako wyzwanie dla procesów integracji krajów UE, [w:] Innowacyjny jednolity rynek – wyzwaniem dla wymiaru gospodarczego UE, Warszawa, Urząd Komitetu Integracji Europejskiej, s. 79–80.

of the firms based in the region. Local self-government, being an important player on the map of regional system, has a crucial role to play here. The role of the local self-government in the process of building regional structures of economy is not limited only to inspiring business initiatives, financial and logistic support for business entities. Local self-government should coordinate the activities of centres of regional management with the tasks of Regional Innovation Systems (RSI).

Local self-government should coordinate the activities of regional management centres with the tasks of Regional Innovation Systems (RSI). Regional Information Systems, incorporating regional institutions from both private and public sector, business entities and other regional institutions, should form a co-operation platform according to the criteria accepted by all interested parties. The system defined in this way is the initial stage of building the concept of region management based on network relations and is composed of local self-government (leader of the structure), regional management centres (e.g. regional development agencies, information centres, financial advice centres, etc), RSIs grouping innovative companies, universities, research and development centres, banks, organizations which support innovations and entrepreneurship (business incubators, regional technology transfer centres, technology parks, etc.).

In the literature on the subject RSI[2] is perceived as a system, in which the function of creating innovations is the dominant one. RSI is a system in which adaptive and modifying ('learning') activities are prevailing. The region which focuses on implementing innovations will always be a 'learning' region. Florida[3] compared a 'learning' region to a 'learning business enterprise' which introduces improvements, new solutions, improves its own structure and organisation. In 'learning' regions the knowledge is generated in the society thanks to mutual cooperation; it is practical knowledge related to the current needs. In the creation process scientific research centres, learning institutions and specialist from different fields participate. Generating knowledge in a 'learning' region should be supported by local authorities. According to Korenik[4], a 'learning' region undergoes constant changes, creates highly-evaluated technological innovations, changes radically its activities and, consequently, is able avoids fossilization.

According to the author the 'learning region' is the creator of network relations within a region, in which a rising number of business entities, schools and social organisations take part. The most important role in this process is attributed

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[2] M. Miedziński, *Koordynacja procesów innowacji na przykładzie polskiego województwa. Aspekty instytucjonalne regionalnych systemów innowacji*, [w:] *Gospodarka Oparta na Wiedzy – wyzwanie dla Polski XXI wieku*, (red.) A. Kukliński, Warszawa: KBN 2001, s. 212.

[3] M. Gibbons, C. Limoges, H. Nowotny, S. Schwartzman, P. Scott, M. Trow, 1994, *The New Production of Knowledge: The Dynamics of Science and Research in Contemporary Societes*, Londyn: SAGE Publications, s. 19.

[4] S. Korenik, *Budowa Gospodarki Opartej na Wiedzy w przekroju regionów jako wyzwanie dla procesów integracji krajów Unii Europejskiej*, [w:] *Innowacyjny jednolity rynek – wyzwania dla wymiaru gospodarczego Unii Europejskiej*, Warszawa: Urząd Komitetu Integracji Europejskiej 2007, s. 84.

to local self-governments and specialist institutions created by self-governments in order to satfisfy the needs of network economy. The main objective is the rational use of local economic base of the region, attracting investments fostering the economy growth, and the ones which are in line with the development directions defined in the regional development strategy.

Local self-governments supporting the creation of knowledge-based economy (GOW) should be interested in creating RSI, which may be a tool in building regional network relations. The role of RSI is encouraging business entities, science and educational institutions and organisations to form network structures, and in doing so pointing out potential benefits resulting from economic relations between network members, relations which are based on cooperation between them and not subservice.

In the concept model of RSI the dominant approach in region management is the one which displays such structuring of mutual relations that would enables overcoming competitive, organizational and structural barriers. Conducting a rational policy of creating 'innovative region' should serve this objective. According to Metcalf the implementation of this task requires considerable commitment from local authorities in the process of developing strategies for innovative region management[5].

We are in Poland at the initial stage of developing RSI and Regional Innovation Strategies. The latter are aimed at increasing the level of innovativeness of the local economy through fostering mutual relations among the important subjects (institutions of higher education, regional development agencies, local authorities, R&D centres). The idea is to optimize the accumulated regional natural resources, knowledge resources, modern technologies and experiences relating to the implementation of innovative economic enterprises. Until recently, the guiding principles for the development of regional systems and innovation strategies were provided by Lisbon Strategy (2000–2010); presently, the guiding principle will be provided by the new development strategy for the European Union, that is the document prepared by the European Commission and entitled 'European Union 2020'.

Model of Regional Innovation System

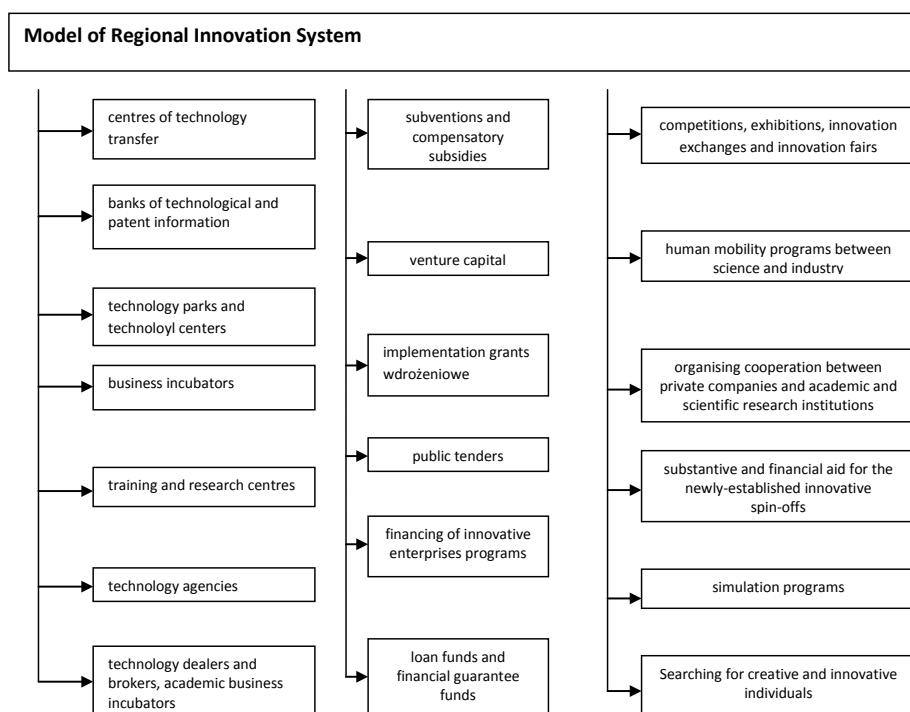Regional System of Innovations is based on three types of activities:
1. development of innovation and entrepreneurial centres
2. development of financing instruments for new businesses and risky innovative initiatives
3. promotion of technological entrepreneurship

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[5] L. Metcalfe, *Public management from imitation to innovation*, "Australian Journal of Public Administration", vol. 52(3), s. 292–304.

Innovation and entrepreneurial centres include, among others, centres of technological transfer, banks of technological and patent information, technology centres and technology parks, business incubators, training and research centres, technology agencies, technology dealers and brokers as well as academic business incubators.

The second type of activities include subventions and compensatory subsidies, risk funds (venture capitals), implementation grants, public tenders, financing of innovative enterprises programs, loan funds and financial guarantee funds from para-bank institutions.

Activities which promote and inspire technological entrepreneurship include various competitions, exhibitions, innovation exchanges and innovation fairs, human mobility programs between science and industry (MSP in particular), organizing cooperation between firms and scientific research institutions, substantive and financial aid for the newly-established spin-offs, simulation programs, as well as searching for creative individuals.

Model of Regional Innovation System

centres of technology transfer	subventions and compensatory subsidies	competitions, exhibitions, innovation exchanges and innovation fairs
banks of technological and patent information	venture capital	human mobility programs between science and industry
technology parks and technoloyl centers	implementation grants wdrożeniowe	organising cooperation between private companies and academic and scientific research institutions
business incubators	public tenders	substantive and financial aid for the newly-established innovative spin-offs
training and research centres	financing of innovative enterprises programs	simulation programs
technology agencies	loan funds and financial guarantee funds	Searching for creative and innovative individuals
technology dealers and brokers, academic business incubators		

Source: own study.

Cooperation within the framework of Regional Innovation Systems include regional and local authorities, self-governments, universities, innovation

and business centres, research and development centres, professional trade as-
sociations, consulting firms and agencies, financial institutions, companies from
production and service sectors as well as their research and development base.
The above-mentioned centres and institutions functioning within RSI focus on the
following:
- increasing the quality of people's education through education, training, coun-
  selling, providing information and models of functioning,
- providing organisational and financial support for innovatiove enterprises,
- creating systems which link science and economy (cluster, industrial district),
- transferring technology and systems of relations between companies and re-
  search centres,
- networking between companies, administration and the third sector,
- promoting entrepreneurial spirit, informing people and motivating them to be-
  come self-employed.
       The structure of a Regional Innovation System includes interrelated busi-
ness entities, public and private institutions, which are focused on the creation,
promotion and popularization of entrepreneurship and innovation.

The Concept of innovative economy

One of the main priorities of the European Union member states as specified in the
Lisbon Strategy is building an innovative economy based on knowledge. The main
role in realization of this task is played by particular regions of the EU member
states, in which regional policy should be focused on building modern and com-
petitive economy. The EU policy of integrity implemented in the years 2007–2013
was clearly oriented on implementation of innovative solution. Innovations have
become a top development priority for the European Union.
       Statistics show significant disproportions between particular EU member
states and regions in terms of innovativeness and scientific research activities;
they also show a huge gap between the European Union and its most important
competitors in the world. Europe has to become more competitive, it has to react
faster for the changing situation on the market and changing consumers' prefer-
ences. Europe has to shape the societies and economies that would be friendly
towards innovation. This objective can only be achieved with the application of
the strategic principle which emphasizes partnership between business entities,
scientific research centres, education centres and the public sector. A great deal of
activities which stimulate scientific research and innovations is undertaken most
effectively on a regional level.
       In the EU countries the main instrument of shaping innovation policy on
the regional level is the regional innovation strategies. European regions began to
implement these strategies as early as in the mid-1980s. In our country such strat-

egies were defined and approved by regional self-government in all regions of Poland. Regional Innovation Strategies (RSI) are supposed to build an effective system for supporting innovations in particular regions. They constitute a solid basis for effective regional innovation systems. They define strategic objectives of innovation policy in the regions as well as ways and methods of reaching them.

The main task of the cohesion policy in the next programmed period will be decreasing the innovation deficit in the individual EU member states. Consequently, investments planned within the framework of this policy focus on the following four key elements: activities in the field of scientific research and innovations, entrepreneurship, ICT application and, finally, human capital development. Additionally, the initiative called 'Regions for the economic changes' supports building networks of contacts and learning from other regions based on sharing regional experiences on improving ICT, developing human capital and providing innovative impulse in industrial clusters.

In the context of the above considerations, the following may be concluded:

1. Region of knowledge – specifies the role of knowledge in determining the processes of regional development and identifies in what way, theoretically and practically, contributes to creating attractiveness and building knowledge-based economy on the regional level.

2. Innovation region – focuses on identifying regional mechanisms of creating innovation processes. It describes the essence of the regional aspect of innovation policy, it is especially important in the development policy of Polish regions.

3. Region in a global economy – shows in what way local and regional community may benefit from the process of globalisation without being marginalised and unified, effectively strengthening its position on the market. The effectiveness of successfully conducting regional development policy depends nowadays primarily on knowledge, competence and awareness of participating 'actors' who play the role in defining priorities and determining the implementation phase. Therefore, the knowledge we present in this coursebook is both educational and systematising in its character; most importantly, however, it should serve as an example of good economic practice in the public sector with respect to using modern tools and factors responsible for region development. – The aforementioned knowledge is presented from the economic, sociological and managerial perspectives. It is addressed to theoreticians as well as practitioners who have to deal with issues relating to the management in local self-government institutions.

Categories of regions in relation to knowledge

In the analytical study "The regional impact of technological change in 2020"[6] commissioned by DG REGIO, Wintjes and Hollanders divide all European regions into seven categories according to socio-economic criteria of regional economies and the principle of knowledge-based economy.

Table 1: Categories of EU regions

Metropolitan regions of knowledge	23 most-densely populated metropolitan areas in Western Europe. These are regions with the highest absorption and providing access to knowledge capabilities, yet with average capabilities of creating knowledge. They are highly-urbanized regions with the highest level of economic development of all EU regions. Most of them are the areas surrounding the largest capital cities.
Regions of knowledge absorption	76 regions, mainly in France, Great Britain, northern Spain, Benelux countries. These are regions with a rising absorption capabilities and average capabilities of creating and providing access to knowledge. These regions show above-average level of economic development and well-balanced development of all branches of knowledge
Public centres of knowledge	16 regions, mainly in Eastern Germany and metropolitan areas in Eastern Europe. These are regions with average knowledge absorption and knowledge creation capabilities. Their level of economic development is comparable with the EU average, they display steady and substantial economic growth
Industrial EU regions with highly-qualified people	Practically, these are all 44 regions in Eastern and Central Europe. These are regions with below-average capabilities of absorption, creating and providing access to knowledge. These are regions with prevailing, until recently, traditional industry; however, they quickly narrow the gap in their pursuit of highly-developed countries
High-tech Regions	17 regions in Germany, Finland, Sweden and Holland where 'new technologies' companies are based; these are regions with above-average ability to absorb, create and provide access to knowledge; these regions show higher-than-average level of economic development and rapid growth, although only in the field of new technologies
Regions of new technologies	38 regions in Germany, northern Italy and Austria. These are regions with above-average capabilities of absorption, creating and providing access to knowledge, yet their growth is below average
Traditional southern regions	39 regions in southern Europe (Portugal, Italy, Greece and Spain). These regions have below-average capabilities of absorption, transforming and access to knowledge. They display below-average level of economic development, many regions in this category focus on farming and tourism.

Source: The regional impact of technological change in 2020.

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[6] R. Wintjes, H. Hollanders, 2002, *The regional impact of technological change in 2020*, Framework Service Contract, Ref SC36 Regional Impact, Snthesis report, Final version, s. 232.

According to the author of this study, after the geographical and economic expansion of the European Union in 2004, increasing the number of categories has to be considered taking into account regions in Eastern and Central Europe; new categories could include, for example, **Traditional eastern regions, Regions with traditional industries, Traditional agricultural regions**.

Substantial diversification of the EU regions is an economic fact and it has become an important issue in Strategy Europe 2000. The European Commission[7] declared seven key initiatives, thanks to which 'economically-weak' regions will be given a chance to speed up their economic growth, and the economies will be able to display high employment and efficiency figures as well as greater social cohesion.

The role of academic centres in building the regions of knowledge

Some researchers believe that the importance of a city as measured by means of giving purely the number of its inhabitants ceased to make sense long time ago. Human factor is measured rather by means of measuring human and social capital[8]. Nevertheless, in regional relations larger metropolitan centres dominate in every aspect since they attract resources which influence the increase in attractiveness of the whole region. Agglomerations developing their scientific, research and educational functions will become more and more important elements in social and economic structure; they will simultaneously transform into the generators of cultural, scientific and technical progress and thus accelerate the process of building regional innovation centres.

Currently the system of region management should take into consideration five key elements which determine development: competitiveness, entrepreneurship, innovativeness, managing finances and investments. As emphasized by Borowiecki, the aforementioned factors constitute the main pillars of every regional policy which should reflect the needs, particular objectives, preferences and priorities of the local society[9] .

Rózga-Luter points out that from the point of view of global economy one can infer that the importance of the economy based on knowledge grows parallelly with the importance of regional and local economy (in author's view the phenom-

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[7] Komunikat COM(2010) 2020 "EUROPA 2020 – Strategia na rzecz inteligentnego i zrównoważonego rozwoju sprzyjającego włączeniu społecznemu".

[8] T. Parteka, 2010, *Miasta wiedzy w kreowaniu konkurencyjności i spójności terytorialnej*, Zarządzanie Publiczne 1(11), s. 32.

[9] R. Borowiecki, 2010, *Zarządzanie w regionie wobec wyzwań współczesnej gospodarki, maszynopis*, Kraków, s. 89.

enon sometimes referred to as the paradox of globalization)[10]. Presence of higher education which contributes to noticeable and lasting socio-economic modernisation is of absolutely crucial importance for both global and regional development[11]. Educated society forms human capital which influences the realization of economic objectives as well as basic human rights and objectives for human development[12] . In the contemporary economy, the function of the institutions of higher education boils down to not only educating future specialists and stimulating the transfer of scientific solutions from the field of science to the business sector, but also participating in projects which increase competitiveness of the region. Thanks to the knowledge-based economy the university has become an important element in the process of city and region development in which the university is based[13].

The definition of competitiveness varies in the literature on the subject. It is generally understood, however, that the term describes the ability to be successful in economic rivalry. In the context of regional development the notion of competitiveness may be understood as the ability to gain a lasting advantage over other regions in the regional rivalry. According to Richter-Kaźmierska, generally speaking, the factors shaping the competitiveness of a region depend to a large extent on the potential of the region itself, active role in planning and implementation of the regional policy by regional self-government, economic policy of the state as well as the implementation of structural policy standards and the EU cohesion policy[14].

In the reality of knowledge-based economy, territorial systems – countries, regions, cities, counties and communes – all have to compete similarly to business enterprises. They compete for capital, innovation capital in particular, as it creates considerable multiplier effect. In the above-mentioned context, Gorzelak and Jałowiecki have distinguished two layers of 'competitiveness' [15]:

- competitiveness of firms located in a given territorial system, in the open world economy,
- competitiveness of territorial systems themselves in gaining new capital, creating new jobs and generating income, attracting highly-qualified staff capable of introducing innovations, applying new technologies, and running large corporations.

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[10] R. Rózga Luter, 2004, *Gospodarka oparta na wiedzy a rozwój regionalny na przykładzie regionu Środkowego Meksyku*, „Studia Lokalne i Regionalne" 1(15), s. 76.

[11] J. Kociszewski, R. Krzemień, 2008, *Funkcjonowanie szkolnictwa wyższego w kształtowaniu kapitału ludzkiego we Wrocławiu*, [w:] *Mechanizmy i uwarunkowania budowania konkurencyjności miasta*, red. J.Słodczyk i E.Szafranek, Wydawnictwo UO, Opole, s. 98.

[12] K. Babuchowska, M. Gross, 2011, *Współpraca jednostek naukowych z gospodarka regionu na przykładzie UWM w Olsztynie*, publikacja internetowa dostępna na http://www.instytut.info/Vkonf/site/1.pdf, (stan na dzień 02.06.2011).

[13] A. Marszałek, 2010, *Rola uczelni w regionie*, Difin, Warszawa, s. 97.

[14] A. Richter-Kaźmierska, 2011, *Partnerstwo na rzecz rozwoju regionalnego a konkurencyjność regionalna*, publikacja internetowa http://mikro.univ.szczecin.pl/bp/pdf/64/19.pdf, (stan na dzień 02.06.2011).

[15] G. Gorzelak, B. Jałowiecki, 2000, *Konkurencyjność regionów*, „Studia Regionalne i Lokalne" Nr 1(1), s. 12.

Higher education plays significant role in increasing regional competitiveness. According to Szczepańska-Woszczyna the role of the institutions of higher education in regional development may be realized in several aspects such as[16]:
- creating soft factors thanks to introducing highly-qualified staff,
- adjusting educational offer to the needs of the region,
- creating research and educational centres.

The above-mentioned activities performed by universities and scientific research institutions contribute greatly to making a given region more competitive since the soft management factors are the most significant for the development of contemporary economy, especially the knowledge resources and qualifications of the employees[17].

The cooperation between universities, institutions of higher learning and schools of various profiles is especially important on the regional level since it contributes to the increase of human and social potential in this region. Certain areas with specific conditions qualify them into the category of 'learning' regions. Some characteristic features of such regions include:
- presence of prestigious university or reputable research centre,
- presence of a large number of companies involved in innovative activities,
- maintaining competitive position of the region, creating new jobs, offering competitive salary,
- the ability to attract investments,
- creating conditions for importing highly-qualified employees,
- creating suitable conditions for pro-development orientation of the region through,
- identifying professional career and social advancement paths of region inhabitants,
- building and reinforcing the importance of the region through creating competitive advantage over other universities, cities and regional businesses,
- building a network of relations between university and the business sector, rising number of enrepreneurial activities among students and academic,
- building good name of the region.
- In a 'learning' region the scope of activities of universities and other institutions of higher education is very wide. Academic offer is addressed to all social groups (adolescents, adults as well as pensioners) and all business entities. It results from the fact that the university, apart from its educational offer, is ready to share its research results with the business sector. There is a noticeable transformation in the concept of the mission of the university: it is becoming oriented also on the needs of economy. Consequently, the concept of knowledge-based economy encourages university authorities, academic staff and stu-

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[16] K. Szczepańska-Woszczyn, 2011, *Rola edukacji w rozwoju regionu*, publikacja internetowa dostępna http://www.sbc.org.pl/Content/4196/rola_edukacji_szczepans.pdf, (stan na dzień 02.06.2011).

[17] R. Borowiecki, Z. Olesiński, 2010, *Kreowanie regionu wiedzy*, maszynopis, Kraków.

dents to search for new ways of knowledge management and project-oriented thinking. (see Table 3).

Table 2: University in a learning region

1.	Scientific activities and explorations aimed at finding new solutions, inventions and patents. Cooperation with economy. Development and presentation of economy-commissioned research, implementation of results with a view to improving the efficiency of business enterprises, cities and regions.
2.	Design and offer of courses, seminars and workshops tailored to the needs of the region's inhabitants in order to improve the quality of human and social resources.
3.	Management and evaluation of innovative projects important for the economy of modern regions, their implementation at the local and national level.
4.	Development of examples of good models to be followed for the regional business entities, development of practice standards for local authorities in relation to local communities, investors and regional business entities.
5.	Analysis of the quality of education in the context of the needs of the global economy and regional competitiveness in the UE
6.	Development of training programmes in counseling and mentoring for people employed in local self-government administration.
7.	Development of the strategy of internal regional network relations with the outer environment through efficient use of electronic networks, the Internet.
8.	Development of life-long educational strategies for employees and inhabitants.
9.	Development of didactic and informational materials specifying the forms of continuing education offered in the region.
10.	Creation of network relations with other cities, regions with a view to building a system of partnership relations of counties, cities, universities, schools, and companies.
11.	Development of educational possibilities for inhabitants of the region
12.	Offer of a wide range of educational possibilities in the form of B.A., M.A. and Ph.D studies
13.	Encouraging and motivating the inhabitants to develop their education in post-graduate studies, conduct scientific research, learn foreign languages, and get involved in other forms of education offered by universities of the third age.

Source: based on N. Longworth, 2006, *Learning Cities, Learning Regions, Learning Communities. Lifelong Learning and Local Government*, Routledge, London and New York, s. 122.

The activities of universities outlined in the above table are an example of initiatives undertaken by academic centres with a view to enhancing competitiveness of regions. On the one hand, the above-listed actions are in line with the concept of knowledge-based economy, on the other hand, they enable academic institutions to develop. Those academic centres which reform their development strategies become part of the management-through-innovation process and put forward their own solutions to problems which affect the economy, will be able

to both compete with other European universities and solidify their position on the competitive market of educational services.

To sum up our considerations up to this point, it is worth adding that the impact of academic centres on competitiveness of the region displays itself chiefly through the realization of basic responsibilities of higher education, i.e. teaching and research. The mission of higher education is creating (discovering) new knowledge, which is then passed down to those interested in acquiring it. In knowledge-based economy a special role is assigned to those who have special knowledge, qualifications and skills. By equipping students with appropriate qualifications, academic centres enhance the quality of human resources in the region, as well as satisfy the needs and expectations of social and economic environment. Global rivalry is conducive to the restructuring of academic institutions and system of education. The scope of activities undertaken by academic centres is changing. Universities do not limit themselves to teaching only, since more and more often they conduct research projects destined for industry or projects commissioned by business enterprises; in this way they are beginning to cooperate with institutions and become engaged in new forms of activity.

Summary

Regional management under the conditions of international competition in Poland is a difficult task due to the lack of experience or tradition of local self-governments. Exposed to the influence of new trends in regional management , we adopt models not tested in our conditions.

The newest concept of regional development is the development based on knowledge. This concept has proved effective in the areas and countries with an advanced level of economic structures and long tradition of economy based on the absorption and knowledge transfer between an enterprise and science.

Long tradition of network links within regional economy in the countries of Old UE shows that economy founded on knowledge works successfully and the regions implementing such a model of management develop faster than the ones leaning on other models of management.

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JUDIT OLÁH[1]

The Overview of the Different Factors Influencing the Rural Labour Market

Abstract

RuralJobs is a collaborative research project partly funded under the European Commission Research and Development 7th Framework Program (FP7). RuralJobs recognises that, across Europe, the proportion of the workforce employed in agriculture has been declining, inducing a great challenge for rural employment policies which still tend to be rooted in the Common Agricultural Policy. In the Member States, the employment situation in rural areas is not representative of the overall employment situation, as this research will show after having defined what exactly we mean as rural employment. Through a detailed definition of the labour market, we will have an overview of what the different factors influencing it might be, particularly in rural areas. This part will help in identifying how exactly to try and act on the stimulation of labour market so as to create new jobs in rural areas.

1. What might rural employment be

Whilst it is clear that rural employment covers all employment in located rural areas (however they are defined), it is also the case that many residents of rural areas commute each day to work in urban centres, such as in Essex County (Fieldsend 2008). It cannot thus be questioned that rural and urban areas are part of an integrated regional economy and cannot be treated entirely in isolation from each other. Small towns (market towns) can act as employment and service centres for their rural hinterlands. This idea has not only been the subject of academic research (Courtney

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et al. 2007); it has also been widely adopted in rural and regional development programmes, for example through the UK Market Towns Initiative (Fieldsend - Boone, 2007) and the current North Great Plain Regional Operational Programme in Hungary. We can thus conclude that the territory which provides rural employment is greater than the territory which is truly rural.

Rural employment is frequently associated with activities which exploit natural capital, especially agriculture and forestry. These activities are elaborated in section 1.2.1.1. This approach is reflected in the priorities of the Rural Development Regulation (EC 2006), where Axis 1 focuses on the agricultural sector and even Axis 3 pays close attention to diversification of farms. The EU Extended Impact Assessment of the EAFRD (EC 2004) states the focus of EU rural development policy will inevitably be conditioned by the context in which the policy has evolved.

Whilst, therefore, there is no question that rural areas should strive to mobilise the potential contribution which natural capital can make to sustainable employment, it should be recognised that in most rural areas, employment will not be based on the exploitation of natural capital and that rural employment policy should also address the competitiveness of rural areas in other respects, such as human and physical capital.

2. The labour market in rural areas

As for every kind of market, we can address the issue of the labour market within the following framework: The demand for workers, the supply of the workforce, and the way how to connect the offer with the demand. Labour market therefore – as ten or even hundred thousands of people experienced after the regime change in Hungary – is not only a theoretical concept, but despite its special operating conditions, is a medium that functions very similar to the "real" markets. This statement seems evident nowadays but we can not forget that in the post socialist countries the system fundamentally rejected the existence of labour market, as the labour force was not considered commodity (Koncz – Balcsók 2006).

Although every science use its own criteria, there is a consensus that the labour market is a medium, in which direct management of human resources takes place. However this market is different than the others: here the person itself is the commodity, therefore the conditions of operation is determined by several different factors (e.g. social aspects) besides the economic interest, so its operation is a lot more complex than any theoretical model (Fazekas 1997; Ekéné Zamárdi 2001).

Radvánszki – Sütő (2007) defined local labour systems (LLS) in Hungary that can be also called local labour markets. They elaborated 139 LLSs in Hungary. Rezsőfi (2006) describes the rural settlements being in an unfavourable po-

sition. In these settlements people can get a job from the local government only, there are no work in 20-40 km, the ratio of low-educated population is high, the population is ageing, young people migrate from this localities, there are no education in 20-40 km, pure quality soil, lack of natural resources, and the lack of domestic and foreign investors.

2.1. The demand for workers

Or also "the supply of job positions". It exists only if a job position can be created. First, we will see what kinds of activities exist in rural areas. New sources of employment might be created within the setting up of a new activity or the extension of an existing one. That is why, as far as our topic is concerned, it is very important for us to identify what could be the main factors influencing those creations of economic activity. Moreover, creation of new activities or extending existing ones in rural areas is directly linked to rural development that can enhance the economy in remote regions.

2.1.1. What kind of activities for the rural areas

According to RUREMPLO study, almost every rural region has some sort of valuable rural amenities. It is not primarily the existence of amenities that matters, but the degree to which these assets are effectively valorised in an economic process generating added value (Terluin et al. 2001) and sources of employment. The HIMILCE study stressed a series of employment niches that can apply to many rural areas (Diputacion de Jaén 2007). Very often, especially in the lagging and backward rural areas, the rural amenities, perceived as landscape, nature, clean air, etc are well endowed but they are not used, they are not well promoted and popularised and may not bring a higher value added and worth (Polidori et al. 2006).

Agriculture is confronted with changing societal expectations and demands regarding its role in food production and in the countryside the European countryside is changing rapidly. In many regions agriculture has lost its central role in the rural economy. Many farm households supplement their incomes with other activities and employment opportunities in agriculture are continually diminishing. Changing agricultural practices (intensification in some areas, abandonment in others), valued landscapes, habitats and cultural traditions are under threat. Many farmers and other rural entrepreneurs are exploring new ways of using their resources to counterbalance these problems (Van der Ploeg et al. 2002). SIMOCA and BIOMIO project worked on sustainable and multifunctional rural development based on the growth of organic farming, showing that organic production can be developed locally to a sufficient degree to sustain a business. The model proposed by the project is sustainable in a local market, where urban consumers are available (near a city) for small cooperative (six persons). The limits of organic market being the higher prices and the awareness of the con-

sumers (Pugliese et al. 2006). Multifunctional agriculture is also a key issue. The TOP MARD research developed the concept of multifunctionality as a rural development policy instrument that is sensitive to economic, social, cultural, environmental and geographical context in an enlarged European Union (Bryden et al. 2006).

Rural areas can also host the development of energy sources and thus become more independent from external energy supply. This can be by setting up alternative activities based on agriculture and forestry, as such are perceived the biomass production and utilisation which is assumed to expand, extent and enhance the economic cycle of the regions and to give new opportunities for businesses, economic activities with heightened value-added and as a result new job opportunities for people to switch in this extended economic cycle (Zimemrman-nova 2006). Employment opportunities and incomes can also be increased there by offering new venues for the empowerment of the renewable energy sector and generating work opportunities for local farmers, communal waste management and forestry companies, etc (Schönbauer et al. 2007).

Jobs created and micro-businesses established are based on using types of (non-economic) capital, like cultural and social capital which have a great importance in more marginal areas (Mets 2007). Thus, another important development strategy for rural regions is tourism development. An increase in tourism leads to an increase in the economy and strengthens regional competitiveness. However, many of these regions do not have the necessary capacities to develop the tourism sector and lack good development concepts (Rasmussen - Balsby 2007; Jenkins 2001). DESTILINK recognises that locally-produced products such as food and beverages (fish and meat, berries and fruit, vegetables and mushrooms), handicrafts (wood, glass or metal), architecture, art and culture (literature, music, theatre, sculpture and painting) can be an important part of a sustainable tourism offer of a "destination". However, tourism is only one amongst many potential sources of rural employment growth. It is a very common mistake and confusion that local actors mention and emphasize tourism as a panacea for their local development. Stagnation in the flow of tourists in some case study regions was caused by the fact that accommodation and attractions did not satisfy the demands of tourists any more. So it is important to keep up with demands of tourists and continuously adjust accommodation (Terluin et al. 2001).

Social farming is also an emerging topic for farms and farmers as well as for different stakeholders in Europe. Social farming includes all activities that use agricultural resources, both from plants and animals, in order to promote social welfare (i.e. social inclusion, rehabilitation, employment, education, therapy, etc.) in rural areas. Yet, models of interlacing social/health care and agriculture are diverse, often adjusted to local tradition and culture, as well as systems of social/health care. The general definition of social farming is not yet agreed around Europe. Still today there are different ways to indicate the phenomenon (farming

for health, green care, social farming, gardening therapy and green programs of social/health care) and to use agriculture or gardening for social/health purposes (Di Iacovo 2006).

According to CORASON, "The de-agriculturalisation of rural communities is arguably the most important social process occurring in rural Europe" (Tovey – Mooney 2006). The contributions which local knowledge makes to non-agricultural economic developments in rural areas are often relatively insignificant. In many cases, non-agricultural enterprises arise as a response to the requirements of former urban dwellers migrating to rural areas, or to manufacturing industries searching for more profitable or more suitable locations for their business. In such cases, external (expert, managerial) types of knowledge dominate the process of development. Local knowledge is important only in the context of other types of knowledge.

Moreover, SMEs that are the most commonly statute available in rural areas, depend solely on their owner's entrepreneurship and competence (thanks to training and external accompaniment); the quality of products / services (and the strategy held); and their products' competitive performance in regional markets (Brickwell 2006).

2.2. Factors influencing the creation of new job positions

This part tried to detail as the factors for the enhancement of the virtuous circle of economic development on a territory; the "philosopher's stone" of any local authority. We mainly identified four types including (1) the intrinsic territorial factors, (2) the web that of interrelation between several kinds of actors that can "mesh" in a whole territory, (3) the potentiality of a demand for the enterprise and (4) the role that public bodies may play (Sabau – Paquiet 2009).

2.2.1. The endogenous assets of a territory, or, in other words local human and material wealth

Actors (main stakeholders, entrepreneurs, local leaders, local authorities, etc) are the essential and decisive factor in employment development. The key question with regard to the actors is whether they have the capacity (knowledge, skills and attitude) to take the right steps towards encouraging employment development. This capacity depends on the degree in which actors face their situation and prospects in the broader national and international context (Terluin - Post 1999). In most of the leading case study regions the capacity (knowledge, skills and attitude) of local actors was better developed than in the lagging case study regions. Local availability of education and training is a key part of successful economic performance in rural areas (Lee et al. 2005; Courtney et al. 2004; Bryden – Hart 2001). It is also important to attract skilled, educated and dynamic people from outside; the relative prevalence of low qualifications in an area may be owing to a low-skill equilibri-

um. New forms of ruralities are linked to social changes: individualistic behaviours modified ageing patterns, blended families, ecological values, exacting quality of life and increased inner-territorial disparities (Mora et al. 2008).

Socio-economic organisation of rural areas is very important in their process of development (Aubert et al. 2005). Geographic location is a significant cost driver for most producers, since it has a particular influence on the costs of raw materials, inventory and logistics. Moreover, in the rural territory, considered in its meaning of space with historical and cultural values, with a strong and visible local identity, typical and traditional sector represent sustainable resources, able to generate development (Polidori et al. 2006; Courtney et al. 2004). A high quality natural and built environment stimulates the local economy through in-migration, business start-ups and tourism; and that good land-use planning is required to achieve not just a balance but a synergistic relationship between conservation and development (Courtney et al. 2004).

Concerning ICT, lack of adaptation to the New Information and Communication Technology negatively influences the unemployment rates, rural SMEs need to exploit the potential for using ICT in order to increase competitiveness. The digital divide exists not just between the standards of ICT technology in different regions of the EU but also in usage of available ICT infrastructure between different sectors of society (Mattas 2008).

2.2.2. The existing networks, and the potential to exchange pieces of information

Formalised networks and communication rules are generally underestimated due to the fact that mechanisms for the management of such communication are rarely developed and the benefits of them not extended to the satisfaction of all members (Tovey – Mooney 2006; Striełkowski – Wasilewski 2005).

Social networks are important drivers of rural development. Leading case study regions were characterised by rather strong internal and external networks, whereas those in the lagging case study regions were usually rather weak. Internal networks of administrative layers are the more successful, the more they are able to make a diagnosis of the regional situation, to identify needs and priorities, and to plan and design appropriate projects within a comprehensive territorial development perspective. External networks of different hierarchical layers of administration perform well if local layers have good contacts with upper level authorities and if they are able to design and prepare specific projects, which are presented to the upper level authorities responsible for decision (Henning 2007; Terluin – Post 1999).

The increase of cooperation between three different communities (universities, public authorities and the business community) is also a good basis for the creation of new activities (County Administrative Board of Norrbotten 2006). It is clear that university-industry cooperation would benefit from more direct

interaction. The introduction of the so called "third mission" of universities - that is to help innovation in industry by co-operating with firms and entrepreneurs, has to face important difficulties when the economic structure of a region is not particularly demanding of scientific-qualified human resources and it is not in a good condition to make use of brand new technological knowledge based on scientific progress (Mathernova at al. 2007).

2.2.3. The existence of markets to deliver the products of the labour, whether these are in the primary, secondary or tertiary sectors

Frequently, the largest markets are in urban areas. Thus an urban-rural linkage is important; some rural firms are unable to expand due to an inability to attract certain skills and have limited market areas (DEFRA 2005). However, employment growth in rural leading regions is not dependent on certain properties: it increases in branches both exposed and less exposed to global markets (intensive international interactions), less vulnerable in fluctuating or stable markets and in labour intensive and labour saving branches. It means that the employment in leading regions shows more indicators of independence, stability and robust to meet the crisis caused by different sources such as world economic stagnation, industry collapse, etc. In lagging regions employment mainly increases in branches characterised by less exposure to global markets, stable markets and labour intensive production. So in leading regions employment development is relatively more vulnerable than in lagging regions (Terluin – Post 1999).

2.2.4. The influence of public bodies

When considering public bodies, people mainly think of what they could do, but hardly ever of what is their actual impact on the existing situation and competitiveness between rural areas, through the funding or taxation policies, from the national (and even continental) to the very local level. Thus, a few papers focussed on public policy evaluation and their effective role in the attractiveness of a territory, from the entrepreneur's point of view. Indeed, at a local level, there is a high variability of levels of support provided by public authorities (Perrin et al., 2003). Government is an important institute for the development of rural economy. Government translates the wish of society (citizens) into regulations (e.g. quality assurance schemes, environmental legislation) and incentives (e.g. agro-environmental measures), which stimulate or restrict business development. Traditional agriculture, for example, is strongly directed by public support, but this is also the case for innovative activities (e.g. Leader+).The role of the government is twofold: on the one hand, regulations define the framework where entrepreneurs can take the initiative, on the other hand incentives are provided to support specific, desired developments. Entrepreneurs have difficulties to find their way in the complex legislation, despite the fact that changes in legislation also offer opportunities for development (e.g. quality assurance, environmental legislation). The same holds true for incentives: although there are considerable incentives for innova-

tion, rural- and regional development at different policy levels, some entrepreneurs do not make use due to a lack of knowledge about these incentives and of the skills to obtain them. Rural development should enhance the capacity of entrepreneurs to develop activities meeting with regulations and taking maximum benefit from the incentives which are available (Vermeire et al. 2006).

Statistical modelling revealed that business start-ups are a significant driver of the employment rate and the case studies confirmed that entrepreneurship and enterprise are key features of well performing local economies. Two points may be noted in his regard; the frequency with which entrepreneurs are relative newcomers, and the valuable role that the local authorities and other local agencies can play in providing a climate conducive to enterprise. The capacity of local institutions to stimulate economic development relates not only to the policies and services that they put in place, but also to their readiness and capacity to engage with local communities, whether locality-based or interest-based. Strong public-private-voluntary sector networks and institutions able to build trust and civic pride are important (Courtney et al. 2004).

Conclusons

We have seen that rural area have particular characteristics concerning employment. Indeed, it has different sectorial employment rates than in urban areas, which is mainly, but not only, due to land use and the place taken by agriculture. Moreover, inside the EU 27, we can see many disparities that demonstrate a vast range of situations even in the so-called rural areas. In addition, there are actual trends of evolution in those areas that can be explained by the agricultural revolution in progress in some NMS, and by the new mass tourism in some rural parts of Europe (but which have to be relativised considering the actual trends).

We have also seen that the labour market is influenced by the characteristics of those rural areas. Indeed, there are some assets that can only be found in rural areas and the rural population has its own specificities that require adaptability to fit with the evolving trends of the rural labour market.

And eventually, we have seen that there are many possible rural development policies that can be set up and implemented to stimulate employment in rural areas. However, the various globally applied policies have a more or less good impact on each targeted area, showing that the one-size-fits-all is not the best starting point to adopt, and arguing in favour of finding a solution for every typical situation.

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